

The Online Journal of New Horizons in Education

Volume 9 Issue 1

January 2018

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Message from the Editor-in-Chief

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TOJNED is confident that readers will learn and get different aspects on educational science and teacher education. Any views expressed in this publication are the views of the authors and are not the views of the Editor and TOJNED.

TOJNED thanks and appreciate the editorial board who have acted as reviewers for one or more submissions of this issue for their valuable contributions.

TOJNED will organize INTE-2019- International Conference on New Horizons in Education (www.int-e.net) on July, 2019 in Prague, Czech Republic. This conference is now a well-known educational science and teacher education event. It promotes the development and dissemination of theoretical knowledge, conceptual research, and professional knowledge through conference activities. Its focus is to create and disseminate knowledge about educational science and teacher education. INTE-2018 conference book has been published at <http://www.int-e.net/intepubs>

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CAN STUDENT PRESENTATIONS BE AN EFFECTIVE FORM OF ACTIVE LEARNING FOR THE STUDENT AUDIENCE?

ALYSA J. REMSBURG*, MADELEINE C. HAGAR**

*University of Wisconsin- La Crosse, 1725 State St., La Crosse WI 54601, aremsburg@uwlax.edu

** 4948 Lyndale Ave South, Minneapolis, Minnesota 55419, madeleinehagar@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

This classroom experiment investigated learning gains and preferences by students who served as an audience for both peer and instructor presentations. An interactive component, such as a game or discussion, was included in each 25- to 35-minute group presentation. Seven student group presentations were interspersed with four presentations of the same format given by the instructor. The same open-ended quiz question was used before and after each presentation to assess learning gains resulting from the interactive presentation. Student scores increased by an average of 2.06 points (out of 5) on the post-instruction quiz for topics presented by the instructor (SD = 0.86 n = 25) and an average of 1.89 points for topics presented by student groups (SD = 0.64, n = 25), but paired t-tests showed no difference in learning between these methods. These data suggest that with significant guidance and clear presentation parameters, students can learn as much from peer presenters as from interactive lessons by the instructor. Surveys at the beginning and end of the semester also assessed student interest in each topic and preferences for classroom learning formats.

Keywords: collaborative learning, group presentations, classroom activities, student perceptions, learning gains

INTRODUCTION

Faculty often devote significant class time to student presentations and wonder if the time is worth it. Measuring learning gains from the students who served as an audience for presentations by their peers was the focus of this project. Student presentations in many classrooms take place in small groups, likely because groups help improve the overall quality of presentations and take less class time for all students to participate than individual presentations. While group presentations keep some students active in front of the classroom, the majority of the class remains a passive audience.

Ideally, student presentation assignments can be designed in a way that makes them effective learning opportunities for both presenters and listeners alike. On the other hand, learning gains for the student presenters may not be sufficient reason to require that the whole class listen to each group if the student audience gains very little. If listening to student presentations is not an effective use of classroom time, instructors could set up group presentations so that only some groups or only the instructor would serve as the audience for the student presentations. These could be live or even pre-recorded videos.

The student presentation format may not lead to effective learning from the student audience for at least four reasons: (1) students paying less attention to fellow student presenters than they would to an instructor; (2) students having less interest in detailed topics selected by other students than broadly applicable topics selected by an instructor; (3) student presenters not communicating as clearly as the instructor; and (4) student presenters having a less sophisticated grasp of the context and significance of the information they researched, as well as less experience evaluating reliable information sources.

The present study compared perceived learning preferences with direct measures of learning gains. It investigated which classroom teaching formats students preferred and perceived as most effective. Additionally, the study investigated whether student interest in topics changed as a result of the lessons. Although assessing the affective domain is imprecise, the overlap between cognitive and affective domains stressed by Bloom (1964, p. 57) makes student interest important to consider.

Context and Review of Literature

Active learning formats during class periods consistently enhance student engagement and learning (Umbach and Wawrzynski, 2005; Michael, 2006), although questions remain about what forms of student engagement are most effective. Group work brings with it a long set of challenges and benefits (e.g., Livingstone and Lynch, 2000; Burdett and Hastie, 2009; Tomcho and Foels, 2012). Active learning classrooms most often take place with students explaining or exploring class concepts with each other in order to apply concepts first presented by the instructor or reading assignments (e.g., Fagen et al., 2002; Crouch and Mazur, 2011; Killian and Bastas, 2015). One form of active learning, known as '*Collaborative learning*' or '*Cooperative learning*', involves student teams creating a final product such as solving a problem (Johnson et al., 1998). In some classroom formats, students serve as the first source of information for peers when they teach concepts to each other. Learning by teaching is highly effective because the teachers have strong motivations to learn while preparing to

teach, actually teaching, and observing pupil performance (Schwartz et al., 2016). This includes the ‘jigsaw’ format where peer ‘experts’ teach within small groups (Clarke, 1994), as well as more formal presentations by students to the whole class. However, when student presentations become lectures, the distinction blurs between active learning and passive learning experiences for the students who are not giving presentations. The study described here focused on formal student presentations in front of the whole class.

While many publications have documented benefits to students who teach each other (e.g., Reiserer et al., 2002; Oitzinger and Kallgren, 2004; Kågesten and Engelbrecht, 2007), very few have assessed whether or not the experience is beneficial for those listening to the student presenters. Investigators in pharmaceutical education used direct measures (pre- and post-tests) to document student learning as a result of hearing presentations from their peers (Atayee et al., 2012; Malcom and Hibbs, 2012; Thomas and Macias-Moriarty, 2014); other studies are limited to self-reported comments about learning and efficacy of learning from peer presentations (Marvell 2008).

Stevenson and Sander (2002) showed that student presentations was among the least favorite ways for students across multiple disciplines to learn. On the other hand, students may present concepts in a way that is more relatable and more enjoyable for students so that it leads to greater learning gains than if an instructor presented the same concepts (Bohmbach, 2000; Velez et al., 2011). Some students have reported feeling a greater motivation to engage during presentations from their peers because they feel more comfortable (Velez et al., 2011) and because they seek to support each other (Marvell, 2008). Both learning gains and student preferences were included in this study.

METHOD

Participants and Classroom Format

A junior-level Environmental Studies course, “The Environment and Food Systems,” was the focus of this investigation in fall 2015 at a medium-sized university in Wisconsin, USA. The class size was 25 students who ranged from sophomore to senior status and who had a wide variety of academic majors. The group presentation assignment helped meet one of the overall course learning outcomes: “describe key effects of obtaining a variety of foods on wild populations, soils, climate, water quality, water quantity, or social justice.” Each team researched examples of how a type of food affects the environment during the growing, processing, distribution, or consumption steps of the food system. Environmental impacts included changes to wild populations, soils, climate, water quality, or water quantity. The assignment was introduced in the first week of class, and presentations in groups of 3-4 began in the fourth week of class (Table 1).

Table 1: Sequence of assessments with presentation topics

Date	Assessment and Topic	Summary of Formal and Informal Assessments
9/14/2015	Pretest: all topics	Briefly describe environmental effects of producing and obtaining each type of food.
9/14/2015	Topic interest survey: all topics	How often have you thought about this topic? (Likert scale responses)
9/30/2015	Instructor presentation & activity: Vegetables	Discussion questions in groups using a graph and table
9/30/2015	Post-test: Vegetables	Briefly describe environmental effects of producing and obtaining vegetables.
10/12/2015	Student presentation & activity: Fruit	Family Feud-type game
10/12/2015	Instructor presentation & activity: Nuts	Team quiz: do these characteristics of nuts make them beneficial or harmful?
10/12/2015	Post-tests: Fruit and Nuts	Briefly describe environmental effects of producing and obtaining fruits and nuts.
10/14/2015	Student presentation activity: Wild game	Pictures around room of flora and fauna: how would altering populations affect ecosystem?
10/14/2015	Student presentation activity: Fish	Statistics, then questions, then small group discussion, ended with large class discussion
10/14/2015	Post-tests: Wild Game and Fish	Briefly describe environmental effects of producing and obtaining wild game and fish.
10/19/2015	Instructor presentation activity: Shellfish	Role-play demonstration, then use of app for finding sustainable fish to purchase
10/19/2015	Post-test: Shellfish	Briefly describe environmental effects of producing

		and obtaining shellfish.
10/21/2015	Student presentation activity: Soy	Interactive small group quiz listing products that did or did not contain soy
10/21/2015	Student presentation activity: Dairy	Two truths and a lie with environmental impacts of dairy
10/21/2015	Post-test: Dairy	Briefly describe environmental effects of producing and obtaining soy and dairy products.
10/28/2015	Instructor presentation activity: Rice	Bluff quiz game: 2 teams, stand if you know the answer or want to bluff
10/28/2015	Post-test: Rice	Briefly describe environmental effects of producing and obtaining rice.
11/2/2015	Student presentation activity: Palm Oil	Guess which pictures of products do or do not contain palm oil
11/2/2015	Student presentation activity: Beer	Two truths and a lie: 2 teams, with environmental impacts of beer
11/2/2015	Post-tests: Palm Oil and Beer	Briefly describe environmental effects of producing and obtaining palm oil and beer.
12/9/2015	End of semester survey	What change would you suggest for the format of student presentations in order to promote the most <i>learning</i> ?
12/9/2015	Anonymous feedback survey	To what extent did working in groups help or hinder your <i>learning</i> ?

Sequencing the presentations for early in the semester allowed an assessment of learning gains that were based on the presentations rather than on additional course readings and experiences. Presenting discrete topics early in the semester also allowed for more systems thinking synthesis building on those topics later in the semester.

Seven student group presentations were interspersed with four presentations of the same format given by the instructor, for a total of 11 different food topic presentations of the same format. A student employee who was not taking the class observed all presentations and rated all of them, including the instructor's presentations, using the presentation scoring rubric that the instructor also used for student grading. A pre-test was given in the first week of class to assess student knowledge on each of these 121 food topics, and the same question was asked immediately after each presentation for the post-intervention test: "Briefly describe environmental effects of producing and obtaining this type of food." Learning gains for each student were assessed using the same scoring rubric for the pre- and post-tests, without revealing scores after the pre-test (Table 2). A survey of student interest in each food topic was also administered with the pre-test and again at the end of the semester.

Table 2: Pre/post-test scoring rubric

Exemplary (5)	Fine (4)	Mostly Competent (3)	Developing (2)	Insufficient (1)
Details of how this food affects the environment in 3 or more ways that are particularly significant for this food. Correct cause and effects identified for each.	Three correct environmental impacts explained that are somewhat linked to this food type.	Two correct environmental impacts explained that are clearly linked to this food type.	One or two correct environmental impacts listed, but with few correct details, and barely specific to this food type.	One environmental or social impact mentioned but without details specific to this food type. Some blatant inaccuracies.

The scoring rubric for the test was not shown to students, but a sample of an excellent answer for a different food topic was shown prior to the pre-test. Although the pre-test asked students to write 11 short paragraphs on the same day, and the post-test was spread out to include just 2 paragraphs on each day, the same amount of time was allocated for each topic of both the pre- and post-tests.

Addressing Effectiveness of Student Presentations

The presentation assignment was designed to overcome three of the obstacles listed in the Introduction above that could reduce student learning from peer presentations. (1) The concern that students might pay less attention to peers presenting was addressed by having a quiz after both student and instructor lessons. (2) The instructor gave students a set of pre-selected food categories from which students could select preferences for a presentation topic. The instructor chose the set of food categories based on scope of environmental impacts. (3) To address the concern that students might not present information clearly, scaffolding for the assignment included: a detailed scoring rubric along with requirements for an annotated bibliography, presentation outline, draft, instructor meeting, and presentation practice. In addition, instructor presentations of the same format provided examples for the assignment. Three full days of class time were allocated for students to work together.

The instructor referred to this assignment during class as “teaching” rather than “presenting” in order to help students consider a format used by teachers rather than a formal presentation format. Students’ experiences with formal *presentations* in other classes typically do not require interacting with the audience or using a pace focused on learning rather than eloquence. This group teaching assignment also required that student groups plan an activity for class interaction as part of the 25-35 minutes allocated to each group. Examples suggested to students included structured discussion, reflection assignment, game, role-playing scenario, and/or interacting with physical props. Table 1 summarizes the activities chosen for each lesson. They included “interactive,” “constructive,” and “active” modes as described by the Differentiated Overt Learning Activities (DOLA) framework (Meneske et al., 2013). However, sample sizes did not allow a rigorous comparison of these different modes for active learning. Short video clips were noted as acceptable for part of the group presentation time, but not as the activity. Thus the student presenters were asked to follow the same interactive lesson format and technology that the instructor uses to promote learning. Other instructors have also designed student presentation assignments that help promote active teaching rather than simply lecturing by the student groups (e.g., Malcom and Hibbs, 2012; Thomas and Macias-Moriarity, 2014).

After students submitted a list of three preferred topics from the list of options, the instructor assigned them to groups of 3-4 based on these preferences. Students did not have a chance to consult with each other about preferred topics, so the groups were not self-selected. Assigning groups randomly is known to boost both individual and group outcomes (Hinds et al., 2000; McClelland, 2012; Shimazoe and Aldrich, 2010). Individual scores, as well as team-member evaluation via catme.org helped hold individuals accountable for their contributions. Catme is a system of web-based tools that uses best practices in facilitating peer evaluation (MacAlpine, 1999; Ohland et al., 2012). After students completed a calibration exercise for the evaluation tool, they rated five different dimensions of self and peer contributions to the team. Team work skills were a part of the learning outcomes for the group presentation assignment, but they were not assessed as a part of this investigation.

Statistical Analyses

Using the difference between pre- and post-test scores, the change in student understanding was compared between student group-led and instructor-led topics with a paired sample t-test. Each student’s scores were averaged among the 7 student-led topics and among the 4 instructor-led topics, so data were paired by student. The same analysis procedure was used to compare responses for a topic preference survey question asked at both the start and end of the semester. Two students missed either the first or end survey, so those data were excluded. A Kruskal-Wallis rank-sum test was used to compare the change in student understanding on their own presentation topic ($n = 25$) versus the topics presented by other students ($n = 202$). If a student missed either a pre- or post-test, data were excluded for only the topics for which no comparison was possible.

Linear regression analyses were used to test whether any of the following factors at the topic level helped predict student learning gains on the pre- and post-tests: presentation score (based on the rubric scoring by a student employee), length of activity within the presentations, total presentation length, and presentation sequence. Each presentation topic was a separate data point with the difference between pre- and post-tests averaged across all students for each topic ($n = 11$). Data analyses were conducted using R software (R Core Team, 2013) and SPSS, version 25. Significance was assessed for each test at the $\alpha = 0.05$ level.

FINDINGS

Learning Gains

Scores on the question “Briefly describe environmental effects of producing and obtaining this type of food” increased by an average of 2.06 points (out of 5) on the post-instruction quiz for topics presented by the instructor ($SD = 0.86$, $n = 25$) and an average of 1.89 points for topics presented by student groups ($SD = 0.64$, n

= 25). There was no significant difference in mean learning gains for student-led versus instructor-led topics ($t=1.165$, $df=24$, $p=0.255$).

Learning gains using the same paired pre- and post-instruction tests were compared for students on their own topics and on topics taught by other students. Based on a Kruskal-Wallis rank-sum test, there was no significant difference between the learning gains on students' own topics and those presented by others, including the instructor.

Total presentation length, sequence during the semester, and presentation score each did not significantly affect mean learning gains (Table 3). The length of the activity portion of the presentation had a significant negative relationship with mean learning gains ($F(1,9)=9.66$, $p=0.01$; $R^2 = 0.52$; Fig. 1). Presentations with longer activities (or a longer percent of the overall presentation time) consistently resulted in lower learning gains than presentations with more traditional lectures. This relationship was not affected by whether students or the instructor presented the topic ($p>0.05$).

Table 3: Linear regression results for presentation variables that could affect learning gains (n = 11)

	Coefficients	SE	t Stat	P-value
Presentation length	0.003	0.019	0.180	0.861
Sequence	-0.026	0.051	-0.508	0.624
Score	0.041	0.052	0.777	0.457
Activity length	-0.116	0.037	-3.108	0.013

Student Interest

The question asked on surveys before and after each topic presentation was, "How often have you thought about the effects of producing and obtaining this type of food outside of your work for class?" Students answered the question using a Likert scale of 0-4, where 0 was labeled "never," and 4 was labeled "at least once/week." For all topics combined, the average Likert score increased by 0.89 ($SD = 0.79$, $n = 23$). There was no significant difference in responses for student-led versus instructor-led topics (paired $t = -1.10$, $df = 22$, $p = 0.282$).

A separate, anonymous survey at the end of the semester included general questions about preferred learning methods for classes more broadly, in order to compare student presentations with other teaching formats. Results showed that tours/guest lectures were "most preferred" and tied for being the "most effective" format for courses (Table 4). All options from the survey are presented in Table 4, including the category "Other," although few students specified what they meant by "other" where asked.

Table 4: Mean ranks of learning formats with 1 being the best on end-of-semester survey (n = 22)

Learning format	Preferred	Most effective
Tour or lecture by guest	1.9	2.4
Interactive lesson by instructor	2.9	2.4
Watching documentary film	3.0	3.4
Interactive lesson by well-prepared students	4.2	4.7
Discussion	4.4	4.5
Reading	5.1	4.1
"Other"	6.0	6.3

"Interactive lessons by the instructor" was the format that tied for the "most effective" ranking, and it ranked second highest for "most preferred." "Interactive lessons by well-prepared students" ranked 4th for student preference and nearly last for effectiveness.

The survey requested feedback about the group presentation project ("What change would you suggest for the format of student presentations in order to promote the most *learning*?"). On this open-ended question, 8

students (32 %) suggested they wanted more guidance on key information to include in their presentations. Three students suggested spreading the presentations throughout the semester, and 2 students suggested having smaller groups.

Students were also asked to rate on a Likert scale “How much I learned” from other student presentations and from their own presentations. This estimate of perceived learning showed that 57 % of students reported learning “quite a bit” or “a great deal” from other students’ presentations, and 86 % reported learning “quite a bit” or “a great deal” from their own presentation (Fig. 2; n = 21). Due to anonymity of this survey, correlations could not be investigated for student perceptions of learning with measured learning gains.

The end-of-semester survey also included the question, “To what extent did working in groups help or hinder your *learning*? Choose all that apply.” Of the five statements with which students could agree or disagree (Table 5), the most commonly selected ones for agreement were “I practiced skills such as project coordination, task delegation, or overcoming obstacles” (50 %, n = 22) and “My group helped me learn the material in a more memorable or fun way” (45.4 %, n = 22).

Table 5: Percent of students who recorded agreement with each of these statements on the end-of-semester survey (n = 22)

Survey statement	% agreeing
I practiced skills such as project coordination, task delegation, or overcoming obstacles	50
My group helped me learn the material in a more memorable or fun way	45.4
Student presentations were better because of working in groups	36.4
Student presentations were worse because of working in groups	31.8
My group only detracted from my time or caused stress	22.7

DISCUSSION

Students preferred instructor lessons to peer lessons and also reported instructor lessons to be more effective. However, pre- and post-test scores showed equal learning and topic involvement resulting from each of these formats. Students may not be aware of their true feelings or which strategies help them learn more effectively (Anderson and Bourke, 2000 p. 61; Bjork et al., 2013). Metacognition is particularly challenging for some students, who may overestimate learning from easier learning experiences (Kruger and Dunning, 1999; Bjork et al., 2013). In addition, learning gains demonstrated by the pre-and post-instruction tests may not necessarily characterize the long-term learning gains resulting from classroom instruction. Nevertheless, these results suggest that allocating class time to hearing student presentations does not have to mean less productive learning time for the student audience. Given that preparing group presentations can make learning more enjoyable, memorable, and relevant for practicing skills such as teamwork and information literacy than lectures from the instructor, the classroom time for student presentations should not be discredited.

Although students ranked learning from peer lessons as the least effective learning format, the same survey also resulted in 57% of students stating they learned “quite a bit” or “a great deal” from other students’ presentations. The perceived learning from their own presentations was much higher than from others’ presentations, as expected by the generation effect (Foos et al., 1994) and benefits of learning by teaching (Schwartz et al., 2016). Learning gains measured here did not support this difference, though social loafing in group presentations or specializing too much for one aspect of the presentation might help explain this difference from the benefits of solo teaching.

It is not entirely clear which aspect of the peer lessons made that a less desirable format for these students than instructor lessons (Table 4), but a survey of 395 first-year British university students reached a similar conclusion about student presentations as least desirable (Sander et al., 2000). Our survey suggested that less than half of the students found it “memorable or fun” to work in groups, and 7 students found presentations worse because of the groups (Table 5). Five students agreed with the statement that group members detracted from time or caused stress (Table 5). Students may have disliked preparing to do their own graded presentation, listening to peers, and/or simply disliked the frequency of pre- and post-test assessments associated with presentations in this course. As suggested by 3 students on the survey, spreading the presentations throughout the semester would have made the process less repetitive: all 11 presentations with quizzes took place during weeks 4-9. Shorter presentations also may have been preferred for these course topics. A meta-analysis of psychology courses indicated that group work lasting only 1-3 class periods was more effective than group projects lasting more than a half semester (Tomcho and Foels, 2012), but also that learning outcomes were met more effectively when groups did not have a formal presentation.

The absence of a relationship with presentation sequence suggests that testing experience or fatigue did not influence the estimate of learning gains. Learning gains declined as class activity length increased, possibly due to less content coverage and distraction from the main concepts tested. Additional guidance from the instructor could have helped ensure that the activities focused on key concepts appropriate for the post-test essay, or to remind students that many ideas from the activities would be relevant for the essay. This study did not investigate how learning gains would compare if there was zero time allocated to an activity, but the active learning literature suggests that learning would be reduced (Umbach and Wawrzynski, 2005; Michael, 2006; Slavich and Zimbardo, 2012). In addition, the activity formats were highly variable, so activity length may have obscured an unmeasured variable in teaching effectiveness.

CONCLUSIONS

These data suggest that with significant guidance and clear presentation parameters, students can learn as much from peer presenters as from interactive lessons by the instructor. The learning gains and preferences demonstrated in this course would certainly vary with skills and interests of both the students and the instructor. However, strategies such as scaffolding the assignment with intermediate drafts, providing examples, and working in teams can improve the effectiveness of student presentations. Several students in this course noted on the final survey that they wanted more guidance on key information to include in their presentations. Additional guidance from the instructor could reduce the opportunities to practice information literacy skills and to personalize the topic, but it would enhance confidence in the presentations from other students. If students have confidence that their peers are presenting essential and correct information, it enhances learning from and appreciation of other students' presentations.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The Wisconsin Teaching Scholars program through the UW System Office of Professional and Instructional Development (OPID) made this work possible. The authors also thank the UW- La Crosse's Center for Advancing Teaching and Learning, Dr. A. Elfessi of the UWL Statistical Consulting Center, and the students who participated in this course.

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COUNSELLING INTERVENTION ON WOMEN'S REPRODUCTIVE HEALTH OF SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS IN KADUNA STATE , NIGERIA

Francis Monica Garba¹, Priscilla Ladi Venantius², Alaku, Asheotsala³

^{1&2}Kaduna State College Of Education
Gidan Waya

³Federal College Of Education (Technical) Bichi,
Kano, Kano State.Nigeria
rossyashe@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

The study examined counselling intervention on women's health reproductive dysfunction (disease). The purpose was to determine the causes, effect, sign and symptoms, challenges women face, their needs and some of the possible solutions. A sample of 198 female staff of some selected secondary schools of Kaduna state from the three zones of the state were randomly selected as sample. Six questions were raised with their items drawn widely, with one null hypothesis. The result obtained these findings show that toilet infections, under age marriage, multiple sex partners among others are the causes of women's health dysfunction. While some of the signs and symptoms are: virginal discharge, itching among others. The effect discovered were: infertility, death injury high blood pressure, and so on. Female with reproductive diseases face shame, depression, discrimination. Some of the possible solution's discover., were; women with health reproductive diseases need caring, nutritional food, information on sexual reproductive disease, encouragement by counselors to victims, to visit health care centers and so on.

Keywords: counselling, intervention, women's reproductive, dysfunction

INTRODUCTION:

Counselling is a process of helping someone to help himself. This help comes from a trained personnel counselor to a person seeking for help the client. Counselling is also a personal help carried out mainly by means of inter-personal communication whereby the counselor helps the counselee in achieving positive view, good attitudes and behaviour.

Women's' reproductive- health dysfunction is associated with a problem that affects the female reproductive systems that is the ovaries, the uterus, vagina, and Festus. Counselling intervention is the art of providing psychological support appropriate education and coping skills to a person affected by any adverse effect. It complement, supplements the medical and social services provided to alleviate problems of any disease through other professional intervention.

Above all an adage says "prevention is better than cure". In the wise, all preventive measure should be taken to present this ailment e.g. through periodic counselling to women; seminar e.t.c. so that women should live a decent life.

Women Reproductive Health Issues:

The concept of Reproductive Health gained worldwide acceptance in 1994 international conference on population and development held in Cairo, Egypt. The programme of action (POA) was adopted by the 178 countries Nigeria inclusive which has become globally accepted (Ajayi 2004). World Health Organization defines Reproductive health as a state of complete physical mental and social well-being and not just merely the absence of diseases or infirmity in all matters related to women health reproductive system its function and process.

Nies and Mcewen (2007) sees women's health reproductive as those problems that affects the female reproductive system such as ectopic pregnancy, cardiovascular disease, HIV/AIDS, STDs, hypertension, urinary tract infection and dysuria, vulvoviginities, pelvic inflammatory disease, Toxic shock syndrome and chronic illness such as arthritis, arteriosclerotic heart diseases, diabetes, osteoporosis, cancer, ovarian hormonal changes premenstrual depression, unintentional injury or accident, domestic violence, mental disorder.

Lisa (2007) made a research, and statistic shows that cancer claims the lives of 28,000 women annually, while in Nigeria statistics shows that 52% of women have cancer. Adewale (2013) sees Cancer of the breast, lungs, gynecological has existed far back 1950s. Breast cancer has been increasing since 1950s presently 1 of every 7 women will acquire breast cancer in her life, Gynecological cancer, this occur in women's genital track about

20% of women suffer from gynecological cancer. Arthritis: 29.9% of women. Diabetes also effect women's reproductive system. According to American diabetes Association (2002) quoted by Nies and Mcewen (2007) 18.2 million (6.3%) American populations have diabetes, while in Nigeria more than 1.56 million cases in 2015 population of women have diabetes that is 3.6% of women suffer with diabetes in Nigeria (Chukwononso et al 2015). Pelvic inflammation disease: over one million women experience pelvic inflammation disease (PID) (Epperly and Viera 2005) in Nigeria. Toxic shock syndrome is a release of some strains of staphylococcus aureus, these are menstrual cases and it is as a result of tampon use during menses. Arteriosclerotic heart disease cause at the third decades of a woman, black women are more vulnerable to ASAD than white women. Hypertension is blood pressure of 140/90 mm Hg or greater, "prehypertension which refers to systolic pressure of 120 to 139 and/or diastolic pressure of 80 to 89", about 25.0% of women in Nigeria suffer from hypertension (Adeloye 2015). Osteoporosis is a hip fracture 2.0 % of Nigeria women experience hip fracture which is a major disorder affecting women. Its estimated of its occurrence range from 25-50% of post menopausal women (The National Osteoporosis foundation 2005). Also Human Immune deficiency Virus and Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome (HIV/AIDS) is one epidemic that is causing health threat to women especially young women, in 2001 HIV infection was the leading cause of death for Africans - American women age 25 to 34 years and was among the four leading causes of death for Africa. In 1992 women accounted for estimated 14% adults and adolescence living with AIDS by 2003 it increase to 22% diagnose for African women worldwide Aid is a leading cause of dead among women (WHO 2004). Another disease women are suffering from is sexually transmitted diseases (STDs). It is a genital Chlamydia infection disease found among women. A good number of cases of gonorrhoea are reported every year making it the second most commonly reported communicable disease in women (Cates 2004).

Domestic violence: This is the single largest cause of injury to women between 15 years and 44 respectively. Others are car accidents and rapes of women. Statistics show that to 4 million women are battered, 2000 of these women die from their injuries. American college emergency physician, (2003). In Nigeria, approximately 6% of visit made by women to emergency rooms are for injuries that result from physical battering by their husbands, former husbands, boyfriends or lovers. (Warshaw, Ganley and Salber 1995).

Fathalla (1997) in Ajayi (2004), women's reproductive health has to do with women having an elaborate reproductive system that is vulnerable to dysfunction or diseases. Women are subjected to social diseases which impact on physical, mental or social health example includes female genital mutilation. The reproductive system dysfunction and disease plays a central role in women's health. Therefore, the need for effective counselling intervention is necessary and important especially in secondary schools in Kaduna State.

Women's Health Needs

Adesokan (2011) considers the following as health needs of women.

- They need to achieve healthy sexual development
- They need to prevent disease disabilities and preventive death from sexual and reproductive related diseases
- Minimize the impact of a reproductive health related problem quality services and appropriate care as may be necessary
- Ensure freedom from harmful practices
- They need nutrition. That is total life nutrition experience help to reduce disease
- Counseling women to be aware of their value system concerning sexual behaviour
- Women need encouragement to discuss their issues

Challenges of Women's Reproductive Health System Dysfunction:

Women particularly those in secondary school in Kaduna State have health challenges in their reproductive system. According to Urneh (2009), women are facing discrimination and challenges in relation to HIV/AIDS, particularly regarding their sexual and reproductive health care. This includes lack of information regarding HIV pregnancy deficiency with conceptive use, negative attitudes towards child bearing. Also the major burden of the diseases in females is related to their reproductive functions and the way society treats or mistreats them because of what one may call their nature assigned physiological duty for the survival of the species and the tasks related to it.

Counselling Intervention:

For women in secondary school in Kaduna State to overcome these challenged the need counselling intervention. Sambo (2008) opines that the purpose of intervention is to use continuum of psychological helping relationship ranging from guidance training therapy. The three basic intervention purposes are for preventive, developmental and remediation. He is of the view that telephone service can effectively be used to intervene in

many communities, people with HIV/AIDS pandemic. Globally the use of the line information can be used to reach out to those who find it difficult to share their problems with others by obtaining accurate information, he also suggested consultative and training of people where trained counselors devote their time to counselling and training teachers primarily in preventive and developmental work. He suggested the use of the media to intervene that is the use of television and radio.

Ugoma and Obi (2015), also explained that to help women with their reproductive health system, sexuality education with marital guidance is an important part to be considered in the curriculum of Nigerian education. The above author also view implied that counselling intervention need counselors with a mindset of caring and dedicate heart to help women with diverse health problems and suggested how they can overcome their areas of difficulties through counselling.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Women health reproductive is a problem women are faced with. This study is out to establish empirically the counselling intervention and strategies that would be used to reduce women's reproductive health system which will in turn enhance human growth and development of our society or country, having sound and healthy women will ensure a healthy nation.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

- This paper intends to investigate the counselling intervention and strategies to be used in helping women with reproductive health issues.
- The causes of reproductive health system.
- The signs, and symptoms of women's reproductive health system.
- The adverse effect of reproductive health system.
- The challenges women face with their reproductive health system.
- The needs of women in relation to their reproductive health system.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

- What are the counselling intervention and strategies needed to use in reducing women's reproductive health?
- What are the causes of women's reproductive health?
- What are the signs and symptoms of women's reproductive health?
- What are the adverse effects of women's reproductive health?
- What is the challenges women face with the issues of their reproductive health?
- What are the needs of women in relation to their reproductive health?

RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

Based on the above research questions the hypotheses were formulated and tested for this study at 0.5 level of significance

- There is no significant difference between counselling intervention and non-counselling on women reproductive health dysfunction.

METHODOLOGY

The research design adopted for the study was descriptive survey design. The design was used because it would allow researchers to obtain factual information about women's reproductive health which will be fair representation of the perception of women. The instrument used for data collection was structured questionnaires and interview that were developed by the researcher tagged: **Women Reproductive Health Dysfunction Questionnaire**. The questionnaires were developed by the researchers and were validated by experts in the field of research and statistics. The target population for this research was female staff of secondary school Kaduna State of Nigeria with a total population of 1983. The population comprises or Female staff from southern zone 595. Northern zone 416 and central zone 972. 10% of the women population of each zone was used as the sample representatives. The sample was 198. 198 Copies of questionnaires were distributed to the respondent. The questionnaire contain 6 questions with their items drawn wider each for the respondents. The researcher used linkert classification. SA (strongly agree) 4, A (agree) 3, D (disagree) 2, SD (strongly disagree) 1.

A pilot study, was conducted with 30 women in the state using southern zone to enable the researcher discover if there were mistake or need tor improvement to be made. The reliability of the instrument Alpha cronbath index method was used. The consistence and stability of the instrument used was tested using split half method. In the reliability coefficient calculated using the above method was found to be 0.79. This proves that the information

was consistent and stable. The data collected was analyzed using frequency count. Mean \bar{x} was used for the questions at 2.50 as acceptable factor, and χ^2 for the null hypotheses

Research Question One:

What are the causes of women's health dysfunction reproductive system?

Table 1:

S/N	Items	SA	A	D	SD	N	T	X
1.	Lack of proper education on health dysfunction reproductive	496	162	16	4	198	694	3.5
2.	The use of tanpon during menses	280	196	108	8	198	594	3.0
3.	Intake of cigarette, alcohol	320	162	60	34	198	576	2.9
4.	Under age marriage	40	186	40	16	198	642	3.2
5.	Toilet infection	488	192	16	4	198	700	3.5
6.	Menopausal and post menopausal women	312	186	58	29	198	585	3.0
7.	Lack of proper nutritional food	336	180	56	26	198	598	3.0
8.	Level of women activities without rest	320	240	38	19	198	617	3.1
9.	Urine fibroid oleiomyoma as a result of surgery	280	300	28	14	198	622	3.1
10.	Lower income	240	186	120	16	198	562	2.8
11.	Multiple sexual partners	280	192	80	24	198	576	2.9
12.	Contraceptive use	328	180	80	16	198	604	3.1
13.	Environmental hazard	256	246	100	2	198	604	3.1
14.	Lack of health insurance	208	240	92	20	560	560	2.8

Data revealed in question one shows that all the questionnaire items on the causes of women's health dysfunction reproductive system have their means above the mean criterion of 2.5. This implies that questionnaire items such as intake of cigarette, alcohol, lack of proper education on health dysfunction reproductive, toilet infection, under age marriage, multiple sex partners among others are the causes of women's health dysfunction reproductive system.

Research Questions Two:

What are the sign and symptom of women's health dysfunction reproductive system?

Table 2:

S/N	Items	SA	A	D	SD	N	T	X
1.	Mood disturbances	392	180	52	6	198	630	3.2
2.	Feeling of helplessness	296	210	60	14	198	580	3.0
3.	Sleep pattern disturbances	320	240	46	5	198	611	3.1
4.	Lost of appetite	296	210	64	12	198	582	3.0
5.	Complain of headache and back pain	328	192	18	33	198	571	2.9
6.	Difficulty in making decision	280	150	120	8	198	558	2.8
7.	Virginal discharge and itching	320	180	52	22	198	577	2.9

Research question two revealed that mood disturbance, feeling of helplessness virginal discharge and itching among others are the sign and symptom of women's health reproductive dysfunction.

Question Three:

What are the adverse effects of women's health reproductive system dysfunction?

Table 3:

S/N	Items	SA	A	D	SD	N	T	X
1.	It leads to infertility	408	210	16	8	198	642	3.2
2.	It leads to loss and neonatal injury	248	270	32	20	198	570	2.9
3.	It leads to genital cancer	248	234	72	12	198	566	2.9
4.	It causes high blood pressure	272	240	48	6	198	566	2.9
5.	Domestic violence cause injuries	200	208	60	40	198	508	2.6
6.	It leads to death	248	270	40	16	198	574	2.9
7.	It causes shame	232	210	54	33	198	529	2.7
8.	It causes depression	280	240	44	6	198	570	2.9

Research question three shows the data on effect of women's health reproductive dysfunction include infertility among women, it leads to genital *cancer*, high blood pressure, injuries, and it leads to death and so on.

Question Four:

What are the challenges women faced?

Table 4:

S/N	Items	SA	A	D	SD	N	T	X
1.	Shame	320	270	30	13	198	633	3.2
2.	Depression	440	207	12	13	198	672	3.4
3.	Lack of awareness	248	270	32	30	198	580	2.9
4.	Lack OT proper care	360	186	60	16	198	622	3.1
5.	Discrimination	240	270	68	12	198	596	3.0
6.	Lack of expression	272	240	48	26	198	586	3.0

The data in table four revealed that some of the challenges women face with their reproductive health system dysfunction include shame, depression, lack of proper care, discrimination, lack of expression and so on.

Question Five:

What are the needs of women in relation to their dysfunction reproductive system?

Table 5:

S/N	Items	SA	A	D	SD	N	T	X
1.	They need caring	616	102	8	6	198	732	3.7
2.	They need medical attention	608	108	10	5	198	731	3.7
3.	They need nutritional food	600	126	12	0	198	738	3.7
4.	They need proper counselling	576	162	0	0	198	738	3.7
5.	They need financial support	496	186	16	4	198	702	3.5
6.	They need proper education	560	156	8	2	198	726	3.7
7.	They need luxury	200	186	80	46	198	512	2.6

Research question five revealed that women health reproductive dysfunction issues need caring, medical attention, good food, proper counselling, financial support, need good education and so on.

Research Questions Six:

What are the counselling intervention and strategies needed in reducing women's health dysfunction reproductive system?

Table 6:

S/N	Items	SA	A	D	SD	N	T	X
1.	Establishing good rapport	488	189	6	10	198	167	3.5
2.	Giving information in sexual and reproductive health dysfunction	540	177	4	2	198	723	3.7
3.	Ensuring confidentiality	440	177	48	5	198	670	3.4
4.	Encourage discussion of feelings	332	219	60	12	198	623	3.1
5.	Being judgmental	40	90	216	50	198	496	2.0
6.	More demand for reproductive services	320	150	108	14	198	592	3.0
7.	Increase client visit to health facilities	440	210	24	6	198	680	3.4
8.	Passion for work and desire to help people	416	240	18	5	198	679	3.4
9.	Helping client to make their decision	344	300	20	2	198	666	3.4
10.	Encourage client to read books	368	300	6	3	198	677	3.4

The table above revealed that the mean scores of the questionnaire items are above the mean criterion of 2.5. This implies that the respondents agree with the counselling intervention strategies needed to reduce women's reproductive health dysfunction - except the item which says that counselling intervention is judgmental to women's health reproductive system which has a mean score of 2.0.

RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS ONE

Table 7: Data analysis of null hypothesis one.

Source	Respondents	df-	X ² cal	X ² cri	Decision
Q 1	item 1	198			
Q 2	item 2	198			
Q 3	item 3	198			
Q 4	item 4	198			
Q 5	item 5	198			
			37	2.017.2	43.8
					Reject null hypothesis
Q 6	item 6	198			
Q 7	item 7	198			
Q 8	item 8	198			
Q 9	item 9	198			
Q 10	item 10	198			

Level of Significance $\alpha = 0.05$

The data in table seven above revealed that the chi-square calculated is greater than the chi-square critical. This implies that these researchers have no option the null hypothesis and fall back to the alternative hypothesis which says there is a significant impact of counselling intervention on reproductive health system dysfunction.

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

Research question one shows that lack of proper education, toilet infection, under age marriage among others are the causes of women's reproductive health dysfunction. This is in agreement with Fathalla (1997) in Ajayi (2004), who sees women's health reproductive dysfunction as being having an elaborate reproductive that is vulnerable to diseases which affects their physical, mental and social well being.

Research question two revealed that the signs and symptoms of women's health reproductive dysfunction are mood disturbances, feelings of helplessness, sleep pattern disturbances, vaginal discharge among others.

Research question three revealed that all issues the item raised on the effects of women's health reproductive system dysfunction were all above the mean criterion of 2.5. This is in agreement with Nies and McEwen (2007) who see women's health reproductive dysfunction as those problems that affects the female reproductive system such as ectopic pregnancy, cardiovascular disease HIV/AIDS, STD's, hypertension, urinary tract infection and dysuria, vulvovaginitis, pelvic inflammatory disease, arthritis, heart disease, diabetes, cancer among others which leads to infertility, injury cancer, blood pressure, death and so on.

Research question four revealed that the challenges women face with their reproductive dysfunction include shame, lack of proper care, depression, discrimination. This is in agreement with Umeh (2009) who says women are facing discrimination and challenges in relation to HIV/AIDS particularly in regards to their sexual active health care.

Research question five revealed what women need in relation to their reproductive dysfunction among them are: They need caring, medical attention, nutritional food, counselling, financial support. This is in agreement with Adosokan (2011) who consider the following as health needs of women: They need healthy sexual relationship prevention of diseases, they need caring, they need nutrition's food, encouragement and counselling.

Research question six revealed that all the items raised for counselling intervention were factors except item four with 2.0 below the criterion mean of this findings. This is in agreement with Ugoma and Obi (2015) who are of the views that to help women with their health reproductive dysfunction sexuality education with marital guidance is needed to help women with health dysfunction issues.

Research hypothesis one revealed that there is a significant impact of counselling intervention on women's health reproductive dysfunction. This is also in agreement with Sambo (2003) who opines that the purpose of intervention is to establish a relationship of guidance training therapy to help for prevention, development and remediation. He is also of the view to use telephone to help women with HIV/AIDS who may not want to expose themselves, he suggested consultative and training of people, where trainee counselors devote their time to counselling and also the use of media to intervene on women's reproductive health issues

CONCLUSION:

From these findings in this research work it is evident that women with reproductive health dysfunction have been badly affected by different diseases that affective being. For women to cope with this issue helping hands are need to intervene situation and give them hope of overcoming their issue of reproductive dysfunction.

RECOMMENDATIONS:

Based on the findings, the following recommendation are proffered

- Guidance and counselling is needed to help women cope with their health issues.
- Encouraging women to visit the health care centers for medical help and attention
- The use of telephone is needed to help women who are shy to come out publicly with their challenges of reproductive dysfunction such as HIV/AIDS, STD's.
- Women with health productive dysfunction should be supported by government, their husband NGO's and well to do people in the society
- The mass media, radio, television, news papers should be used to enlighten with reproductive dysfunction.
- Women with reproductive health issues should not be looked down upon but rather, encouraged them to become functional mothers in the society.
- Women with health issues should be well catered for by their husbands and relatives.
- Government should involve women in entrepreneurship training and give soft loan to empower them to be able to take care of themselves.

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CREATING COMMUNITIES OF ENGAGEMENT: A PROJECT-BASED LEARNING INITIATIVE THROUGH A PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT SYSTEM

Dr. Angelia Reid-Griffin¹, Dr. William Sterrett², Dr. Amatullah Stanback³
601 S. College Road, UNCW, Wilmington, NC 28403, USA

¹reidgriffina@uncw.edu, ²sterrett@uncw.edu, ³amatullahstanback@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT

In examining the importance of collaboration in a middle school, the authors explored project-based learning (PjBL) in collaborative interdisciplinary team settings. Through the use of surveys of sixth and seventh grade middle school students, teachers, and the school administrator regarding self-efficacy and perceptions, the researchers gained insights regarding perceptions of participants as they worked in communities of engagement. This manuscript focuses on the perceptions of teachers and the principal as well as the pivotal role that the university Professional Development System (PDS) model plays in building and fostering a community of engagement. Findings from surveys and interviews reveal insights regarding the learning environment and collaboration.

Keywords: Project-based learning, professional development system, collaboration

Introduction

Teachers genuinely desire to collaborate and to work together in supportive learning communities, but challenges remain (Metlife, 2010). Challenges such as finding non-instructional time to meet and having work during times outside of duties persistently appear in teacher surveys (North Carolina Teacher Working Conditions, 2016). Having administrative support and shared, consistent time to establish professional learning community (PLC) environments in an interdisciplinary context enables a team to strengthen greater levels of engagement for students and teachers. Teachers benefit from having purposeful time set aside in order to meet to discuss curriculum, learning objectives, teaching strategies, student success, and ways to work together. Each member of the PLC ensures that he or she has an avenue to share insights and input in working together in a project-based learning effort (Authors, 2013a; Authors, 2014b; Authors, 2015c).

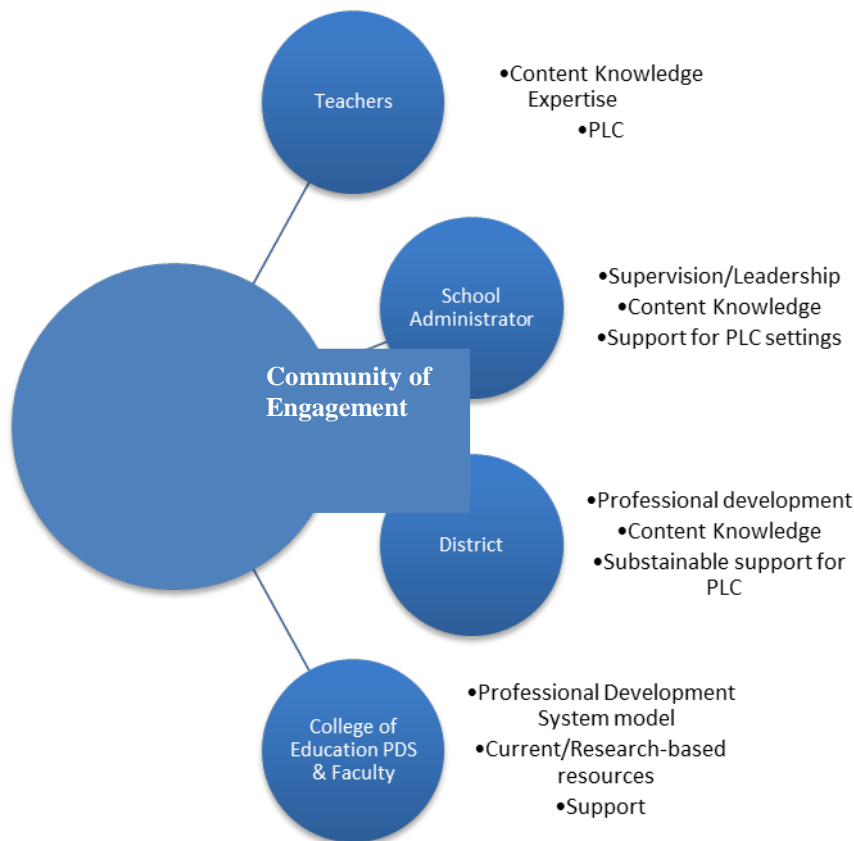
THE STUDY

The researchers began initial work at a local middle school in southeastern North Carolina in the vein of service, and over time, research questions developed for further inquiry. Building on the importance of collaborative voices and shared engagement during the implementation of this instructional approach had been a focus of the work in this middle school (Authors, 2013a). Through this group effort, a connected community was developed, as Wenger's (1998) social theory of learning supports was established that allowed for shared visions and common goals to be exchanged through meaningful discourse. The six goals of the University of North Carolina Watson College of Education Professional Development System model addressed this effort as follows:

1. Improve the lives, learning, and opportunities of all students;
2. Prepare teacher and administrator candidates in a professional, collegial environment;
3. Enhance the curriculum, structures, school culture and community ties for P-12 school and University of North Carolina Wilmington staff and faculty;
4. Provide professional support to beginning and veteran teachers through extended professional development opportunities;
5. Assess and evaluate the work undertaken through this collaboration; and
6. Conduct research to enhance the field of education and disseminate the results of this work (University of North Carolina Professional Development System, n.d.).

The administrator of the school was familiar with the university's Professional Development System (PDS) model, which provided a foundation in establishing this continued research endeavor. The immediate presence of university faculty in the school environment, specifically invited to and present in PLC meetings, provided more conversations with teachers and administrator strengthening the focus of the project-based learning ideas and building on the "four-cylinder collaborative process" (Authors, 2013a, p. 131). Here, school-based supervision was effectively transformed into a collaborative leadership role, as the role of the principal was seen as supportive and involved in the collaborative process. Figure 1 provides a snapshot of the community of engagement model used in this study. This model highlights the process of building relationships among the teachers, administrator, district leaders, and the university roles throughout the study.

Figure 1 The Community of Engagement Process Model.



The key players in this model all contributed their expertise and resources in supporting the effective implementation of this method of instruction. Teachers provided knowledge of the content areas, voices and creative mindsets as they engaged in the PLC. Administrators offered supervision resources and knowledge of content as they support the process and conversations needed for the PLC to be effective. Districts offered resources to support content knowledge and innovations such as professional development. The College of Education and its faculty of researchers contributed professional development as well as academic and research-based resources to support the innovations in teaching the content and fostering the PLC conversations. Each sphere had a big role to help in supporting the implementation of project-based learning instruction and any other instructional approach at the middle school.

METHODS

University researchers utilized a modified survey instrument for both sixth and seventh grade students that consisted of self-efficacy scales (Bandura, 2006). In addition to this instrument, surveys and interviews were administered to the teachers and the school administrator to explore their respective perceptions as they collaborated in this community of engagement (Author, 2016e). As noted by York-Barr and Duke (2004), the school leaders (teachers and principal) contributed a vital role in engaging students and improving the learning environment.

The survey was administered to 195 sixth graders and 177 seventh graders who completed the participant researcher's consent forms (Authors, 2016d, in preparation). An accompanying survey tool and interview protocol designed by the researchers was given to the sixth and seventh grade teachers and principal. Likert-scaled items comprised the initial teacher questions regarding their levels of satisfaction with the subject areas (science, math, language arts, and social studies) and then an open-ended question allowed for further comments. The sixth grade teachers also completed an additional survey designed by researchers to indicate consistency with responses since the team has been participating in this collaborative effort for four years.

Qualitative analysis also included observation notes throughout the planning and presentations along with unstructured questions to obtain the viewpoints of the teachers and principal about the continued use of this

approach to teaching specific concepts and skills in content areas. Interviews were conducted with school administrator, and teachers at the end of the school semester to provide feedback on project-based learning implementations and working in PLCs.

FINDINGS

Teacher leaders play a pivotal role in helping students learn and in enhancing the overall quality of the school (Bond, 2011; York-Barr & Duke, 2004). At the end of the fifth year of this collaborative project based learning (PBL) project, the researchers surveyed students’ perceptions of learning and teacher satisfaction through research instruments and interviews. The sixth grade team of teachers had undergone some personnel changes but the team continued to support the PBL research effort.

The main survey instrument data from the teachers in Grade 6 and Grade 7 and the school administrator indicated the overall satisfaction with the PBL instruction and collaborations. A total of 14 teachers completed the survey including seven sixth grade teachers and seven seventh grade teachers. The open-response data and interview with administrator and teachers indicated there is still a need for “buy in” from the entire team and school environment. They mentioned some challenges that impacted some of their decisions in using project-based learning throughout the year. They included the following: dealing with change (both administrator and teacher), risk (both administrator and teacher), buy in (both administrator and teacher), and trust (administrator). The teachers on the sixth grade team also commented that they were pleased with their progress and noted the students were excited about each of the projects. Comments included, “Our projects flowed nicely this year” and “Teachers worked well together to plan and collaborate on activities.”

Interviews from teachers and administrator indicated their satisfaction with the collaboration and indicated the benefits of collaborating professional learning for the benefit of implementing PBL learning activities was in part due to the PDS model. Some of the comments included:

“... they had collaborative group talk discussions and ideas since then as a result of that I don’t think would have happened had you guys not come in.” “...I am exceptionally grateful and thankful...for the partnership. I genuinely want to know what we could have done to have made the relationship stronger. I want to know what potential we have to grow the relationship moving forward...” (Administrator)

“It’s like that community of practice and community of engagement. All of us are partners in having that discussion and having set up those PLTs, PLCs. It’s great that we felt a part of that whole community. (College Faculty)

Regardless of the changes with school leadership at the school, the presence of transformative administrators throughout the effort strengthened the collaboration and supported the development of teacher leaders. The ability to create a community of engagement that allowed for the sharing of ideas strengthened the collaborative leadership at the school and offered more opportunities for sharing this knowledge with other teachers in the school. The PDS relationship that allowed the university researchers to establish this collaborative effort with the teachers and administrators is vital for enhancing the quality of teaching and leadership by the team. Having this collaborative environment had many benefits for the teachers, principal, partnership and school. The teachers and principal indicated some of the benefits of collaboration were cohesion, being “on the same page”, and the ability to generate ideas as a team.

Table 1: Shared Ownership to Project-Based Learning in Middle School (Teachers/Educators)

Response Percentage (Frequency)	1	2	3	4	5	6
Questions						
Satisfaction with the science activities presented with project based learning activities?	.75 (3)	.50 (2)	0	0	0	0
Satisfaction with the math activities presented with project based learning activities?	.50 (2)	.75 (3)	0	0	0	0
Satisfaction with the language arts activities presented with project based learning activities?	.75 (3)	.50 (2)	0	0	0	0
Satisfaction with the social studies activities presented with project based learning activities?	.50 (2)	.75 (3)	0	0	0	0

Note. Sixth grade teacher responses are presented above (n=5); Survey scale rating were as following: 1=Very Satisfied 2=Satisfied 3=Neutral 4=Dissatisfied 5=Very Dissatisfied 6=Other, please specify

See Appendix for overall analysis of teachers' responses from PBL Teacher Perception Survey. Table 2 indicates years of participating in collaborative professional learning activities for PBL implementation at the school for teachers in Grades 6 and 7. Most sixth grade teachers had 1-4 years participation in professional learning activities and almost half of the teachers had more than five years of participation. Most of the seventh grade teachers had less than one year of experience participating in collaborative professional learning activities for PBL.

Results in the survey indicated how the teachers' responses towards learning the curriculum of other subjects in grade level and learning communities created while working on the collaborative PBL activities. The highest frequency of responses, for the Grade 6th teachers, fell under curriculum support as a positive benefit of collaborative professional learning for implementing PBL activities. Moral support, advice, and reflection of practice had the lowest frequency with four teachers selecting these options as positive benefits of collaboration.

The seventh grade teachers had a range between two and eight for level of collaboration in PBL professional learning activities and level of implementation of PBL practices in the classroom. Most of the 7th grade teachers fell between "not at all" or "moderate" in regards to the extent their participation in the learning community influenced the level of implementation in the classroom. Other responses included student involvement/application of skills. Almost half of the teachers identified curriculum support, advice, and support through challenges as positive benefits from collaborative professional learning for the purpose of implementing PBL activities. Moral support had the lowest frequency of identification for seventh grade teachers. Table 3 and 4 provide survey findings for all teachers.

Working in a diverse school allows for collaboration with teachers, administrators and students to "identify and remove factors that limit student learning and opportunity and instituting practices that enhance them" (Owings & Kaplan, 2012, p. 482). This work related to the UNCW Professional Development System mission of "enhancing the quality of teaching and school leadership to ensure that student work is challenging, engaging, and relevant" (UNCW Professional Development System, n.d., para. 2). Findings from the survey data indicated that both grade level teachers supported the model of this system through this collaborative effort and valued having the support of the college in improving and enhancing their development and implementation of curriculum.

CONCLUSIONS

It is important that we understand the perspectives of teachers and administrators – who are empowered to serve as leaders within a collaborative learning community – in order to continually refine what Dewey (1938) famously called "the *quality* of the experience" (p. 27). Through continuation of this partnership in terms of curriculum and planning (Authors, 2013a; Authors, 2014b) researchers hope to promote and expand shared ownership of all participants involved in this work, in order to better understand the various perspectives present within the learning community. The role of the principal as supervisor is important as the "supervisor should be available to peer teams as a resource person" (Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 2010, p. 297) and be willing to help as needed.

This work seeks to realize the collaborative potential of an ongoing partnership with a middle school and a university to further the efforts of an interdisciplinary team to foster greater student success. Future studies could include additional grade levels and teacher participants and focus on longitudinal perspective as the effort continues in subsequent years. Continuing to seek to better understand the work of a collaborative community that is focused on project-based instruction will be strengthened by recognizing challenges and opportunities experienced by teachers in these important roles.

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Table 2. *Spring 2015 PBL Teacher Experiences: Sixth and Seventh Grade*

Experience	Grade 6 Teachers	Grade 7 Teachers
Less than 1 year	0	4
1 year	1	0
2 years	1	0
3 years	1	1
4 years	1	0
5 years	0	1
More than 5 years	3	1

Note. N = 14 teachers that completed the survey. Results indicate the years of implementation for sixth- and seventh-grade teachers at the school.

Table 3. *Spring 2015- PBL Teacher Perception Survey: Sixth and Seventh Grade*

Questions	n = 14	Response Percentage (Frequency)									
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
2. How would you describe your level of collaboration in PBL professional learning activities?	6 th Grade Teachers	0	0	0	0	.14 (1)	0	0	.71 (5)	0	.14 (1)
(One with no response)	7 th Grade Teachers	0	.14 (1)	0	0	.14 (1)	.14 (1)	.29 (2)	.14 (1)	0	0
3. How would you describe your level of implementation of PBL practices in the classroom?	6 th Grade Teachers	0	0	0	0	0	0	.29 (2)	.29 (2)	.43 (3)	0
	7 th Grade Teachers	0	.14 (1)	.14 (1)	0	.14 (1)	0	.43 (3)	.14 (1)	0	0
5. To what extent has your participation in the learning community influenced your level of implementation of PBL in the classroom?	6 th Grade Teachers	0	0	0	0	0	.29 (2)	.14 (1)	.29 (2)	.14 (1)	.14 (1)
	7 th Grade Teachers	.14 (1)	0	.14 (1)	.29 (2)	0	0	0	.14 (1)	.14 (1)	0

Note: As shown in the table the response percentages for 3 question items and corresponding frequency (in parenthesis), and the item mean and standard deviation (SD). Grade 6th teachers n=7 and Grade 7th teachers n=7. Scale survey was as following: 1=Not at all 2 3 4 5=Moderately 6 7 8 9 10=All the time

Table 4. *Spring 2015- PBL Teacher Perception Survey Continue*

Note: As shown in the table the response percentages for three items and corresponding frequency (in parenthesis). Grade 6 teachers ($n = 7$) and Grade 7 teachers ($n = 7$).

		Response Percentage (Frequency)				
4. What are some positive benefits from collaborative professional learning for the purpose of implementing PBL activities? Circle all that apply.	$n = 14$	Curriculum Support	Moral Support	Advice	Reflection on Practice	Support through Challenges
	6 th Grade Teachers	.86 (6)	.57 (4)	.57 (4)	.57 (4)	.57 (5)
	7 th Grade Teachers	.43 (3)	.14 (1)	.43 (3)	.29 (2)	.43 (3)

FEMINISM IN ALGERIAN EFL CLASSROOM: FEMALE STUDENTS' ENTHUSIASM AND MALE STUDENTS' ANXIETY

Dr. Aissa HANIFI
Chlef University, Algeria
aissahanifi800@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT

The present study explores the attitudes of Algerian students towards feminism in EFL classrooms. The study which involved a group of 25 Master students studying English in Chlef University came as an aftermath of a raising anti-feminism attitude among male students in the Literature class. As a matter of fact, male students do not hesitate to express their disappointment to the importance and omnipresence of feminism across the post graduate syllabus contents. Participants completed a scale of attitudes towards feminism which covers aspects related to the students' religious and cultural learning background. Results revealed that female students have pro-feministic views and expressed their desire to attend Literature class that devotes an important space of talk to feminism issues. Most female students believed that feminism needs to be omnipresent in the course of Literature to correlate with the growing recognition of women's right in current Algeria. On the other perspective, male students who are under the effect of female-dominated classroom whether in number and discussions reacted negatively to the conspicuous share of talk devoted to feminism during the two years of their Master Degree preparation. Male students believed that feminism is a western concept that stepped into the Algerian EFL learning context at a time where the Algerian society witnesses a massive change of gender roles under the effect of globalism. Hence, they had the opinion that women's status in Algeria is much better than ever and it is time to look at the newly introduced 'female' EFL teaching and learning concepts with a watchful eye.

Keywords: feminism, male students, literature, attitudes

Introduction

Feminism as a topic has been lavishly dealt with in the Literature class in the Master level studies in Algerian universities. The new interest toward feminism might be owed to varied reasons. In fact, after the bloody decade (1990-2000), women started to assume new roles in society after years of suppression and rejection. Hence, it was the role of decision makers including university curriculum designers to highlight themes like feminism to encounter issues of gender discrimination and reset equal rights for women. The Algerian students, the boys in particular, were to be reminded to respect women. It is high time to end up with all past wrong practices towards women such as bullying, sexual harassment and assault in school. However, the degree of importance which was given feminism in the curriculum (the allotted time and coefficient) raised a sort of anti-attitude from the part of male students. Male students often showed their disagreement to the fact that more and more importance is given to feminism talk in the Literature course. The present study aims at depicting the students' major attitude to the incorporation of feminism in their two years Master taught syllabus.

The Importance of Teaching Feminism

As a matter of fact, feminism has become a popular topic among our students due to many reasons. Girls and women do not receive equal time and attention in the different school learning stages and are often sexually harassed by boys or men when they are not taught about gender issues or given tools to fight sexism (AAUW, 1992). The aim of new trend of teaching literature is put to encourage secondary school teachers (the future career target aim of the current study population sample) to be agents of social change and foster the learners' understanding and assimilation of social values such as gender structure, gender symbolism, and individual gender in education (Arend, 2007). With regard to the Algerian context, the teaching of feminism came a reaction to years of terror and exclusion that women suffered from during the 'Dark Decade' of terrorism (1990/2000). Eventually, it was a call for men in Algeria to accept gender equity and offer women more chances to be active members in the economical, political and social spheres. However, the rise of feminism as an inspiring trend confronts certain key challenges while stepping in the classroom. The following section will shed light on the main challenges that face the teaching feminism in the Algerian classroom context.

The Challenges of Feminism Teaching

Despite the growing interest to study feminism, teachers of Literature still look for more appropriate methods to teach feminism in a more comfortable classroom situation. One of the challenges is related to the pedagogy employed by teachers while dealing with feminism itself. Indeed, teachers teach feminism as they themselves were taught. It is time for teachers to consider the pedagogies that they need to implement in the Literature dealing with feminism in particular; this may cover aspects such as the changing role of the teacher, the teacher's

authority and the teacher's awareness of the feminism teaching theories. The feminist pedagogy is one concept that needs to be emphasized by the teacher while dealing with feminism in the Literature class. Feminism, like any other form of critical pedagogy, aims at developing the learners' critical thinking and open-mindedness (Hoffman and stake, 1998). However, in a male dominated society, such as the Algerian society, the issue of feminism teaching seems a challenge for the teacher of Literature who needs to cope with the opposing attitudes stemming out from the male students (though a minority sometimes) towards the topic feminism each time raised in the Literature class. Naturally, the feminism education came to sustain and promote equal chance of learning and practices in class, school and beyond (Schoeman, 2015). Yet, the suspicious feeling towards the women newly adopted or granted status in society is enough to cause feeling of threat and fear among male students in class; a fact that makes them often hold anti-feminist attitudes in the Literature class.

The Feminist Pedagogy

Although various definitions were given to feminism (Arnold, 2000; Weiler, 1995), Shrewsbury's (1993, p.8) definition to feminist pedagogy entails genuine criteria for a theory about the teaching and learning process that would help to guide our classroom practices as teachers and learners and evaluate our desired goals and outcomes. The theory has been applied by instructors with different age levels at different learning spheres from elementary school classroom (e.g., Christie, 1997) to high school classroom (e.g., Bradley, 1994), the computer lab (Parry, 1996) and the professional conference (Bell, 1993). As far as the current research is concerned, it looks relevant to review the main principles of the feminist pedagogy. Webb et al. (2002) list six main principles under the feminist pedagogy:

1-Reforming the relationship between the professor and student: Both professor and student are to assume new roles. Although this reformation can be subject to constraints such as attitudes and norms of language, both students and teachers share power opportunities and assume responsibility for teaching and learning respectively. Indeed, the feminist pedagogy aims at increasing the students' interaction in the classroom through dialogue and stimulate their curiosity (Scerif, 1997).

2-Empowerment: Along with the principle of democracy and shared power, the feminist pedagogy encourages learners to develop their critical thinking and deal creatively through the 'practice of freedom' to learn how to participate in transforming their world (Middlecamp & Subramine, 1999). The principle of empowerment is not based on domination but rather on the concept of power and energy as a source of motivation. Hence, the teacher is no longer the unique source of knowledge and the classroom leader, yet he or she assumes the role of 'activation of multiple perspective' (Scerif, 1997, p.66).

3-Building community: building community and cooperation within classroom on one side and with the broader environment on the other side is one concern of feminist pedagogy. In the process of collaborative learning, the learner is expected to construct meaning through relationships and dialogue (Gawelek, Mulqueen, & Tarule, 1994, p.182). Collaboration aims at helping the learner to integrate his or her skills of critical thinking in the feminist classroom and improving his or her ability with others (Shrewsbury, 1993, p.9). Eventually, both female and male learners are brought together in a feminist classroom and act toward a more equitable society (Novek, 1999).

4-Privileging the individual voice as a way of knowing: According to Middlecamp & Subramaniam, (1999, p.521), different voices and dynamics are to emerge under the effect of fostering multiple authorities; when students are actively engaged in a feminist classroom, their feedback is sought and incorporated and, hence, they feel less intimidated and more approachable. Indeed, the student's voice should be highly heard in all academic spheres; in lectures, writing, discussions and in faculty meetings. Indeed, methodology and course content assimilation is fostered as long as the unique voice of each student is not reserved for oral performance courses.

5- Respect for diversity of personal experience: Personal lived experiences act the basis for analysis for feminist theory (Foss & Foss, 1994). Moreover, factors such as gender, race, ethnicity, class and sexual preference shape our social position and, thus, affect our way of understanding in feminist pedagogy (Parry, 1996, p.46). Students are likely to respect each other and their anxiety disappears the time they start sharing their personal experiences. According to Weiler (1988, p.58), lived experience should be the core element of feminist research. Hence, truth which stems out of valued diversity and understanding to that its knowledge is the main concern of feminist theory.

6-The Challenge to Traditional Views: school has a significant role in the construction of values through knowledge and relevant teaching methods. By the implementation of the feminist teaching methods, gender is

reinforced through the dichotomisation of nurturance and autonomy , public and private , and masculine and feminine (Scering , 1997).For feminist teachers, the notion of challenge extends to dare the traditional forms of ideas and their origins and way they are taught in a given class (Wood and Lenze , 1991).Research in the field of feminist theory has envisaged to help students understand themselves as a requirement and raise their awareness to the fact that values are open to inquiry and change.

After Webb et al.(2002) had identified the above six principles of feminist pedagogy , they invited researchers to a more exploration of the feminist pedagogy by participating in the four strategies to allow more widespread adoption of the feminist theory : a) similar essays might be work as a insightful basis for instructors in the field of feminism aiming for more egalitarian classrooms.b) since practice makes perfect ,teachers are asked to do more practice with feminist pedagogy to become more widely accepted.c) feminist pedagogy will continue in its spread as long as it receives the appropriate assessment by supervisors based on the students' evaluation to the instructors' course.d)sharing ideas about feminist pedagogy with colleagues can be also fruitful since both men and women enjoy egalitarianism.

Data Gathering Procedures and Findings

The present study main purpose was to identify the students' attitude to the subject of feminism in the Literature class.The study came as a result of depicted ' complaint' from the part of a given number of male students in particular to the importance given to the teaching of feminism in Master studies .According to these students, feminism as a subject has received excessive talk and , thus, an important amount of time compared to other aspect of Literature.

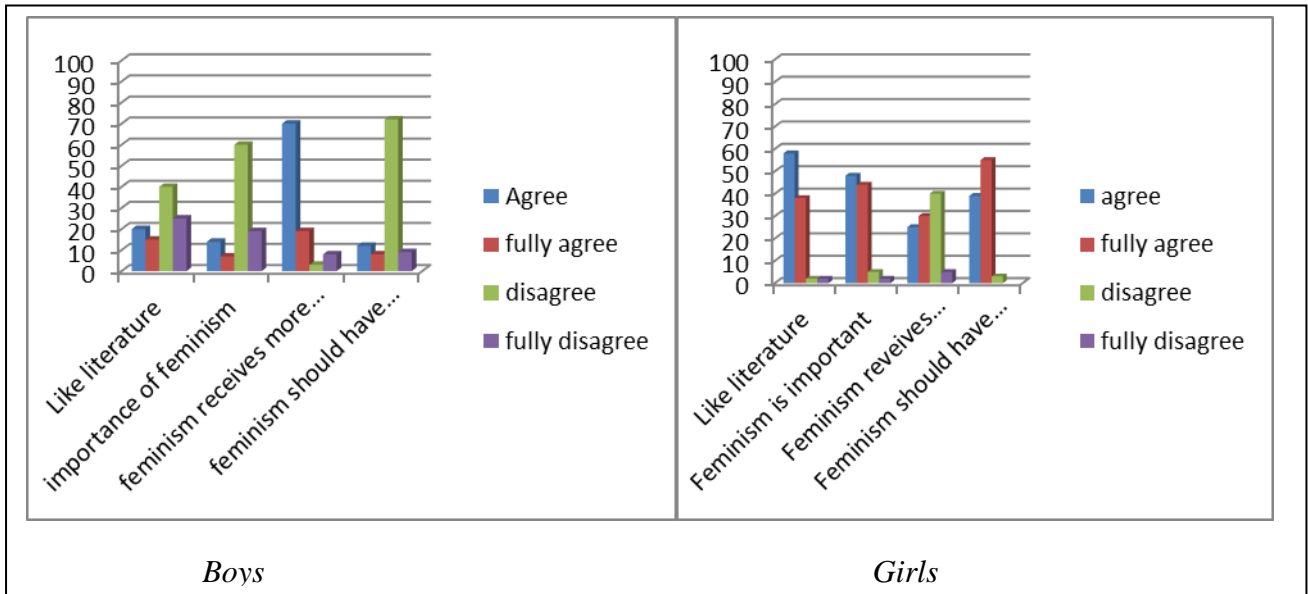
The study relied on a questionnaire of 12 questions classified under three different categories :

Students' general information (age and gender), the students' attitude to the incorporation of feminism in the Literature class(the attitude towards feminism,male , female- dominated or a egalitarian class)and finally a detailed students' cultural and social background information (their social class, religious state , their type of community , their relation with their parents and their parents' level of education).With regard the questions concerning the students' attitude to literature , they were set up in a table of likert scale form of four columns graded from fully agree to fully disagree.Information concerning the students' cultural background were gathered in a table of columns also graded in *Yes* , *No* and *Uncertain* .In both cases , the students were invited to tick the response that best identify their true ttitude to feminism and determines their exact cultural background respectively.

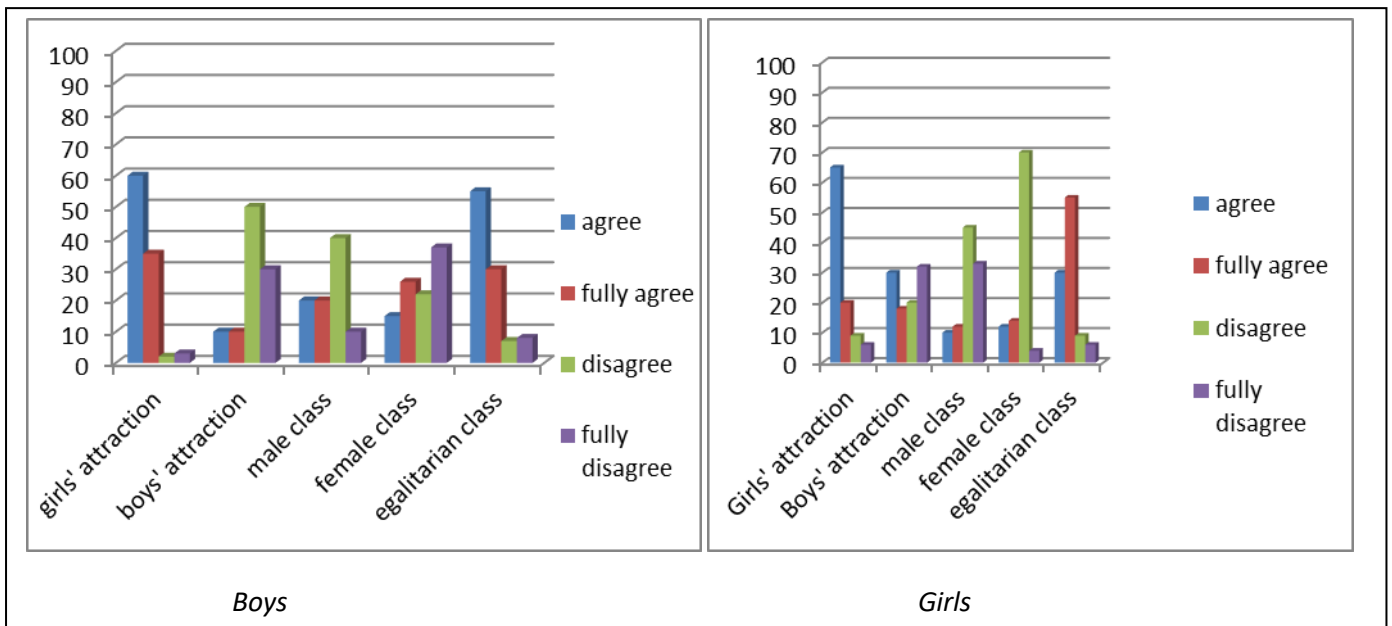
With regard to the population of the study , the data was gathetred from 25 Master students randomly selected who are supposed to be living in chlef city center(a town to the middle west of Algeria) or coming its suburbs , whose age ranges between 22 and 24 years old, and who normally have dealt with feminism as a topic in their two years of the Literature course.

The procedure of analysis simply involves drawing a summary of the findings of the students' responses of the three different questions' categories then matching between them to check and weigh the amount of their correlation .The purpose is to findout to what extent the students' attitude to feminism teaching is affected by their cultural background.

Data analysis :



Literature rather than feminism. The fact that their number is small is another factor that makes male students feel being dominated by the female students and show their negative attitude to feminism each time dealt with in the Literature class.



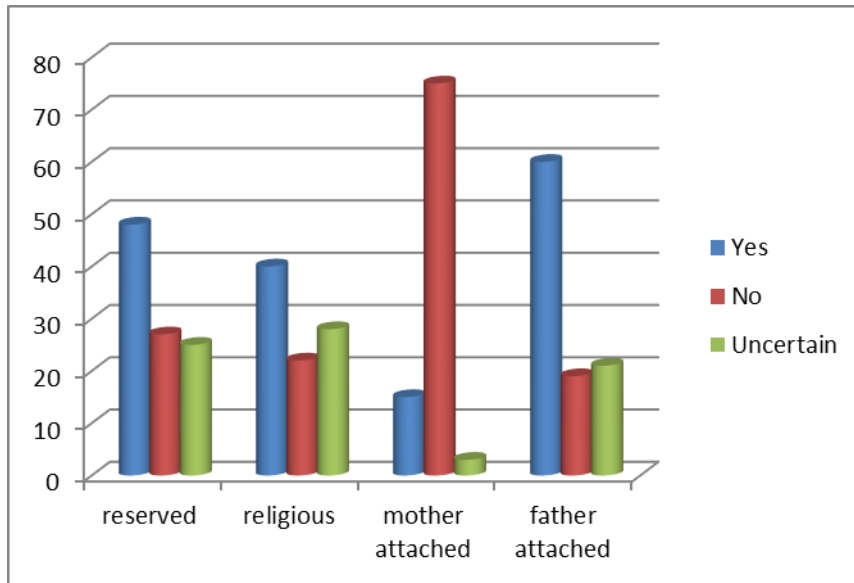


Figure 3: Male students' Social Background

Part of the male students' negative attitude to feminism seems to stem out from their social and cultural background as shown in Figure3. Indeed , an important number of boys admitted their ' reference bag' which introduce them as individuals coming from rather reserved and religious regions in the suburbs of Chlef area.Raising the aspect of religion does not mean necessarily that the Islamic religion has encouraged people in general and those students in particular to hold anti-Feminist views , yet as any divine source of knowledge , it is the people's understanding to it which turns to become attitudes to such a concept of feminism, for instance.Eventually, the attitude of feminism in class is the accumulation of social attitudes which resist change and hold a 'fear' of 'external concept' such as feminism.One other aspect that that seem to play a part in the males' negative attitude to feminism is that male-dominated society where boys are much attached to their fathers and , thus, reflect similar exclusive behaviour to feminine notions in general.

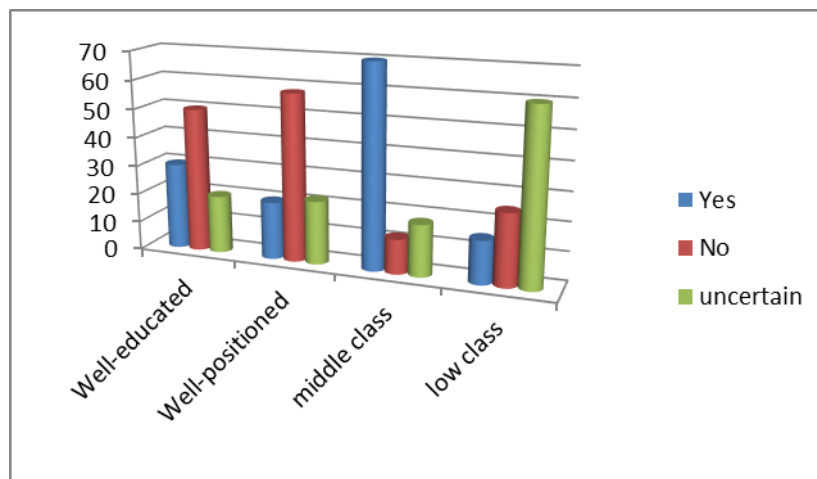


Figure 4: Male students' Social Status and Education

The aim of this part of the questionnaire was to check the relation that might exist between the students' attitude to feminism and their parents' education.The findings revealed that most male student belong to the middle class . The aspects that seem to affect the students' attitude to the study of feminism is the parents' education and their position in society.Educated parents in general have already studied in schools of mixed gender type and , thus , show certain flexibility and understanding to gender issues such as feminism . The same view point for students coming from well-positioned families in society who generally believe that respect to women and valuing their reight as equal individuals to men in society is feature of civilized prestigious life.

Varied factors intervene in shaping the students' attitude to feminism in the Algerian EFL classroom teaching context.These can entail cultural factors related to the students' religious beliefs , the type of community they were born and brought up in and their family status.

Conclusion

The results of the survey revealed the apparent dissatisfaction of the male students to the omnipresent of the feminism in the Literature course along the two years of their Master studies. The students expressed it clearly that although they prefer to study in egalitarian class, they consider the amount of time and talk devoted to in the Literature course as 'unreasonable'. The male students admit that feminism is not just encountered in the Literature course but discussion about feminism can take an important share of the Civilization lecture. The study aimed at depicting the actual reasons that would make the students hold such a negative attitude to study feminism. One of the reasons is related to the students' cultural background and religious traditional belief which expects women to be dependent on men in every life aspect. The fact of being born in a close community is another factor behind the male students' anxiety to the study of feminism. With regard to openness, some male students coming from well-educated families confirm that they consider feminism as any other topic that deserved to be explored more in the Literature class to enrich their knowledge about it.

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INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES IN LANGUAGE LEARNING: SELF-CONFIDENCE AS A QUESTION OF FOCUS

Dr. Zakia DJEBBARI

Senior Lecturer, Tlemcen University–Algeria, Faculty of Letters and Foreign Languages, Department of English
djeb13@yahoo.co.uk

ABSTRACT

When looking at the history of foreign language teaching, one could suppose that teachers have been much concerned with the various ranges of approaches and methods rather than with their content within a context. Recently, factors involving the individuals' self are in vogue in research on applied linguistics and language pedagogy. A number of studies have shown that a possible correlation may result from connecting learners' self with achievements. To put it differently, affective factors may be considered as one of the vital issues which may determine success in academic performance in general, and learning a language in particular. This article will take into consideration individual differences in language learning and its impact on learners' academic achievements.

Keywords: Individual Differences, language learning, achievement, self confidence.

INTRODUCTION

In language learning and teaching, many educational psychologists place a heavy emphasis on some personality traits that may influence learning a foreign language. It is often assumed that learning a foreign language may be a distressing experience for individuals. For instance, Stengal (1939), discussed in Arnold and Brown (1999:21), used the term "language shock" to describe apprehension experienced by individuals learning a foreign language. Attention was then drawn to psychological variables such as anxiety, motivation, apprehension, self-confidence and self-esteem within the classroom setting

As language teachers, sometimes a feeling comes to our minds that our lesson did not really succeed notwithstanding the careful planning, good preparation and knowledge of the subject. Teachers often ask themselves questions like: "where is the problem?" is it related to the teaching performance? Or is it because of the learners' interests and motivation? Or because of other influencing factors? Answers to these questions might be crucial for a better teaching experience. Hence, a great number of studies strive to find out reasons behind learner's failure since learning a foreign language is believed to be a complex process (Young, 1999) influenced by cognitive and affective factors which result in individual differences (Tallon, 2009).

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES IN LANGUAGE ACHIEVEMENTS

Individual learner differences appear to likely affect various aspects of language learning in general, and may help determine what practical activities may be optimal for learners' achievements. Individual differences have been researched extensively; making this arena one of the most systematically studied psychological aspects in language research (Dörnyei 2008). The most important result from these investigations was the conclusion that there exist factors which help learners excel within the learning process through the application of individualised learning techniques. In this line of thought, Segalowitz (1997:85) wonders:

Why do individuals differ so much in second language attainment success? After all, every healthy human being in an intact social environment masters a first language to a degree of fluency that, in other skill domains, would be recognized as elite or near elite levels...

Thus, researchers emphasize individual differences from a person to another, merely to the extent that those individualizing traits display permanence over time (De Raad, 2000). With the shift towards more education-friendly and classroom-based approaches to language study, research has taken a new orientation since the 1990s and turned its attention towards more cognitive theories of learners' self. Therefore, bringing language learner identity and personality research more into the line with the cognitive revolution in the field of psychology has created the philosophy that shapes learners' psychological engagement while learning. These patterns of thinking may encompass for example, self-perceptions, self-efficacy beliefs, self-esteem, self-worth, and self-confidence (Pintrich and Schunk, 2002).

The affective dimension of learning is probably one of the most significant variables which may influence language learning success or failure (Oxford, 1996). Successful language learners often appear to be those who know how to control their emotions and attitudes about learning (Naiman, Frohlich, and Todesco, 1975; Wenden, 1987). Negative feelings can stunt learning process and thus, its progress. Conversely, positive

emotions and attitudes may facilitate language learning and make it more effective and enjoyable.

Another idea revolves around the “vicious circle” of learning problems where self-confidence and anxiety seem to be at the heart of the issue. Cheng et al. (1999:437) for instance, attempt to unveil the different elements of anxiety in speaking and writing. They estimate that learners with low level of self-confidence are likely to feel little assurance about their abilities to learn another language; they concluded the study by stating that in order to enhance learners’ self-confidence, non-threatening and supportive classroom atmosphere is compulsory.

Nonetheless, it is often reported that EFL learners may feel much anxiety and lack self-confidence in the process of language learning. What seems to be noticeable from a number of studies is that speaking and listening seem to be the greatest source of anxiety among students. This point is made particularly strong by Horwitz (1986).

Therefore, quite a number of researchers and language teachers seem to be aware of the urgent need to boost EFL students’ self-confidence, both in terms of their general linguistic abilities and also their oral achievement. It is worth pointing out that self-esteem is one of the primary affective elements (Oxford 1996). It is a self-judgment of worth or value, based on a feeling of efficacy and a sense of interacting effectively with one’s own environment. Learners with high self-esteem maintain positive evaluations of themselves (Tesser & Campbell, 1982). Amber (in Tyacke & Mendelsohn, 1986) found that unsuccessful language learners had lower self-esteem than successful language learners.

Similarly, in the search for psychological variables that might characterize “*good language learners*”, a significant number of researchers in the 1980s and early 1990s focused on one facet of the primary personality trait “*extraversion*” (Beebe, 1983; Ely 1986, 1988) which could be most relevant to foreign language learning, namely risk-taking. The interest in that particular variable at the time was probably not just a coincidence. A few years earlier, Naiman *et al.* (1978) failed to confirm their hypothesis that good language learners (as defined by their test scores) would be more extraverted. This disappointing finding reverberated through the world of applied linguistics (Dewaele and Furnham, 1999) and reduced the initial enthusiasm about the predictive power of this personality dimension on success in foreign language learning (FLL).

From another intricate level, within the hierarchy of personality traits, a further facet which may have an influence on learners’ success in FLL is the degree of risk-taking. There is a *prima facie* evidence that the extraverts are more inclined to take risks in using the FL in class (Ely, 1986: 3). Besides, extraverts tend to be more optimistic and hence more confident in the pay-off of their risk-taking. The conclusion drawn from these studies is that whenever learners are called on to perform a task, a number of psychological manifestations come into view.

SELF-CONFIDENCE and LANGUAGE LEARNING

In language learning and teaching, many educational psychologists place a heavy emphasis on some personality traits that may influence learning a foreign language. From a motivational perspective, the most important factor studied by the Canadian social-psychologists Gardner and Lambert was *self-confidence*, which was introduced by Richard Clément who added this motivational subsystem to Gardner’s motivation model (Clément, 1994; Gardner, 2001; and Dörnyei, 1999). The concept of *linguistic self-confidence*, in general, is a vital variant that promote either failure or success in language learning. It is often argued that language learning entails much more than acquiring a body of knowledge and developing a set of skills, it is fairly crucial to consider the “self” of the learners and thus, their psychological state to overcome their difficulties in language achievements.

Noels (1994), in his part, expands the applicability of the concept of self-confidence by demonstrating that it is also a crucial motivational subsystem in foreign language learning situations where there is little direct contact with the target language members. Thus, EFL teachers need to be aware of their learners’ affective domain when dealing with a task.

Discussing the affective factors unambiguously may help us explain the fact that there is a general consensus among researchers that it represents the emotional side of human behaviour, and it is a vital factor in the learner’s ability to overcome setbacks or mistakes that may take place in the learning process. Affective factors denote a very important impact on students’ outcome. For this reason, it is important to understand students’ feelings and know more about these factors. Many studies were conducted to examine factors that may affect EFL learners’ performance; indeed, there are manifold psychological factors that most pervasively obstruct the learning process.

For instance, Krashen (1981) believes that self-confidence appears to be a central aspect of the ‘*affective filter*’ which is defined as a psychological factor which filtrates the amount of language received by learners’ brain. This filter may enable learners encourage intake, or valuable input. Thus, the affective filter hypothesis represents Krashen’s (ibid) view that a number of ‘affective variables’ play a “*facilitative, but non-causal, role in second language acquisition*”. Krashen (ibid) assumes that well motivated, self-confident and positive learners are more successful language learners. On the other side of the corner, de-motivated, anxious and low self-confident learners can help raising the affective filter and create a ‘*mental block*’ which impedes comprehensible input from taking place.

When affective factors are explicitly discussed, there seems to be a general agreement among psychologists that the notion of self-confidence may be considered as a key-factor in the learners’ ability to overcome their language setbacks; it is normally assumed to have an influence on successful language learning. In this respect, Krashen (1981: 75) claims that: “*Not surprisingly, nearly all the available literature suggests that self-confidence is very much related to second language development..., the self-confident, secure person is a more successful language learner*”.

Nonetheless, one should be aware that the lack of self-confidence may be an inhibiting factor for learners and this idea is shared by Naiman *et.al* (1978) who believe that poor learners, in all probabilities lack self-confidence. Moreover, the higher anxiety learners experience, the lower scores they get, the less confident learners become. On the contrary, the more confident learners feel the higher scores they get. The more confident a learner feels, the less anxiety he experiences in learning as well.

Affective Filters in Language Learning

Krashen’s affective filter, mentioned earlier, consisting of the variables of anxiety, motivation, and self-confidence seems to strongly enhance or inhibit second language acquisition by playing a critical mediating role between the linguistic input available in the educational setting and the students’ ability to learn. He (1981:75) gathers them as following:

Self confident people have the advantage of not fearing rejection as much as those with high anxiety levels and are therefore more likely to put themselves in learning situations and do so repeatedly...[they] are less hampered by the conscious operation of the monitor because they are not so worried about how they appear.

Thus, it appears essential to have a look on anxiety, motivation and self esteem as significant affective filters.

Anxiety

Like any other affective factors, anxiety is not easy to define, it is has been in the limelight of language research for decades. It is associated with “*feelings of uneasiness, frustration, self-doubt, apprehension or worry*” (Scovel, qtd. in Brown, 2000:151). Anxiety seems to be recognised as one of the most highly examined variables in psychological research (Horwitz, 2001: 113).

Psychologists like MacIntyre and Gardner (1991: 87-92) establish three approaches to study anxiety: *trait anxiety*, *state anxiety*, and *situation-specific anxiety*.

- *Trait Anxiety* is rather steady personality quality, it is “*an individual’s likelihood of becoming anxious in any situation*” (Spielberger, 1983, qtd. in MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991: 87).
- *State Anxiety* is a temporary anxiety, a response to a particular anxiety-provoking stimulus such as an important test (Horwitz, 2001: 113).
- *Situation-Specific Anxiety*, refers to the constant and multi-faceted nature of some anxieties (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991a: qtd. in Horwitz, 2001: 113). It is aroused by a specific type of situation or event such as public speaking, examinations, or class participation (Ellis, 1994: 480).

In this context, Gardner and MacIntyre (1999: 3) concluded: “*The results of these studies of language anxiety suggest that anxious students will have lower levels of verbal production ... and will be reluctant to express personally relevant information in a second-language conversation*”.

Motivation

There seems to be a considerable amount of research on motivation within the learning process. It is one of the variables which have a strong impact on student's success or failure. The theory of the Canadian psychologists Gardner and Lambert (1972) was one of the most dominant motivation theories of the L2 field for more than three decades. Certainly, the role of others in developing motivation is central to teaching and education, in this fashion, Scheidecker and Freeman (1999:116) believe that "*Motivation is, without question, the most complex and challenging issue facing teachers today*". Motivation is an inner drive or emotions that move people to particular actions (Brown, 2000). Without ample opportunities for motivation, even individuals with outstanding abilities cannot accomplish long-term goals, this is what Dörnyei (2008:65) deduces about motivation:

It provides the primary impetus to initiate L2 learning and later the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process; indeed, all the other factors involved in SLA presuppose motivation to some extent.

From another layer of analysis, motivation is affected by many factors as mentioned by Danis (1993:3) "...*interest in the subject matter, perception of its usefulness, general desire to achieve, self-confidence, self-esteem as well as patience and persistence*". As a result, teachers need to be aware of their own possible prejudices with regard to individual differences and psychological variables to help their learners develop the feelings about themselves and be more positive.

- **Self-esteem**

Self-esteem is an umbrella term which covers other basic characteristics and traits. Branden (2001:252) defines it as "*the experience of being competent to cope with the basic challenges of life and being worthy of happiness. It consists of self-efficacy...and self-respect*". As any psychological facet, self-esteem has multi-dimensions which are according to Brown (2000: 145): *global, situational and task self-esteem*.

- *Global Self-esteem*: represents general assessment a person makes about himself,
- *Situational Self-esteem*, on the other hand, refers to abilities in specific situation such as foreign language context.
- *Task Self-esteem*: relates to particular tasks within situations, for instance, within the educational domain, task self-esteem might refer to one subject matter.

In a more comprehensive fashion, Lawrence (2006:6) puts them as follows: "*global self-esteem refers to an all-round feeling of self-worth and confidence. Specific self-esteem refers to a feeling of self-worth and confidence with regard to a specific activity or behavior*". What is more, self-esteem contributes to learners' failure or success, as put by Brown (1977: 352): "*A person with high self-esteem is able to reach out beyond himself more freely, to be less inhibited, and because of his ego strength, to make the necessary mistakes involved in language learning with less threat to his ego*".

In language learning, teachers may duplicate this division on self-confidence to help learners raise their degree of confidence regarding speaking skills. Therefore, self-confidence displays also a multidimensional facet assembling global, situational and task self-confidence.

Accordingly, global self-confidence might be put as test global self-esteem, i.e., general feelings about oneself, situational self-confidence might be specific feelings at specific situations (learning English for instance), and task self-confidence might be one's skills and competence when doing tasks (confidence in speaking).

CONCLUSION

Self-confidence, self-esteem, self-concept, self-image, anxiety, motivation, language learning achievement, and other concepts are all key-concepts that should be coupled within the classroom setting to frame the relationship between learners' psychological health and some aspects of EFL language processing.

This paper depicts scenery of a theoretical framework to hopefully understand the place of individual differences in language learning; its abundance of truly creative and humanistic goals supporting and encouraging positive self-confidence in EFL language classrooms as well. A great number of researchers believe that many teachers intuitively understand the importance of maintaining their students' psychological health. However, without offering a specific guidance, teachers may be at a loss as to how to provide this support while at the same time accomplishing more conventional language teaching goals.

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INVESTIGATION OF THE JOB SATISFACTION AND THE SELF-PERCEPTION IN THE PRIVATE AND GOVERNMENTAL INSTITUTIONS

Bedriye ALICI

Phd Candidate, Cyprus International University, Department of Guidance and Psychological Counselling
bedriyealici3@gmail.com

Ece Emre MÜEZZİN

Assist. Prof. Dr., Cyprus Social Sciences University, Department of Guidance and Psychological Counselling
ece.muezzin@kisbu.edu.tr

ABSTRACT

This study aims to research the difference between the job satisfaction and the self-perception of the private and governmental institution employees working in the Nicosia district in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus. Participants were given Job Satisfaction Scale, Social Comparison Scale and personal information form. Frequency distribution, t-test, Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient, one-way analysis of variance ANOVA and Kruskal-Wallis (H) test calculation methods were used for the data analysis. The mean age of the participants was 37 and a total of n=229 (101 were private sector and 128 were government) employees participated in the study. The results demonstrated that the job satisfactions of the governmental institution employees were higher compared to the private institution employees. There was no statistically difference by self-perception among employees.

Keywords: Employee, job satisfaction, self-perception

INTRODUCTION

The developing technology and work life are the topics which have a continuously increasing important place nowadays in improving the performance of the employees at the workplace. Gradually increasing population, developing technology and work life and competition conditions in the globalizing world have a significant place for the job satisfaction in terms of improving the efficiency in the workplace, the happiness of employees, the success of institutions and the national economy.

According to Kuzgun, Sevim and Hamamcı (1999) job is defined as the whole of the activities obtained by a certain education carried out in order to earn money. Job satisfaction is known as the work satisfaction affecting the whole life of the person starting with the career choice and it is defined as the pleasure obtained from working in addition to the material benefits from work which allows people to be successful, happy and productive, the happiness of working, the emotional reaction to work or the sign of the general behaviors about the job and an internal condition related to being or not being satisfied with the job (Kadioğlu, 2014). There is a link between employee satisfaction and employee engagement. Employee satisfaction increases their productivity. To understand what motivates employees and what they need are important for managements (Shmailan, 2016).

Various factors are available which affect the job satisfaction of employees. This study has been started with the idea that self-perception of the employees may be one of the factors affection the job satisfaction. Various views and definitions regarding the self-concept are available. Having a look at the definition of self-perception by Rogers (1951), the idea defining "I" is a structure formed of perception and values which is expected to be consistent with the personal emotions and experiences, which can change with new experiences and which may not always reflect the reality. It has been sustained that people can be more satisfied and happier as the ideal self-approaches towards the real self (as cited in Atkinson, Atkinson, Smith, Bem, Nolen-Hoeksema, 2002).

According to Rogers (1961, 1977), everyone is in the intention of developing a more positive and more developed self and people who grow up within an unconditional love have strong ad positive sense of self (as cited in Cüceloğlu, 2003). Self is the perspective of oneself towards him/herself shaped by the feedback and references from others as well as the experiences and interpreting the environment and it contains the self-esteem, it can also be considered as a way of arranged and learnt reaction obtained and continued by the learnt and reactions of oneself against the effects in various environmental contexts (as cited in Şahin, Basım, Çetin, 2009).

According to Franzoi, self has been defined as a social creature obtained by socializing and maturing which has qualities such as establishing symbolic communication and possessing self-awareness. The concept of self is evaluated as a wide and systematic structure frames by the perception and organization of the life experiences

and used in understanding the emotions, thoughts and behaviors of others. It is suggested that the childhood life has an important place for the development of self-perception and the parental attitude, harmony between spouses, positive parent-child interaction and attachment styles (secure, insecure) affect the self-perception (as cited in Özen, 2014).

In a study conducted by Şahin, Batıgün and Koç in 2011, it has been proposed that the individuals who had a positive self-perception could cope with the encountered conditions sanely and the lifelong developed and constantly evolving self-perception and the interpersonal style gained in this process had an important effect on the depression experiences. Low self-esteem has been related with depression and high self-esteem has been related with good feelings and happiness. Individuals with a positive self-perception and a focused internal control were observed to adopt more effective approaches in reaching positive and constructive solutions during conflict-solving process. In the study conducted by Şahin, Basım and Çetin (2009), it has been put forward that the self-perception of individuals may be in interaction with the interpersonal communication style and the experience anger, may determine the individual's life satisfaction received from interpersonal relationships and this satisfaction may determine the concerns to be experiences by interfering with the self-perception. Individuals with positive self-perception were seen to be more popular, more cooperative, persisting, talkative and dominant while individuals with negative self-perception were observed to be more quiet and introvert.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study is to investigate whether the perception of the employees working at private and governmental institutions in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC) regarding various dimensions differ when compared to the others according to their job satisfaction.

Problem of the Research

Is there a difference between the job satisfaction and the self-perception of the private and governmental institution employees in the TRNC according to the socio-demographic variables? The following questions are intended to be answered to solve the problematic condition generally framed by the problematic sentence of the research: Is there a statistically significant difference between the job satisfaction of the private and governmental institution employees according to the socio-demographic variables? Is there a statistically significant difference between the self-perception of the private and governmental institution employees according to the socio-demographic variables? Is there a statistically significant difference between the self-perception and the job satisfaction of the private and governmental institution employees?

THE STUDY

Research model is based on descriptive survey model. The purpose of the survey models is to describe the characteristics of large communities. Data can be collected regarding the way of distribution of the characteristics of the participants and the relationship between the variables can be investigated. Descriptive research is a model that consists of the definitions of the researched phenomena (Büyükoztürk, Çakmak, Akgün, Karadeniz and Demirel, 2016). The phenomena are investigated by descriptive study as one of the mostly used scientific research methods by social sciences but no intervention is implemented (Sönmez and Alacapınar, 2011).

Universe and Sample

The universe of the research consists of the employees working in the private and governmental institutions in the TRNC. The study sample was determined by appropriate sampling as one of the non-random sampling methods. Appropriate sampling is the process of collecting data starting from the most accessible participants until the sample at a needed size is accessed (Büyükoztürk *et al.*, 2016). The employees were chosen in the various private and governmental institutions in the Nicosia district in the TRNC and consent was obtained from all institutions and employees to answer questions. Employees who were volunteer to answer questions participated to this study. Gender, marital status and educational background as the socio-demographic characteristic distributions, job and institution type distributions of the research participants were given in below.

A total of n=229 people (n=132 (57.6%) females and n=97 (42.4%) males) participated in the study. 71.2% (n=163) of the participants were married, 17% (n=39) were single, 5.7% (n=13) were engaged, 3.5% (n=8) were divorced and 2.6% (n=6) were widowed. 3.1% (n=7) of the participants were primary education graduates, 3.5% (n=8) were secondary education graduates, 26.6% (n=61) were high school graduates, 52.8% (n=121) were university graduates and 14% (n=32) were postgraduates. 64.6% (n=148) of the participants stated that they worked in their field of expertise and 35.4% (n=81) stated that they did not work in their field of expertise. 44.1% (n=101) of the participants were private sector employees and 55.9% (n=128) were government employees.

Instruments

"Job Satisfaction Scale (JSS)" was used in the research in order to identify the job satisfaction of the staff working in the private and governmental institutions in the TRNC. "Personal Information Form (PIF)" was utilized in order to obtain socio-demographic data regarding the sample group in compliance with the purpose of the research. Job Satisfaction Scale (JSS) was developed as a 20-item form by Kuzgun, Sevim and Harmancı (1998) in order to identify the level of happiness of the individuals by working for that profession. The items in the scale were stated by using a 5 Likert Type scale. The obtained high scores were accepted as high job satisfaction of the individual. Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficient has been found as 90. A factor analysis was conducted for the structural validity of the JSS and it has been concluded that the items were divided into two factors but the scale could be used as a unidimensional tool (Kuzgun and Bacanlı, 2011). A Turkish adapted 18-item form was prepared by Şahin, Durak and Şahin (1993) as "Social Comparison Scale" by taking the 5-item form developed by Gilbert, Allan and Trent (1991) with the addition of a 6th item by Şahin and Şahin (1992) in order to assess the perception of individuals regarding the way how they saw themselves at various dimensions when compared with others. It is a bipolar scale consisting of 18 characteristics. High scores obtained in the scale refers to a positive self-scheme and low scores obtained in the scale refers to a negative self-scheme. Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficient is 79. SCS and the correlations of two different scales were analyzed for validity studies. When the correlation between the SCS and the Beck Depression Inventory was analyzed, a negative and low significant relationship ($-.19, p < .000$) was found and values between $-.34$ and $.14$ was found when the correlation between the sub-dimensions of the SCS and the Short Symptom Inventory was analyzed (Savaşır and Şahin, 1997). In line with the aim of the research, a form consisting of 21 questions prepared by the researcher was implemented in order to obtain socio-demographic data about the sample group in accordance with the aim of the research.

Data Analysis

Data was collected with the descriptive survey model from the non-random sampling. All of the data were analyzed by means of statistical methods. Frequency distribution, percentage breakdowns, arithmetic mean, t-test, Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient calculation methods were used in the analysis of the data. After the data analysis results were interpreted and discussed.

FINDINGS

The difference between the job satisfaction and the self-perception of the employees working at private and governmental institutions was analyzed in the conducted study. The average age was 37 ± 9.6 years (range, 19 to 65 years) and a total of $n=229$ people participated in the study. The data regarding the difference between the job satisfaction and self-perception of the employees according to the institution type has been presented in Table 1.

Table 1: *The Difference Between the Job Satisfaction and Self-Perception According to The Institution Type*

	Institution type	n	\bar{X}	sd	df	t	p
Self-Perception	Private	101	4.92	.72	227	-.745	.457
	Government	128	5	.89			
Job satisfaction	Private	101	3.45	.77	227	-2.234	.026*
	Government	128	3.6	.74			

* $p < .05$

The difference between the job satisfaction and self-perception of the employees according to the institution type has been analyzed by t-test. A statistically significant difference was found between the institution type and job satisfaction of the employees ($p=.026$). It has been observed that the job satisfaction mean scores of the governmental institution employees ($\bar{X}=3.67 \pm .74$) were higher compared to the job satisfaction mean scores of the private institution employees ($\bar{X}=3.45 \pm .77$). No statistically significant difference was found between the institution type and self-perception of the employees ($p=.457$).

The difference between the job satisfaction and self-perception of the employees according to their nationality has been analyzed by t-test. As seen in Table 2, there is a statistically significant difference between the nationality and the job satisfaction of the employees ($p=.010$). It has been observed that the job satisfaction mean scores of the employees who were citizens of the Turkish Republic of North Cyprus (TRNC, $\bar{X}=3.63 \pm .75$) were higher compared to the job satisfaction mean scores of the employees who were citizens of the Turkey (TR, $\bar{X}=3.28 \pm .76$). No statistically significant difference was found between the nationality and self-perception of the employees ($p=.969$).

Table 2: *The Difference Between the Job Satisfaction and Self-Perception According to Nationality*

	Nationality	n	\bar{X}	Sd	df	t	p
Self-perception	TRNC	193	4.97	.83	227	.39	.969
	TR	36	4.96	.74			
Job satisfaction	TRNC	193	3.63	.75	227	2.589	.010*
	TR	36	3.28	.76			

*p<.05

One-way analysis of variance ANOVA was used to test whether there was a statistically significant difference between the job satisfaction and the self-perception of the employees in terms of the educational background and it has been presented in Table 3. The homogeneity of the variances was tested by Levene's test before the analysis and it has been understood that the job satisfaction ($F=,405$; $p>.05$) and the social comparison variances ($F=1,151$; $p>.05$) were equal. A statistically significant difference was observed between the job satisfaction and the level of education ($F=2.938$, $p=.021$). Tukey test was conducted in order to determine the groups that were affected by this difference. As a result of the conducted analyses, a statistically significant difference ($p=.034$) was found between the job satisfaction mean scores of the primary education graduate employees ($\bar{X}=2.94\pm.93$) and the job satisfaction mean scores of the postgraduate education graduate employees ($\bar{X}=3.84\pm.71$). No significant difference has been found among other groups. It has been detected that the education levels of the employees did not lead to any statistically significant difference for the job satisfaction scores ($p=.087$).

Table 3: *The Difference Between the Job Satisfaction and Self-Perception According to Education*

	Education	n	\bar{X}	sd	df	F	p
Self-perception	Primary E.	7	4.84	.66	4	2.063	.087
	Secondary E.	8	5.29	.52	224		
	High School	61	5.14	.76			
	University	121	4.83	.89			
	Postgratates	32	5.08	.61			
	Total	229	4.97	.82			
Job satisfaction	Primary E.	7	2.94	.93	4	2.938	.021*
	Secondary E.	8	3.66	.61	224		
	High school	61	3.43	.76			
	University	121	3.61	.75			
	Postgraduates	32	3.84	.71			
	Total	229	3.57	.76			

*p<.05

The difference between the job satisfaction and the self-perception of the employees according to working in their field of expertise has been analyzed by t-test (Table 4). A significant difference was found between working in the field of expertise and the job satisfaction of the employees ($p=.000$). It has been found out that the job satisfaction mean scores of the employees working in their field of expertise ($\bar{X}=3,79\pm.63$) were higher compared to those of the employees who were not working in their field of expertise ($\bar{X}=3,17\pm.81$). No statistically significant difference was found between the own occupations and self-perception of the employees ($p=.858$).

Table 4: *The Difference Between the Job Satisfaction and Self-Perception According to Working Field of Expertise*

	Work	n	\bar{X}	sd	df	t	p
Self-Perception	Yes	148	4.97	.82	227	.179	.858
	No	81	4.95	.82			
Job satisfaction	Yes	148	3.79	.63	227	6.467	.000**
	No	81	3.17	.81			

**p<.01

The difference between the job satisfaction and self-perception of the employees according to the problems they experienced in taking time off work has been analyzed by t-test (Table 5). A significant difference was found between the problems experienced in taking time off work and the job satisfaction of the employees ($p=.000$). It has been found out that the job satisfaction mean scores of the employees who did not have problems in taking time off work ($\bar{X}=3,66\pm.71$) were higher compared to those of the employees who had problems in taking time

off work ($\bar{x}=3,16\pm.84$). No statistically significant difference was found between the problems experienced in taking time off work and self-perception of the employees ($p=.188$).

Table 5: *The Difference Between the Job Satisfaction and Self-Perception According to Experience in Taking Time Off Work*

	Taking off Work	n	\bar{X}	sd	df	t	p
Self-Perception	Yes	41	4.81	.81	227	-1.321	.188
	No	188	4.99	.82			
Job satisfaction	Yes	41	3.16	.84	227	-3.948	.000**
	No	188	3.66	.71			

**p<.01

The difference between the job satisfaction and self-perception of the employees according to the clear and exact definition of roles has been analyzed by t-test (Table 6). There is a statistically significant difference between the clear and exact definition of roles and the job satisfaction of the employees ($p=.000$). It can be said that the job satisfaction scores of the employees whose job roles have been clearly defined ($\bar{x}=3,72\pm.69$) were significantly higher compared to the employees whose job roles have not been clearly defined ($\bar{x}=2,97\pm.76$). No statistically significant difference between the clear and exact definition of roles and the self-perception of the employees ($p=.201$).

Table 6: *The Difference Between the Job Satisfaction and Self-Perception According to Clear and Exact Definition of Roles*

	Definition of Roles	n	\bar{X}	sd	df	t	p
Self-Perception	Yes	185	4.99	.82	227	1.283	.201
	No	44	4.82	.82			
Job satisfaction	Yes	185	3.72	.69	227	6.300	.000**
	No	44	2.97	.76			

**p<.01

One-way analysis of variance ANOVA was used to test whether there is a significant difference between the job satisfaction and the self-perception of the employees in terms of the perceived socio-economic levels (Table 7). The homogeneity of the variances was tested by Levene's test before the analysis and it has been understood that the job satisfaction ($F=2,840$; $p>.05$) and the social comparison variances ($F=1,771$; $p>.05$) were equal. There is a statistically significant difference between the job satisfaction of the groups and the perceived socio-economic situations ($p=.002$). It has been identified that the socio-economic levels perceived by the employees highly affect the job satisfaction. Tukey test was conducted in order to determine the groups that were affected by this difference. As a result of the conducted analyses, it has been found out that there is a statistically significant difference ($p=.001$) between the employees with low socio-economic levels ($\bar{x}=3.09\pm.090$) and average socio-economic levels ($\bar{x}=3.64\pm.71$) and a statistically significant difference ($p=.047$) was also observed between the employees with low socio-economic levels ($p=3.09$) and high socio-economic levels ($\bar{x}=3.62\pm.77$). No significant difference was observed among the self-perception of the groups ($p=.959$).

Table 7: *The Difference Between the Job Satisfaction and Self-Perception According to Socio-Economic Levels*

	Socio-Economic Levels	n	\bar{X}	sd	df	F	P
Self-Perception	Low	27	4.98	.59	4	6.666	.002**
	Average	184	4.97	.84			
	High	18	4.91	.92			
	Total	229	4.96	.82			
Job satisfaction	Low	27	3.09	.09	4	.042	.959
	Average	184	3.64	.71			
	High	18	3.62	.77			
	Total	229	3.57	.75			

**p<.01

One-way analysis of variance ANOVA was used to test whether there is a significant relationship between the marital status and the self-perception of the employees (Table 8). The homogeneity of the variances was tested by Levene's test before the analysis and it has been understood that the social comparison variances ($F=019$;

$p > .05$) were equal. A statistically significant difference was found between the self-perception and the marital status of the employees ($p = .006$). It has been identified that the marital status of the employees significantly affects their self-perception. Tukey test was conducted in order to determine the groups that were affected by this difference. As a result of the conducted analyses, a statistically significant difference ($p = .004$) was found out between the married employees ($\bar{x} = 5.04 \pm .79$) and single employees ($\bar{x} = 4.54 \pm .81$).

Table 8: *The Relationship Between the Marital Status and Self-Perception*

	Marital status	<i>n</i>	\bar{X}	<i>sd</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>
Self-perception	Married	163	5.04	.79	4	3.728	.006**
	Single	39	4.54	.81	224		
	Engaged	13	5.17	.89			
	Divorced	8	5.25	.70			
	Widowed	6	4.81	.80			
	Total	229	4.97	.82	228		

** $p < .01$

Kruskal-Wallis Variance analysis (H) was used to test whether there is a significant relationship between the education and the job satisfaction of the employees (Table 9). No statistically significant difference was found between the marital status and the job satisfaction of the employees ($p = .389$).

Table 9: *The Relationship Between the Education and Job Satisfaction*

	Education	<i>n</i>	\bar{X}	<i>Sd</i>	Mean Rank	X^2	<i>P</i>
Job Satisfaction	Primary E.	7	2.94	.93	4	2.938	.389
	Secondary E.	8	3.66	.61	224		
	High school	61	3.43	.76			
	University	121	3.61	.75			
	Postgraduates	32	3.84	.71			
	Total	229	3.57	.76	228		

The data regarding the relationship between the job satisfaction and the age of the employees has been presented in the table below (Table 10). Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient (r) was used to calculate the relationship between the job satisfaction, age and working hours of the employees. A positive and low significant relationship ($r = -.221$, $p = .001$) was found between the job satisfaction and the age of the employees. It has been identified that the job satisfaction increases as the age increases. A negative averagely significant relationship ($r = -.301$, $p = .000$) was found between the job satisfaction mean scores and the working hours of the employees. It has been detected that the working hours decrease as the job satisfaction mean scores increase.

Table 10: *The Relationship Between Job Satisfaction, Age and Working Hours*

		Age	Working hours
Job satisfaction	r	.221**	-.301**
	n	.001	.000
	p	229	229

** $p < .01$

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

44.1% (n=101) private sector employees and 55.9% (n=128) governmental sector employees participated in this study in which the difference between the job satisfaction and the self-perception of the employees working at private and governmental institutions was analyzed. Better working conditions at governmental institutions compared to the private sector are factors that improve the level of job satisfaction of the employees working at governmental institutions. The results of this study have also demonstrated that there is a significant relationship between the institution type and the job satisfaction of the employees. It has been revealed that the job satisfaction of the governmental institution employees was higher compared to the private institution employees. No significant difference was encountered between the institution type and the self-perception of the employees. Having analyzed the literature, it has been observed in the study of Kadioğlu (2014) on the relationship between the job satisfaction and the self-esteem of the psychological counsellors that a significant difference is available between the institution type and the job satisfaction scores, therefore, the results of both studies support each other.

No significant relationship was found between the job satisfaction and the self-perception in this conducted study. The difference between the job satisfaction and the self-perception was analyzed in the literature but no studies were encountered, so some studies were encountered on the difference between the job satisfaction and the self-esteem. In the study of Aslan (2006), the level of self-esteem was observed to be increasing as the job satisfaction level increased. In the study conducted by Kadioğlu (2014) on the job satisfaction of the guidance teachers, a positive significant relationship was found between the self-esteem and the job satisfaction of the teachers.

The educational background of the employees can be said to significantly affect their job satisfaction, a significant difference was found between the job satisfaction of the primary education graduate employees and postgraduate education graduate employees. Having a look at the literature, a significant difference was observed in the study conducted by Aslan (2006) between the job satisfaction scores of the primary and secondary education graduate employees and PhD graduate employees. A significant difference was found between the job satisfaction and the education level in the study of Yılmaz and Dönmez (2013) and the high level of education was identified to be a variable predicting the job satisfaction. In the study of Karataş (2015), a significant difference was also observed between the job satisfaction and the level of education and the job satisfaction level of the individuals with higher educational background was higher compared to that of the other individuals. In the study of Kayhan (2008), a significant difference was detected between the job satisfaction and the education level and the job satisfaction of the associate degree graduate teachers was found to be significantly higher compared to the bachelor teachers. In the contrary, no significant difference was found between the education status and the job satisfaction in the study of Kadioğlu (2014). It has been observed that the studies in the literature revealed results which support and do not support each other.

Working in the field of expertise in which background education was received is a contributing factor to the job satisfaction of the employees. It has been found out that the job satisfaction of the employees working in their field of expertise was found to be higher at a statistically significant level compared to the employees who did not work in their field of expertise. There are results in the literature supporting this study. It has been found in the study conducted by Aslan (2006) that the employees working in their field of expertise had higher job satisfaction. Yılmaz and Dönmez (2013) found a positive relationship between working at an appropriate job with the received education and the job satisfaction. The results of the conducted studies support each other.

One of the factors affecting the job satisfaction is the capability to use permissions and the other is the definitions of the roles of employees. In this study, the job satisfaction of the employees who did not have problems in taking time off work was found to be higher at a statistically significant level compared to the employees who had problems in taking time off work. It has been found out in the study of Karataş (2015) that the job satisfaction scores of the individuals with 2 days off from work per week were higher compared to the other individuals and the employees who had time off work had higher job satisfaction scores compared to the others. The results of the conducted studies support each other.

Another factor affecting the job satisfaction is the socio-economic level. It has been identified in this study that the socio-economic levels perceived by the employees highly affect the job satisfaction. Having analyzed the literature, it has been found in the study of Bayrak (2014) that the teachers with the monthly income between 1500-3000TL have higher job satisfaction compared to the other teachers. Again, a significant difference was observed between the job satisfaction and the level of income, it has been identified that the individuals whose level of income was higher than the minimum wage has higher job satisfaction compared to the individuals whose level of income was lower than the minimum wage. However, no significant difference was found between the socio-economic status and the job satisfaction in the study conducted by Bilge, Sayan and Kabakçı in 2009. The results of the conducted studies support each other, while findings that do not support the research results are also available in the literature.

It has been identified in the conducted research that there is a significant difference between the self-perception of the married and single employees and there is no significant difference in terms of job satisfaction. Having the literature analyzed, no statistically significant difference was observed between the marital status and the job satisfaction in certain studies (Bilge, Sayan, Kabakçı, 2009; Kadioğlu, 2014; Uğur, 2015; Aslan, 2006). In contrary, the job satisfaction of the single teachers was found higher compared to the married teachers in the study of Bayrak (2014). In the study of Karataş (2015), a significant difference was also observed between the job satisfaction and the marital status and the job satisfaction level of the married and single individuals were higher compared to that of the divorced individuals. The literature consists of findings which support and do not support the study results.

A positive and low significant relationship between the age and the job satisfaction was found in this study. In the literature, a significant difference was found between the age groups and job satisfaction in the study of Kadioğlu (2014) and this difference was identified between the age groups 21-30 and 31-40 as well as the age groups 31-40 and 41+. In contrary, no significant difference was found between the job satisfaction and the age variable in some conducted studies (Uğur, 2015; Karataş, 2015; Aslan, 2006; Bilge, Sayan, Kabakçı, 2009; Yılmaz ve Dönmez, 2013). The literature consists of findings which support and do not support the study results.

No significant difference between the job satisfaction and the self-perception in terms of gender was observed in this study. Having the literature analyzed, no statistically significant difference was observed between the gender and the job satisfaction in certain studies (Bilge, Sayan, Kabakçı, 2009; Kadioğlu, 2014; Uğur, 2015; Karataş, 2015). In contrary to this, the job satisfaction of males was found higher compared to the job satisfaction of females in the study conducted by Aslan (2006). The male gender was detected as a variable which predicts the job satisfaction in the study of Yılmaz and Dönmez (2013). Kayhan (2008) observed in his study that there was a statistically significant difference between the job satisfaction levels of women and the job satisfaction levels of men. The literature consists of findings which support and do not support the study results.

A negative averagely significant relationship was found between the job satisfaction mean scores and the working hours of the employees. In the literature, there is a finding about a significant difference between the job satisfaction scores and the weekly working hours in the study of Karataş (2015). The results of both studies support each other.

A significant difference was found between the institution type and job satisfaction of the employees. It has been revealed that the job satisfaction of the governmental institution employees was higher compared to the private institution employees. A significant difference was identified between the education level and the job satisfaction of the employees. The job satisfaction of the employees working in their field of expertise was found to be higher at a statistically significant level compared to the employees who did not work in their field of expertise. It has been seen that the job satisfaction of the employees who did not have problems in taking time off work was found to be higher at a statistically significant level compared to the employees who had problems in taking time off work. There is a statistically significant difference between the clear and exact definition of roles and the job satisfaction of the employees. A significant difference was also observed between the socio-economic levels perceived by the employees and their job satisfaction. It has been retained that the job satisfaction of the employees working at a low socio-economic status was significantly lower compared to the employees working at a high socio-economic status. It has been identified that there is a significant difference between the self-perception of the married and single employees and there is no significant difference in terms of job satisfaction. A positive and low significant relationship was found between the age and the job satisfaction. A negative averagely significant relationship was found between the job satisfaction mean scores and the working hours of the employees.

Consequently, it has been identified that the job satisfaction of the governmental institution employees were significantly higher compared to the private institution employees. It has been observed that good working conditions of the employees, the lack of problems in obtaining permissions, clear definitions of the job roles, daily working hours, working in the field of background education, and the average and high socio-economic levels affect the job satisfaction of the employees.

The high level of job satisfaction of the employees in the professional life is a factor that improves the performance of the employees. It has been concluded in this study that the job satisfaction of the governmental institution employees was higher compared to the private institution employees. Having clear definitions of the roles at governmental institutions, permission possibilities and lack of problems in terms of using these permissions allowed the employees to have higher job satisfaction compared to the employees working at private institutions. It is proposed that making arrangements in order to raise the job satisfaction of the employees working in the private sector and to generate the standards of the work of human resources units at the governmental institutions would be beneficial and would raise the job satisfaction of the employees. The role definitions of the employees can clearly be defined, their roles can be clarified, arrangements can be made regarding the permissions and their job satisfaction can be improved. It is believed that prospectively planned need-oriented studies to be conducted by the relevant ministries on education, guiding individuals correctly in a realistic manner during career choosing process will decrease the number of unemployed individuals or unhappy employees due to the lack of job satisfaction at work, will improve the quality of the implemented work in both sectors (private and government) as well as bringing together the short and long-term positive results together for individuals, work life and the country itself.

This study revealed the level of job satisfaction of the employees working in the private and governmental sectors in the TRNC. The employees in the Nicosia district in the TRNC were reached via the appropriate sampling method by using descriptive scanning model. A wider sampling would provide the generalization of the results. This descriptive study sheds light on other studies and it is recommended to research its effectiveness by experimental studies. Depending on the results of this study, it is recommended to organize in-service education related to job satisfaction and self-perception.

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RELIGIOUS INFLUENCE ON GARDENING SKILLS AMONG PUBLIC SCHOOL STUDENTS FOR INQUIRY-BASED SCIENCE LEARNING

Kamal Prasad Acharya*

Department of Science and Environment Education, Central Department of Education, Tribhuvan University, Kirtipur, Kathmandu, Nepal

*Correspondence: Central Department of Education, Tribhuvan University, Kirtipur, Kathmandu, Nepal. Tel: 977-984-139-5628. E-mail: kamalacharya@tucded.edu.np

ABSTRACT

The present paper is an attempt to assess the skills for school gardening for inquiry based science learning of fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh and eighth grade basic level students of public schools. To achieve this aim, questionnaires were developed for students who follow Hinduism, Buddhism and Christian. A sample of 404 (N=388) were selected from one leader and four feeder schools to take part in the present study located in Chitwan and Nawalparasi districts of Terai region of Nepal. Students from all the schools participated in school gardening activities as part of their science curriculum to motivate inquiry based science teaching and learning. Findings showed a weak association between the religion and gardening skills among the basic public level students. There was no statistically significant difference ($\alpha=0.05$) between gardening skills of students and the religion they follow. Quantitative analysis was done on the basis of frequency, Chi square test at 0.05 level of significance and phi to see the association between two variables. Analysis showed that school gardening skills such as plough the land and soil preparation, sow the seeds, watering and caring plant, takeout weeds, planting crops and using tools in the school garden among the students who follow Hinduism is better than that of students who follow Buddhism and Muslim. Gardening enthusiasm with basic skills varies among students with different religious group of students. The shift from traditional chalk and talk method to inquiry based science learning through garden pedagogy can be promoted the understanding level of science to develop scientific literacy among the students in public schools.

Key words: Garden pedagogy, inquiry based learning, transformation, scientific attitude

1. Introduction

Nepal is multi religious and multi ethnic country. Majority of Nepalese are Hindus (81.3%), Buddhists (9%), Islam (4.4%), Kiratism (3%), Christians (1.4%) and other religion (0.9%). Chitwan District is one of 75 districts in Nepal, and is located in the southwestern part of province no. 3, the fourth largest city of Nepal, as its district headquarters. It covers an area of 864.25 sq. m., and had a population of 579,984 people (CBS, 2011). Education in Nepal was long based on home schooling and Gurukul Education in Nepal from the primary school to the university level has been modeled from the very inception on the Indian system. In Nepal, an understanding of basic science is critical in today's society which is increasingly technology driven. Nepalese people use the knowledge of science on a daily basis to make decisions on evolving issues and technologies. It is becoming apparent that public schools in Nepal need to educate students on basic science literacy issues since they will be the ones making future decisions. In order to understand these issues and develop informed opinions, a society needs to have the basic understanding of the principles of science education (O'Brien & Shoemaker, 2006). Basic science skills are often referred to as science literacy (Bowker & Tearle, 2007), which can be defined as the knowledge and understanding of scientific concepts and processes required for personal decisions making participation in civic and cultural affairs (Kim, Park & Son, 2014).

In line with the recently adopted Global Goals for Sustainable Development, this research aims to catalyze improvements in the quality of teaching and learning science at the basic education level in Nepal through innovative, transformative and contextualized pedagogical approaches. The uniform nature of the national science curriculum at the schools has faced criticisms for not being sufficiently contextual and practical to capture all aspirations and topographies in Nepal. The vast majority of classroom teaching includes didactic teacher centered lectures (Acharya, 2017). The novice and some professionally motivated science teachers are more likely to use child-centered methods and strategies inside classroom. As far as assessment is concerned, standardized testing has encouraged rote learning and reproduction on the part of students rather than creating their own knowledge.

Science education is the field concerned with sharing science content (DeMarco, 1997) and process (Demarco, Relf & McDaniel, 1999) to the pupil and from pupil to the people to increase scientific literacy (Acharya, 2017). We've known for years that there are better and more effective ways to educate our students than the current school system. It takes a long time for institutions such as schools to change from the status quo, even when everyone can see that there is a desperate need to do so. Perhaps one of the greatest difficulties in the schools

face today in Nepal is the challenge of engaging students and creating excitement about science learning. Engagement is possible by adopting garden pedagogy (Blair, 2009). Traditionally, our educational endeavor has been pre-occupied with filling buckets or teaching students to recall specific content given to them through lecture (Acharya, 2016). In order to engage students, attention must be paid by educators to the capacities (Dobbs, Relf & McDaniel, 1998), interests (Herrington, 1998), and habits of students (Pigg, Waliczek & Zajicek, 2006). In essence, effective engagement of students requires engaging the imagination and lighting the fire of creativity (Thorpe & Townsend, 2001). Integrating science teaching and learning with the research, a higher order thinking can be developed among our students (Lineberger & Zajicek, 2000). It is with this paradox in mind that we turn our attention to the future of science education research and the changing paradigms through school gardening that will shape the society as a whole (Nabhan, 1994; Klemmer, Waliczek & Zajicek, 2005 and Skelly & Zajicek, 1998).

1.1 Situation of Learning Science

Science learning beyond the classrooms is a recent trend to learn science in the context of Nepal. According to Smith & Motesenbocker (2005), the outdoor classroom science activities provides a meaningful way to engage students in practical activities, giving them real experience of collecting and analysing data, and making predictions in the real world, beyond the limitations of the science classroom or laboratory. Providing students with real quality learning activities in relevant situations beyond the walls of the classroom is vital for helping them appreciate their first hand experiences in the school garden forms a variety perspectives (Acharya, 2017). Experiences outside the classroom also enhances learning by providing students with opportunities to practice skills of inquiry, and problem solving in everyday situations.

This study explored the relationship between the religious beliefs with basic gardening skills for inquiry based science learning integrated with garden pedagogy. It explores the knowledge regarding selective gardening skills such as plough the land, soil preparation, sow seeds, care, watering plants and the use of tools among N=388 students of 4 to 8 grades, who attended an intensive, fifteen days inquiry-based science enrichment program with intervention. The intervention was on the school garden by the participation of the subject teacher and the co-researcher for collaboration and discussion among the friends. I used pre- and post-surveys, and selective in-depth interviews with the students and the teacher to collect data relating the knowledge of gardening skills among the students. Participatory action research cycle was completely followed to see the learning habit of students in terms of skills by meaningfully engaging them in the school garden.

1.2 Theoretical Framework

The Constitution of Nepal (2015) respects and acknowledges the rights of all citizens including students of all ethnic groups, cultures and religions. There is a provision of the right to child friendly justice. Basic Education Curriculum (2069) has highlighted national educational objectives not only to respect, acknowledge and protect all the cultures, social values, and social collaboration but also to create social equality and inclusive society regardless difference in different genders, cultures and religions.

Policy reform documents value inquiry-based learning in Nepal (National Curriculum Framework, 2075). Science learning primarily based on learning experiences. It is based on the theory of constructivism which is the main part of observation and scientific study about how people learn. Gardening skills are related to learning experience which was specified by Dewey (1934). Comprehensive understanding of inquiry-based learning supported by the participatory action research (PAR) approach through the development of higher-level sequential thinking involved in the co-creation of knowledge in science among the students.

2. Purpose of the Study

The study examined how the school garden develop an inquiry among the basic level students' attitudes about science based on different religion. The research questions were as follows:

1. How does the school garden help to enhance inquiry in science learning among the basic school students' attitudes about science?
2. How useful is the school garden in supporting basic school students' attitudes about science and science inquiry learning?
3. To improve the quality of teaching and learning science at the basic education level (grades 4-8) in Nepal through innovative, transformative and contextualized pedagogical approaches.

3. Method and Materials

3.1 Population and Sample of the Study

A total of 404 (N=388) students (Table 2) from five public schools (Table 1) who were in the four to eighth grade were recruited for this study because they were at the critical age when students tend to increase interest in doing practical activities in science (Dobbs, Relf & McDaniel, 1999). I also limited the number of the participants to 388 that helps to ensure quality inquiry-based learning using school garden relating with basic gardening skills. The selected students completed an intensive fifteen days intervention in the school garden to learn gardening skills. Information of students as per the religion indicated that 73.5% were Hindus, 17.8% were Buddhists and 8.7% were Muslim. In addition, 40.8% were Chhetis, 25.7% were Brahmin, 14.2% were Magar, 9.5% were Newar, 7% were Tharu, and 2.8% were highly marginalized. In the same way, 73.5% of the students said Nepali was their mother tongue; 1.2% was Newari, Tamang 7.6%, Tharu 10.4%, Magar 1.4%, Darai 2.8% and 3.1% were highly marginalized Chepang. The age of the students ranged from 8 to 10 years old (18% of participants), from 11 to 13 years old (62.5% of the participants), from 14 to 16 years old (19.5% of the participants) and only 0.2% participants were at the age of 17 years at the time of the study.

Table 1: Sample schools and the total number of students

Name of the Schools	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Bag Devi Basic School	38	9.4	9.4	9.4
Jana Ekata Basic School	77	19.1	19.1	28.5
Jan Jiwan High School	209	51.7	51.7	80.2
National Basic School	50	12.4	12.4	92.6
Nawa Durga Basic School	30	7.4	7.4	100.0
Total	404	100.0	100.0	

Table 2. Number of students in each class

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
4	45	11.1	11.1	11.1
5	57	14.1	14.1	25.2
6	96	23.8	23.8	49.0
7	105	26.0	26.0	75.0
8	101	25.0	25.0	100.0
Total	404	100.0	100.0	

3.2 Site Location

The study area was held in the school garden and in the classroom. The school garden is near by the main school building and besides the eco-san toilet. Activities in the garden was done from 9:00 a.m. until 4:00 p.m. but the time to go in the garden depends on the period assigned to learn science each day. Students were able to experience like to learn in a school garden by inquiry-based lessons. They were meaningfully engaged in all the activities and in the interventions packages. Almost all (99.7%) students had never been done activities in the school garden (survey report). Mostly girl students were interested in this type of setting and expressed an interest a science practical activities for inquiry-based learning science. The intervention provided an integrated knowledge of basic gardening skills. Intervention in the garden promoted hands-on, cooperative learning through an inquiry approach for students with the participation of teachers as co-researchers.

3.3 Instruments: Science survey test instrument was developed by the co-researchers (myself) and the science teachers of the Jana Jiwan Higher Secondary School, Chitwan. Participating teachers were familiar to participatory action research approach by our prolonged engagement in the field and the inquiry based science learning. The survey questions were related with the basic gardening skills such as the knowledge of plough the land, soil preparation, mixing compost manure and urine, care of plants and the use of tools in the school garden. The goal is to develop instruments that were grade-appropriate to assess the knowledge of skills as per their religion.

4. Data Analysis

Simple frequency, chi-square test at 0.05 level of significance and phi were performed in order to understand whether there is an association between the basic public school students with the school gardening skills in terms of religion variable. Before conducting Chi-square test analysis, the assumptions of the analysis were checked. The followings were tested, respectively (a) independence of observations (b) homogeneity of variable (c) Two variables should be measured at an ordinal or nominal level (d) two variables should consist of two or more categorical, independent groups (e) the levels (or categories) of the variables should be mutually exclusive. In all statistical tests, $\alpha = 0.05$ significance level was used in order to see the association, phi was calculated by using SPSS programme of data analysis.

5. Results

Inferential statistics of the association between the basic school gardening skill (plough the land and soil preparation) with the religion of the students in Table 3.

Table 3. Skills of students for school gardening: Plough the land

Gardening skill	Religion						Total	
	Buddhist		Hindu		Christian		N	%
	N	%	N	%	N	%		
Skills of students forNo school gardening: Plough the land	17	25.0	125	43.4	10	31.3	152	39.2
Yes	51	75.0	162	56.3	22	68.8	235	60.6
Total	68	100.0	288	100.0	32	100.0	388	100.0

Percentage exceeds to 100% due to MR.

Table 2 shows that the knowledge of gardening skill related to plough the land and soil preparation for the school gardening was 75% among the students who are Buddhist, 68.8% among Christian and 56.3% among the Hindus.

Table 4. Chi-Square test

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	9.241 ^a	4	.055
Likelihood Ratio	9.843	4	.043
Linear-by-Linear Association	.197	1	.657
N of Valid Cases	388		

3 cells (33.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .08.

Chi-square value is 0.055 which is more than 0.05 (Table 2) shows that there is no association between the religion and the gardening skill in terms of plough the land and soil preparation for the school gardening. The calculated value of Phi (0.154) also shows the modest association between the variables.

Table 5. Skills of students for school gardening: Sow the seeds

Gardening skill	Religion						Total	
	Buddhist		Hindu		Christian		N	%
	N	%	N	%	N	%		
Skills of students forNo school gardening: Sow the seeds	17	25.0	103	35.8	14	43.8	134	34.5
Yes	51	75.0	185	64.2	18	56.3	254	65.5
Total	68	100.0	288	100.0	32	100.0	388	100.0

Regarding the skill related to sow the seeds in the school garden, 51% Buddhist students have the knowledge that were shown in the school garden. Among the Hindus students, only 64.2% shown the gardening skills and 56.3% Christian students have the knowledge and skills of sowing the seeds in the school garden (Table 5).

Table 6. Chi-Square test

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4.129 ^a	2	.127
Likelihood Ratio	4.236	2	.120
Linear-by-Linear Association	3.451	1	.063
N of Valid Cases	388		

0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 11.05.

The association between the skills of sowing the seeds in the school garden in respect with the religion is 0.127 and the calculated Phi value is 0.103. Both the values indicate that there is not the relation/association between the gardening skills in terms of sow the seeds with the religion of public level students in Nepal.

Caring and watering plants in the school garden among Christian students was 56.3% and the students who follow Buddhism was 72.1%. But there is not an association between these two variables (Table 8).

Table 7. Skills of students for school gardening: Watering the plants

Gardening skills	Religion						Total	
	Buddhist		Hindu		Christian		N	%
	N	%	N	%	N	%		
Skills students for schoolNo gardening: Watering the plants	19	27.9	92	31.9	14	43.8	125	32.2
Yes	49	72.1	196	68.1	18	56.3	263	67.8
Total	68	100.0	288	100.0	32	100.0	388	100.0

72.1% Buddhist public school students, 68.1% Hindus and 56.3% Christian students have the skills of caring and watering plants in the school garden.

Table 8. Chi-square test

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2.528 ^a	2	.282
Likelihood Ratio	2.447	2	.294
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.467	1	.116
N of Valid Cases	388		

0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 10.31.

The association between the religion and the watering and caring of the green vegetables and plants in the school garden was weak which is shown by Phi 0.081.

Table 7. Skills of students for school gardening: Takeout weeds

Gardening skills	Religion						Total	
	Buddhist		Hindu		Christian		N	%
	N	%	N	%	N	%		
Skills of students for schoolNo gardening: Takeout weeds	22	32.4	99	34.4	14	43.8	135	34.8
Yes	46	67.6	188	65.3	18	56.3	252	64.9
Total	68	100.0	288	100.0	32	100.0	388	100.0

Skills of students for school gardening in terms of takeout weeds from the plot is seems good among the students who follow Buddhism (67.6%), and Hinduism (65.3%) and 56.3% Christian students have the basic skills of gardening. The association between the taking out weeds from the school garden and the religion of students is shown weak (chi square value 0.796 at $\alpha=0.05$). Weak association between these two variables seems weak by Phi (0.066).

Table 8. Skills of students for school gardening: Planting crops

Gardening skill	Religion						Total	
	Buddhist		Hindu		Christian		N	%
	N	%	N	%	N	%		
Skills of students for school gardening: Planting crops	16	23.5	95	33.0	12	37.5	123	31.7
No Yes	52	76.5	193	67.0	20	62.5	265	68.3
Total	68	100.0	288	100.0	32	100.0	388	100.0

Majority of Buddhist public school students (76.5%) have the basic gardening skills in terms of planting crops. 67% Hindus and 62.5% Christian students have the basic knowledge of gardening skills. The association between the basic gardening skills and the religion is very weak (ϕ 0.085) and there is no significance difference at 0.05 level of significance (Chi square 0.245) which is more than that of the tabulated value.

Table 9. Skills of students for school gardening: Using the tools

Skills of students for school gardening: Using tools	Religion						Total	
	Buddhist		Hindu		Christian		N	%
	N	%	N	%	N	%		
No	16	23.5	95	33.0	12	37.5	123	31.7
Yes	52	76.5	193	67.0	20	62.5	265	68.3
Total	68	100.0	288	100.0	32	100.0	388	100.0

67% Hindus public school students have the basic skills of using the tools such as spade, shovel, sickle, etc. in the school garden whereas 76.5% Buddhist students have the similar skills. There is a strong relationship between these variable as shown (Table 10). The chi square ($\alpha = 0.000$) is less than that of tabulated value at 0.05 level of significance. Phi value (0.56) shows the strong relationship between the variables.

Table 10. Chi-square test

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	17.743 ^a	2	.000
Likelihood Ratio	18.671	2	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	6.528	1	.011
N of Valid Cases	388		

Table 10. Comparison between gardening skills in terms of religion

	Gardening skills among public school students in relation with religion						Total
	Plough the land and soil preparation	Sow the seeds	Caring and watering plants	and Takeout the weeds	Planting crops	Using tools	
Buddhist	51 13.6%	51 13.6%	49 13.1%	46 12.3%	52 13.9%	52 13.9%	65 17.4%
Religion Hindu	162 43.3%	185 49.5%	196 52.4%	188 50.3%	193 51.6%	139 37.2%	277 74.1%
Christian	22 5.9%	18 4.8%	18 4.8%	18 4.8%	20 5.3%	16 4.3%	32 8.6%
Total	235 62.8%	254 67.9%	263 70.3%	252 67.4%	265 70.9%	207 55.3%	374 100.0%

Percentages and totals are based on respondents. Dichotomy group tabulated at value 1.

Public school students in Chitwan district of Nepal have different gardening skills in terms of religion. It is found out that Hindus have good knowledge of basic gardening skills comparing with Buddhist and Muslim students (Table 10). By the comparison among the three religion in terms of school gardening skills of the public level students, students who follow Hinduism have comparatively better gardening skills than that of Buddhist and Christians. 43.3%, 49.5%, 52.4%, 50.3%, 51.6%, 37.2% and 74.1% Hindus students have the skills to plough the land, sow seeds, watering plants, takeout weeds, planting crops and using the tools respectively. Basic gardening skills among the Christian public school students is least on comparison with the rest of two religions. It is found out that 13.6%, 13.6%, 13.1%, 12.3%, 13.9%, 13.9% and 17.4% Christian students have the skills of plough the land, sow the seeds, watering plants, takeout weeds, planting crops and using the tools respectively. Buddhist public school students have the moderate percentage of basic skills in comparison with Hindus and Buddhism (Table 10).

6. Conclusion

The present research aimed to assess the gardening skills by the students at the basic level school students in the public schools at Chitwan district of province no 3. Findings showed that students who follow Hinduism have relatively good gardening skills such as soil preparation, sow the seeds in different seasons in the school garden, taking out weeds from the garden, caring and watering plants and the use of simple tools in the school garden. In addition, no significant difference were found among them in accordance with to religion and basic gardening skills. Phi value showed a very weak relationship and the associations between the variables except the use of tools in the school garden. Furthermore, having the knowledge of basic gardening skills is important for the inquiry based science teaching and learning for the transformation of teacher centered pedagogy to child centered approach of teaching and learning science in the public schools in Nepal.

7. Proposed Research

The present study believes that conducting these studies will shed more light on the use of school garden for inquiry based science learning to transform the classroom pedagogy in the context of Nepal.

1. Cultivating the enthusiasm among science teachers and students for enquiry based learning through the provision of practical classes outside the structured classrooms in Nepal.
2. Difficulties facing public school science teachers when using garden pedagogy system in science teaching and learning.
3. A proposed training programme for the public school science teachers on garden pedagogy and the design of courses.

8. Acknowledgements

This research paper grew out of the insights gained in course of my PhD pursuit which was:

- i. registered with the Graduate School of Education, Faculty of Education, Tribhuvan University.
- ii. inspired by the fellowship for PhD study awarded by NORHED-project.

Therefore, I would like to acknowledge both of the institutions as well as my PhD supervisor Prof. Dr. Chitra Bahadur Budhathoki for the inspiration, co-supervisor Assot. Professor Dr. Birgitte Bjonness (Norwegian University of Life Sciences) for her encouragement, Professor Dr. Bhimsen Devkota (Lead programme coordinator, NORHED project) for his insights to write a paper, Prof. Dr. Ganesh Bahadur Singh (Coordinator, M.Phil. leading PhD programme, FoE, T.U.) for the help and Prof. Dr. Rajani Rajbhandary (Chairperson, Subject Committee- Science and Environment Education) for her inspiration. My special thanks goes to Assot. Prof. Kamal Kumar Poudel for his insightful guidance and language edition of the paper.

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THE INNOVATIVE PRINCIPAL AND RECORD KEEPING FOR EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIA

Rev. (Sr.) Juliana Rotkangmwa Bodang, Ph. D, S. M. Yakwal **Ph. D**, R. Guyit **Ph. D**
Department of Special Education and Rehabilitation Sciences, University of Jos, Nigeria.
michogun63@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

The paper examined the role of innovative principals on records keeping strategies for educational development in Nigeria. The paper however, xrayed the concepts of innovative principals, record keeping strategies, features of innovative principals, types of records keeping in Nigerian education and the strategies for keeping the records for enhancing educational development in Nigeria. It was concluded that records keeping strategies by the innovative principals aid effective records keeping in Nigerian educational development. It was recommended that the principals should integrate innovative ideas such as digital records for enhancing educational development in Nigeria.

Introduction

Record keeping is an important activity in schools. School records are copies of proceedings of actions, events, or other matters kept by the school manager. School records could be viewed as authentic register or documents of official accounts of transactions or occurrences, which are persevered in the school office. It allows consistency and coherency to be established in the system. It is important to note that every principal in the system is duty bound to keep records of his professional activities. This cuts across, academic and non-academic staff: - teachers, examination officers, admission officers, disciple master, form masters, food masters, games masters, health masters, head of school and their assistants, secretaries, purchasing officers, ministry officials.

An innovative principal has the responsibility of seeing to the smooth running of the secondary school. A number of factors are responsible for the extent to which the principal succeeds depends, among others, on the record that he is expected to keep. These records help to provide information about the school, and decision making and assessment of progress of the school. The law requires that some of these records are kept in school while others are not but an innovative principal should keep all records as they are useful in decision making.

An innovative principal must have accurate information to help in assessing meaningful the progress of the school. All school records are important, must be complete and made available when need arises. The principal must ensure that the school records are devoid of exaggerated reports or untrue statements. When records are not kept at one level, it may affect the system at another level. Therefore care should be taken to ensure that one keeps an adequate record of his duties.

Different records are kept in different ways, books and formats. This makes it imperative for you to study the pattern of your records in line with accepted standards and to keep yourself informed of new innovations. Some people keep very good records of their activities, but most often cannot supply the records when they are needed. It is one thing to have records; it is another to keep them safe. You will discover that some records over the years have been exposed to insects, rain, dust, fire and other destructive elements.

It is with a view to making us understand the needs for proper and safe record keeping that this paper seeks to look at the importance or relevance of record keeping, types of record and their formats, updating and safekeeping of records. The principal should note that when he fails to keep records, he is in actual sense destroying the system instead of helping to build it.

Educational record keeping practices however, vary substantially by size of institution and sophistication of administrative practices. They also vary as students move along the continuum from preschool towards secondary education, because, the role of educational institutions vary along the same continuum.

Reports cards, conferences, and parent teachers associations are all devices by which principals are held directly accountable to parents, students and the society at large. An innovative principal is expected to make and keep more records about students today than ever before. Here people participate in making and keeping education records, and more people outside the educational system want access to them for other than educational purposes. The emphasis on educational record keeping has shifted from reporting progress to parents and supplementing personal contact in instructing and making decisions about students to serving not only as a

management tool but also as a means of justifying an educational institution's actions and budget, and as a surrogate for personal contact with students.

As a student moves from one point to another in the education system, his path is blazed by records concerning his performance, his behavior, and his own and then often his family's circumstances. These records are created by an innovative principal mainly to record the students' progress, to help make decisions about him, and to improve the effectiveness of the educational programmes that the school provides.

The mission and role of an innovative principal are kept determinants of its record-keeping practice. The mission of an innovative principal should therefore be to care for and nurture students so as to lay a solid foundation for academic tasks they will confront in secondary education.

Problems Militating against Efficient Record Keeping by Principals in Nigeria

Some of the reasons why some principals fail to keep records include:

- i. Lack of Record books or materials
- ii. Improper orientation
- iii. Inadequate training and knowledge on record keepers on the use of information from records
- iv. Poor supervision
- v. Laziness or untimely supply of records
- vi. Lack of commitment
- vii. Ignorance of the dangers of not keeping records
- viii. School records keeping practices are often anachronistic and institutional interests tend to overshadow the interests of students and parents in the collection, use and dissemination of education records.
- ix. There is no incentive to devote the time, energy, or money to update substantially modify record keeping practices, thus the demand for curriculum reform, improvement of service delivery and cost reduction (Imboden,1980)
- x. Lack of criteria for relevance or propriety creates privacy problems.

Purpose of School Records

The purpose of record keeping is to ensure that accurate and proper records of students' achievement and growth during the school days are kept. Availability of information on any school matters when needed also facilitate research activities that will promote efficiency and effectiveness of school system (Durasola, 2002; 2004). To provide information to an employer of labour who may want to recruit pupils for jobs such as testimonials, transcripts, certificates and reference letters, and supply the necessary information to school inspectors is a function of school records.

Qualities of School Records

The school records to be kept by the principal must satisfy certain conditions as follows:

- School records must include complete information so as to make them reliable
- Records must be an honest representation of facts. Information must not be distorted. Events must be recorded as they occur to represent their true perspective without removal of elements of personal biases.
- Records must be easy and retrievable. Records must be recalled and the system of filing must be adequate; filing cabinets must be employed and computers may be used where necessary (Sunmola, 2008).
- Records must be useable. There is no sense in keeping useless records.
- Records must be backed up by original documents to include invoices, bills, cheque counterfoil and receipts.

The Role of Records in Decision Making

Innovative secondary school principal shares responsibility for the intellectual, social and development of students with the student's parents and with others who deal with youth, such as child welfare and juvenile justice agencies. An innovative principal pursue this broad mission of instructional services, regulate behavior, report to parents on academic performance and social conduct, diagnose students' needs, and conduct special programmes for students. These decisions could include matters such as class placement and promotion, eligibility for special educational programmes such as students with special needs.

2. Innovative principal decision making responsibilities and authorities

An innovative principal strive to cooperate with parents. The degree to which an innovative principal share authority with parents must be detailed. Parents have the option of withdrawing their children from the school if they dislike the manner in which the school exercises its authority even though parents have little ability to control decisions made by the school about their children.

3. Variations in organizational setting

Secondary education occurs in a diversity of organizational settings even though efforts are made to ensure the same standard of operation. There are variations in size; organizational complexity, types of special services offered, and intensity of involvement in economic and social issues e.g. drug use, and juvenile crime. Despite these differences in organizational settings, all schools today have some common characteristics that affect the way they collect, maintain, use and disclose information about students.

- Innovative principals should rely more on records than on personal contact in arriving at decisions.
- Record keeping problems cannot successfully compete with other demands for their time, attention and resources.

4. Creation and use of records

The content of a school records is to some extent required by state education authorities including information like child's name, birth date, immunizations and some descriptive information about family background at the time of enrollment. Grades and credits are added to a student's record. Others are health information, test scores, actions authorized by the school, parent's rights and prohibitions and family financial data. Also, records such as student's behavior and personality, social life, status, attitudes and parents behavior are necessary. Such information is kept at the school in a cumulative record.

5. Record-keeping Responsibility and Authority

It is the responsibility of an innovative principal to collect, use and disclose information about the students. Principals should not view records as his own or view the involvement of parents and students in decision about record keeping as a threat to their autonomy and an implied insult to their integrity as could be the case with a principal who is not innovative.

6. Disclosure practices

An innovative principal should have a tradition of treating records about students as "within the family" for use by the school.

1. It is an indication that there is progress in the system.
2. A defense during inspection.
3. Very vital in the case of transfer of staff.
4. A tool for effective evaluation.
5. Helps to settle evaluation.
6. A reminder of previous content.
7. Helps to settle disputes.
8. A reminder of date of events
9. Gives information about staff dealings and years of service.
10. Helps in the preparation of remuneration and benefits.
11. Helps in stock taking and further purchases.
12. Reduce suspicion.
13. Serve as a means for rewarding diligence.

When records are kept correctly, it is very clear that the system is functional, that people are working and very productive. We must distinguish between activity and productivity. It is possible to be involve in an activity and not be productive. Such an activity cannot leave any record behind. Those who are in the habit of keeping records are spared of all the tensions and confusions of the notice of the visit of supervisors or auditors. When a staff is transferred, what makes it easy for the new person to continue is the manner in which he has kept his record. Such records can provide a guide and an insight into the activities of the offices of classroom. There are cases where people do not remember the number of items purchased or approved for their use or number of times present or approval given for travels. Proper records keeping help to settle any dispute that may arise, that is why the writer agrees with a wise man who said" the shortest pencil is longer than the longest memory". Record keeping reminds us of what we have done before, when and how they were done and the result obtained; it provides ready information about remunerations and benefits which ensure equity and fairness.

Types of School Record-Keeping

There are various types of records and could be divided into two broad types. School records vary from school to school. As an innovative principal, he must be able to keep the two broad types namely statutory records and non-statutory records.

Statutory records refer to records kept in accordance with the education law and are produced on request by officials in Ministry of Education on inspection. These type of records include admission records and withdrawal register, visitor's book, attendance register, class register, movement book, punishment book, reward book, correspondence, school performance, school photo album, duty book, assembly book, national curricular on different subjects, query book and continuous assessment records. Others include staff welfare records, student leadership records, counseling/ guidance record, sports and games record file, school club/ societies, organizational chart, and disciplinary committee file.

The non-statutory records are kept for administrative conveniences. They include school stock inventory book, cash and account books, school calendar, health book, and minutes book just to mention but a few.

1. Admission Records and Withdrawal Register.

This is a statutory record that contains detailed information about update of every student admitted in the school. It provides information on the mode of admission, name of candidates, date of birth, sex, month /year of admission, class admitted into, sponsor, enrollment update or transfer/withdrawal.

Table 1: Admission and Withdrawal Register

Month/Year	Name	Class	Sex	Age	Class Progress	Withdrawal	Pupils admitted	Reason
5/01/2013	Meshach Peter	JS1	M	12yrs	JS1 JS2 JS3	SS1 SS2 SS3		
6/02/2012	Maura Musa	JS2	F	13yrs	2012 2013 2014	2015 2016 2017		

2. Visitor's Book

This book contains names of important personalities visiting the school within the school hours. The book is useful as it shows general interest shown by the community. Head of states normally sign with green, Governors with red while other visitors with blue or black biro.

Table 2: Visitor's book

Date	Name of Visitor	Time in	Address	Purpose of visit	Time out	Remark	Signature
6/4/2013	Mrs. Yop	10.15am	Tudun-Wada, Jos.	Open day	3.30 Pm	Very Satisfactory	Dung
12/8/2013	Ministry of Education	9.30 am	Plateau State Ministry of Education Studies	WAEC Registration.	3.00 Pm.	All SS3 were Registered.	Dean of
08/1/2014	Sabo Musa office Jos	8.45 am		Pupils/Teachers Supervision	3pm	Encouraging result	Chairman Zonal

3. Attendance Register for Staff

This record shows punctuality of staff to school. It consists of name of staff, time in signature and time out signature and remarks

Table 3: Attendance register for staff

Date	Name of staff	Time in	Sign	Time out	Sign	Remark
19/9/2017	Edit Paul	7:15a.m	EP	2.00pm	EP	closed
19/9/2017	Atang Atse	7:20a.m	AA	2.00pm	AA	closed

4. Class Register

Class register is attendance record that is useful in showing students who attend classes regularly and those absent. In an instance where a class teacher marks a child who is absent present and unfortunately the child dies or is involved in criminal act outside the school leading to arrest, the law or parents could force the school to account for the death or the arrest of such a student. Attendance register also helps to reveal if a student has been sick. Schools are advised to call the attendance register twice a day, in the morning and afternoon after the school break by midday. An innovative principal must have this record in the office daily.

Table 4: Class Attendance

S/No	Adm.No	Name	Days				
			Mon	Tue	Wed	Thur	Fri
1	00024	Yop Dalyop	√√	√√	√√	√√	√√
2.	00025	Atse Atang	00	00	√√	√√	√√
3	00026	Asanatu Adik	√√	00	√√	√√	√√
4.	00027	Lami Abdullahi	√√	√0	√√	0√	00
5.	00028	Peace Livinus	√√	0√	00	√√	√√

5. Movement book

Staff movement book is a record that shows the whereabouts of staff who report in the school for duty but for good reasons have to move out of the school during working hours so that no authority is put under undue pressure. This record include date, name of staff, time out , reasons for moving out of the school, time in, signature of staff, remarks/ signature.

Table 5: Movement Book

Date	Name of Staff	Time out	Reason for Moving out of School	Time in	Signature of Staff	Principal Remarks	Signature
1/3/2013	Simi Audu	11.00 am	Hospital for Health Condition	12.20 pm	SA	Permitted	DB
2/2/2013	Isa Abdul	10.30 pm	Ministry of Education	1.00 pm	IA	Permitted	DB

6. Punishment Book

This shows record of offences and nature of punishment administered, name of offenders, class and sex. This book is kept by the principal. The keeping of this book helps to protect the child from being punished anyhow by the teacher. It also helps to protect the teacher from parents or community members on the way and manner teachers punish students. This information, if documented could help the principal in taking the necessary steps to solve the problem (Gnagey, 1971; Oyedeji, 1988; 1990)

Table 6: Punishment Book

Date	Student's Name	Sex	Age	Class	Offence	Punishment	By whom	Remarks/Name
11/3/2018	Ali Yaro	M	12	JSS2	Truancy	Weeding the School	Principal	Satisfactory DB
							Compound for one day	
15/3/2015	James Lar	M	14	SS1	Theft	Suspended for 2 weeks	Disciplinary Committee	DB

7. Correspondence files

A school must have updated and well-kept correspondence files on

1. Ministry of Education (MOE)
2. Zonal Inspectorate of Education (ZIE)
3. Parents Teachers Association (PTA)
4. School Board of Governors (if any)
5. School Finances, account and auditing
6. Old students Association
7. School Club and Societies
8. School Statistics
9. School Disciplinary Committee
10. Security in the school and so on.

The content of all correspondences must be paged appropriately for easy references.

8. Reward Book

This book shows the records of those who have been given awards and the nature of such awards. For example, sports, quiz, debate, essay writing and so on. These awards could be internal or external. The record should include date of the award, name and number of recipients, items given. Include records of certificates given, prizes given during speech and prize giving day.

Table 7: Reward Book

Date	Name	Class	Sex	Internal or External	Nature of the Reward	Event of the reward	By whom	Remarks/Signature
5/4/16	Joy Mang	JS2	F	External	Mini Essay Competition	PRTV Mgt	Well Deserved	Award
5/8/16	Audu Ali	JS3	M	Internal	Best overall Student	Speech & Price	School Authority	Encouraging Reward Giving Day

9. Correspondence

This is record received from external bodies like the Ministry of Education, non-governmental and from individuals. The date collected and who received it should be documented.

10. School time table

There should be a timetable prepared for the whole school, kept in the office of the principal. Class by class time table is copied from the master time table. The purpose of the time table is to regulate the activities in the school. The time table should indicate when classes will begin, when the school closes for the year. This is a difficult task, as such, the principal must appoint competent teachers who are experienced for this task.

11. Record Diary or Work.

It is a special book designed for the purpose of recording subjects and contents in the class, date and week within any given term. The subject contents are broken into units that are teachable, for example

Week: 8

Class: JS2

Date: Week Ending 18/08/2018

Subject: English Language

Topic: Formal letter writing

12. Lesson plan records

This includes the record of submission of lesson plan for marking showing name of teacher, date, subject, topic and signature..... It is prepared to contain daily preparation of the teacher for the different subjects to be covered and the activities to be carried out for each day. The lesson notebook serves as an aid to the teacher in the course of teaching as he cannot rely completely on his memory.

The lesson should include

- a) General information such as topic, date, time of the day, duration of the lesson, age, sex and class.
- b) Behavioral objectives, previous knowledge, introduction, presentation, application, evaluation, conclusion and student's activities including assignment.

13. Staff files

Staff files contain application letters, interview result, letter of acceptance of employment including the condition for employment, copy of promotion letter, excuse duty letter, leave of absence, query letters and replies, awards and photocopies of all credentials.

14. Examination question/ marking scheme

The principal should keep record of a file where all past question papers and their marking schemes are kept. It is very useful record in time of emergency. This is because a times a new teacher arrives and experiences difficulty finding out what he should teach because the school does not have copies of syllabus kept in the principal office. The scheme of work breaks up the syllabus into teaching units.

15. Records of performance:

Statistics record of performance of students over the years in both internal and external examinations should be kept.

Table 8: Records of performance:

Year	Mathematics	English	Computer Studies
2015	53%	72%	79%
2017	48%	58%	68%
2018	64%	78%	93%

16. School photo album

The history of the school could be written in form of photographs. The school principal should document photographs of events relating to staff, school surroundings and exhibitions taken during school festivals such as:

- i. First year pupil's first day at school
- ii. Inter-house athletics meeting
- iii. Competitions in sports and games
- iv. Literary and debating society activities
- v. Religious group ceremonies
- vi. Cultural displays
- vii. Environmental sanitation exercise
- viii. Meeting of clubs and societies
- ix. Speech and prize giving day ceremonies

17. Duty book

This shows all the activities taking place in a school each day, events, responses, reaction and how they are handled.

18. Assembly book

This record gives detailed report of assembly activities, speeches, who conducted what, time, information passed on to the students.

19. National curricula on different subjects

The National curricula for secondary schools book series has been prepared for schools by the Federal Ministry of Education. The books series are prepared in volumes according to the subjects or disciplines.

Each subject stipulates the philosophy and objectives of the subjects, breakdown of topics, objectives, content activities, equipment, assessment and remarks. The principal should make the subject curriculum available for use by each class and subject teacher.

20. Query Book

The query book is a record of queries sent to teaching and non-academic staff. An innovative principal could send queries to any member of staff who goes late to classes, does not attend morning assembly regularly, refuses to give assignment to students regularly, refuses to carry out duty assigned by the school authority, closes from place of work before time, rude to superior, does not keep important school records, deviates from the teaching professional code of ethics like inciting students against the school or government etc. Replies to such queries should be recorded in query file and staff personal file.

Every record of query must have date, name, rank of staff, nature of query, response to query by affected staff, principal's reaction, further action taken by principal or higher authority, final action taken on erring staff, name and signature of the principal.

21. History of the school

The principal is expected to keep a documented history of the school. The history of the school contains the date of establishment of the school, record of first set of students, students' enrollment according to genders, the names of pioneering teaching and non-teaching staff, pioneering principal, assistants and their qualifications.

22. Transfer Certificate

A transfer certificate format is obtained by a student leaving one school to another from his original school, showing that such a student is not in any way indebted to the original school and that the student is of good conduct. The features of the transfer certificate should be arranged in horizontal columns to include the following:

The title of the transfer certificates should be:

TRANSFER CERTIFICATE STATE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

“ORIGINAL”

Name of pupils, name of parent, tribe, date of birth, no. in admission register, name of school, class last passed and date, final position in class, standard at present time, date of last attendances at above school, no. of attendance made this year, any fee owing, if yes, the amount, conduct, causes of leaving, list of former schools attended, date and principal's name.

23. Continuous assessment records

This record shows the students continuous assessment record sheet and broad sheet which was used by the individual teacher and the form teacher.

24. Staff welfare record

This shows a record of staff names and rank, nature of welfare, contribution to welfare and the nature of distribution, commodity and loan collection and so on.

25. Students' Leadership Record

A record of student leadership showing the names of student, the period of leadership, responsibility given, student evaluation and recommendation e.g. Matilda Banje, 2017/2018 session, Health Prefect, Very hard working.

26. Counselling/Guidance Record

This record show counselling records, period of counselling, nature of counselling, student's response to counselling and record of activities carried out in school.

27. Sports and Games Record File

The curricula of sports and games are important aspects of school life. A school is expected to establish and maintain facilities for sports and games in the school. Names of indoor and outdoor games and sporting activities, facilities for games, interclass, interschool, and inter-house competition should be kept. The principal should introduce journals and magazines on sports and games especially those relevant to the games and sports.

28. Organizational Chart

The principal must have an organizational chart of the school in his office.

29. Disciplinary Committee File

A disciplinary Committee made up of some teaching staff is established to consider cases of students' misbehaviour in the school, the extent to which a student misbehaviour affects the image of the school, decision taken towards corrective measures and prevention of future reoccurrence. The proceedings or minutes of the disciplinary committee are expected to be kept neatly and securely in the file for reference.

30. School Stock/Inventory Book

This is a non-statutory record which is kept in the school in order to record account of the equipment, books and other articles bought for the school. These materials should be sent to the storekeeper who is in charge of the stores to record them in the stock book. They could be consumable stock e.g. chalk, stationery and disinfectants or non-consumable stock e.g. furniture, farm tools, games equipment, audio-visual materials. The stock book helps the principal to know what materials are available in the school, when supplies are running out, and know what to request for.

31. The School Cash and Account Book

The cash book is important because in a particular school year, a lot of money came into the school and is spent for the school assignment administration. The school realizes money from school fees, levies, sales of craft or farm products or even subvention from governments or gifts from individuals or organizations. The cash book should show both income and expenditures of the school. The principal will be able to give a good account of school transactions and prevents him from getting into problems.

32. School Calendar

This is the time table approved by the state showing opening and closing period for the school academic session. Most often it runs from September to July every year. School calendar is divided into three terms. The calendar may vary depending on state policy on school holidays and some other national events.

33. Health Book

This shows a record of first aid materials and drugs, first aid treatments, names of students, class and age, nature of illness, responses to treatment, and further recommendations.

34. Minutes of Staff Meeting Book

This is a record of all the proceeding in a staff meeting, which is normally kept by a Secretary under the supervision of the principal.

Suggestions for Improved Record Keeping

- Principals should give priority to record keeping in their schools. Where there is no fund for such records to be purchased through the Ministry of Education, internally generated funds should be used to purchase them (Ozigi, 1980).
- Principals should hold workshops with their teachers in order to educate them on the importance of record keeping as well as procedure for keeping and utilizing information retrieved from records kept.
- Principals must ensure that complete computer systems and their peripherals are provided. Back-up power supply like the generating plant must be obtained in order to ensure proper functioning of these systems. Antivirus system should be installed in every computer system and update frequently. Files could be moved into movable hard disks in order to protect them.
- Hard copy records that are confidential must be locked in cabinets.
- Computerized records must be protected with passwords for confidentiality.
- Every principal should have a "data board" containing summary of data on staff, students 'enrolment by gender and class.

Conclusion

School records can be used to assess the progress of the school. Parents know the performance and progress of their children through school records e.g. continuous assessment and report records. Records serve as reference materials for teachers, administrators and also for educational planning. The world is in the age of information and any principal who is not computer literate is as good as dead. Every school requires an effective management information system (MIS) to capture, store, retrieve, and use information speedily and appropriately for school effectiveness.

The principal who is not computer compliant should at least use MIS manually with a long term goal of learning towards computer based operation in his school. The world has reached an advanced stage of going global and the secondary school principals must never be left behind.

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THE SPOT INSTRUCTOR ADJUSTMENTS TO STUDENT INTERESTS

Lauren L. Ferry*

Ph.D. Candidate

Department of Political Science, University of California, San Diego

lferry@ucsd.edu

*Corresponding author

Maxie Gluckman

Ph.D. Student

University of California, San Diego

magluckm@ucsd.edu

Jace Hargis

Ph.D., Clinical Professor of Teaching and Director, Center for Teaching

NYU Shanghai

jace.hargis@nyu.edu

ABSTRACT

This study uses a new methodological technique to evaluate how instructors in a quarter long professional development course designed for new instructional assistants (IAs) modified their lesson plans in response to revealed student interests. Ethnographic data collection revealed to researchers that there was significant variation in student interests across course subjects. It also revealed that the instructors leading the professional development program made numerous adjustments to their original plans -- some of these adjustments occurring within the same class period. This paper builds on these insights to demonstrate that instructors respond to both implicit and explicit student cues about what students are interested in and engage with. It further provides a typology of potential instructor reactions. When students reveal their interests, instructors can choose (1) not to modify; (2) to change their examples to those that students will find relevant; (3) to reallocate their agenda for the class; or (4) to incorporate student interests into future lesson plans. This work seeks both to broaden the literature to incorporate new techniques for collecting student information and to encourage future work about how instructors use of this information.

INTRODUCTION

Deeper learning requires students to make connections in the context of a mental framework. Drawing connections to experiences outside of the classroom can be an integral part of incorporating new knowledge into an existing mental structure, thereby facilitating student learning (National Research Council, 2000). In the classroom context, this suggests that instructors must make decisions about when to incorporate individual interests, how to navigate a multitude of different interests, and whether to adapt their lesson plans in light of student interests.

In line with this existing research, observational data collected in the context of a professional development course providing practical skills to new Instructional Assistants (IAs), revealed that there was significant variation in student interests across course topics (Author, 2017). In response, staff instructors leading different sections of the course made numerous modifications to their original lesson plans--modifications that differed greatly depending upon each instructor's teaching style. Critical reflection on student interests led to quick, "on-the-spot," adjustments in the span of the same class session. This insight led to the investigation of the following questions through a pilot study.

1. When do instructors make "on the spot" decisions to modify their lesson plans?
2. What do "on the spot" adjustments look like? What forms can they take?

More specifically, it is difficult to observe and measure how instructors make these types of instantaneous decisions in the classroom environment, perhaps illuminating why this is a novel investigation. It is challenging in two dimensions: (1) observing the cues and data that instructors access when they make internal decisions; and (2) acknowledging when modifications are actually taking place. To overcome this challenge, this study relied on ethnographic data collection, gathered by a series of Graduate Student Researchers (GSRs) in the

“Teaching Center” (TC)¹. GSRs were provided with access to the lesson plan and presentation materials beforehand, allowing them to observe when students “leaned into” a particular topic and how the instructor reacted to their interest.

Thus, at a finer level, this work utilizes a new technique to draw attention to the incorporation of student interests and the simultaneity of instructor decisions. As a reaction to new methods of collecting student data, this project explores how student data can be incorporated. While, prior research has demonstrated the importance of instructor reflection and adjustment between classes and across classes, this project also allows data to be used within a single class period (Bain et al. 2002). The results presented below represent an initial pilot study carried out in two “Teaching as New Instructors” classes for first time Instructional Assistants.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Why incorporating student interests is important

Students incorporate new information into existing mental frameworks (National Research Council 2000). This suggests that drawing connections to experiences outside of the classroom can be an important tool to deepening student understanding. One way to understand which outside experiences will provide relevant connections to draw upon is to determine student interests. Thus, students’ interests, “play an important role in intrinsically motivating behavior in that people naturally approach activities that interest them” (Deci & Ryan 1985).

This study focuses on the concept of individual interests, as differentiated in the literature as the connection between a person and a particular topic (Renninger, 2000). As compared to situational interest, which explores how conditions trigger new interests, individual interests are a long-lasting disposition. As interests are incorporated, knowledge and value structures become more integrated (Hidi & Renninger, 2006). This implies that as students make connections to material that they find personally interesting they are more motivated to assimilate the new understanding and develop deeper comprehension (Schiefele, 1991; Pintrich, 1999). Early work in educational psychology found that external attempts to make a subject interesting only lead to short-lived comprehension. Only internal interest made subjects more likely to identify with the material and improve comprehension (Dewey, 1913). Modern work lends more credence to the importance of interest, demonstrating that interest increases the depth of comprehension and self regulated learning (Schiefele, 1991; Kraap, 2002, 2005; Hidi & Renninger 2006; Boekaerts & Boscolo 2002) and that interests in combination with future goals increases student studying (Mikkonen et al., 2009).

Why student interests are difficult to gauge and measure

Yet, gauging real time student interests on a topic is a difficult task. Most basically, instructors can ask students what their interests are and which topics they want to cover. However, this method relies on students being comfortable enough to speak up. Instructors have also used minute papers, reflective journal writing, and concept mapping as ways of assessing student engagement, interests and learning. Technology based Student Response Systems (SRS), such as clickers, PollEverywhere.com, and Kahoot have been another tool educators have put forward to gather data on students during an individual class session (Hall et al. 2005).

While these methods have all demonstrated success in various contexts, they require the instructor to explicitly ask for feedback from their students. They involve a prompt on the instructor’s behalf. Yet, instructors rely on a mix of tools to gather information about their students - some that are explicit methods, while others are more implicit. Instructors ask for feedback on student interest and engagement, but they also read the room for nonverbal cues. It is a combination of techniques that allow instructors to triangulate interests, engagement and understanding.

Finally, while many studies have attempted to remedy *how* instructors can better collect high-quality and instantaneous student data, less has been done on what instructors do with that information. This paper attempts to address that gap by developing a typology of instructor responses to revealed student interests.

METHOD

As part of a larger study conducted by the “Teaching Center” (Author, 2017), the Center placed ethnographic observers in two “Teaching as New Instructors” classes during the fall of 2017. GSRs conducting the ethnographic study were initially tasked with determining what questions were arising that were relevant to the

¹ We have given our center a pseudonym in an effort to anonymize the institution in which the “Teaching Center” resides for the purposes of review and publication

Center's objectives. The ethnography pilot described in Author 2017, led the Center to investigate the role of on-the-spot instructor adjustments.²

Once GSRs identified this specific research area, they continued collecting ethnographic data with a specific focus to better understand which stimuli cause instructors to make on-the-spot adjustments and how these adjustments impact student engagement and learning. GSRs used the "participant-observation" model of ethnographic research (Spradley, 2016; Wax, 1980; Jorgensen, 1989). Through this method, GSRs attempted to experience class as one of its members and approximate their reactions. During each of sixteen class sessions, one GSR served as a full participant and another served as a full observer. Detailed field notes were collected by hand for the first four sessions, and later digitally transcribed. Given that many of the participants in the Survival Skills Foundation course used laptops themselves, GSRs switched to taking notes on laptop computers after the fourth session. The participants did not seem distracted by the change in note taking technology.

Furthermore, each of the staff instructors leading the course provided their lesson plans and instruction materials to GSR observers in advance of each class session. In these materials, instructors provided information on the topics they expected to cover, the activities they planned to use, and their expected timeline. From these plans, GSR observers were able to identify when deviations occurred. GSRs also paid particular attention to timing during each class, to allow for more accurate comparisons.

Finally, the course provided ample opportunities for both student and instructor reflections to be collected as supplementary materials. At the end of each class session, students completed a quick Post-It Note observation. They were asked to provide responses to the following prompts, which address Knowledge, Skills and Disposition:

1. A one sentence summary of the session
2. One idea that they might use in their own teaching
3. One word that describes how they feel

Students' answers were collected and digitized at the end of each class session by GSRs. Students in the Wednesday section also participated in a Small Group Perception Study (SGPS), administered by the Teaching Center during Week 4. Specifically, The SGPS was administered by GSRs while the instructor was absent from the room. The GSR divided students into groups and asked them four questions.

1. What is contributing to student learning in class? (What is going well?)
2. What might need improvement to enhance student learning?
3. What is one concrete action which the instructor can act upon now that might improve learning?
4. Share one word how this course makes you feel now.

Students were asked to talk about their responses first, then write them down as a group. The GSR collected student responses, anonymized and aggregated them. The results were then shared with the instructor.

In addition, both instructors and the GSRs spent five minutes reflecting on the class in a shared document. There was no specific formula for instructor responses, but they did generally follow a similar theme. Instructors tried to identify how the class session went, why it went that way, and what evidence they used to make those evaluations.

SETTING

This study was conducted within a new course offering from the Teaching Center at a large research intensive university located in the southwestern part of the United States. This was the first time the course, "Survival Skills for Instructional Assistants" had been taught. Two sections of the course, one on Wednesdays and one of Thursdays, met at the Center for one-hour sessions over eight weeks. During class sessions, instructors shared evidence based teaching strategies. Students then had the opportunity to practice each strategy and to reflect on their own experiences in the classroom.

PARTICIPANTS

Each section of the Survival Skills course had three participants. The Wednesday section of the course involved students from Literature, Oceanography and Biology. They will be referred to under the pseudonyms Jasmine,

² Additional projects were also developed out of this initial ethnographic data collection. See Author (2017) on the ethnographic method.

David, and Braylon. Jasmin is a third year Ph.D. student. David is in the final year of his Ph.D. program and Braylon is a first-year Ph.D. student. The Thursday section of the course involved students from Biomedical Sciences, Music, and Cognitive Science. They will be referred to under the pseudonyms Courtney, Raven, and Fernando. Courtney is in her third year of graduate school. She was fulfilling a one-semester teaching requirement for her PhD program funding. She was simultaneously taking another six-week workshop for new IAs that was required by her department. Raven and Fernando are both first year Ph.D. Students. All six students had no prior instructional or assisting the instructor experience and were taking the course on a voluntary basis.

Additionally, both sections of the Survival Skills course were taught by a different instructor. The Wednesday sections were led by a female member of the Center, who held a background in elementary and bilingual instruction. She will be referred to as Instructor Mary. The Thursday sections were led by a male member of the Center, whose background is in instructional design. He will be referred to as Instructor Patrick. Both instructors had prior classroom experience, but as the course was new, neither staff member had previously taught this particular offering. The instructors shared preparatory material, but each modified their own curriculum to suit their professional style.

RESULTS

Research Question 1: When do instructors make “on the spot” decisions to modify their lesson plans?

Initial results indicate that instructors are very responsive to the incorporation of student interests, even when they were unplanned. Moreso, on the spot modifications occur based on both implicit and explicit cues, that teachers can observe without specifically prompting for feedback. For example, implicit cues like facial expression and enthusiasm factor into an instructor’s choice to modify. Ethnographic notes included observations of students taking notes, or leaning forward to read text on a slide, both of which demonstrated interest. Notes also reveal instances where students check their mobile phones, their watches, sighed, or stared out the window. These implicit cues can be interpreted as disinterest.

Additionally, students also provided explicit cues in the form of questions, clarifications, and requests for more information, all without specific prompting by the instructor. For example, during a class discussion on active learning strategies, David asked Instructor Mary for more information on other strategies that they did not have time to practice in class. He mentioned that half of the course material could be about active learning strategies. This type of explicit cue could be interpreted as a sign of interest in a particular topic.

It is important to note that during this study, instructors reflected on their own ability to gauge student interests and engagement. Instructor and GSR reflections after each course section were replete with phrases like “One student spent much time writing and [another student] was on her laptop actively accessing the resources [Instructor Mary] kept referring to”, “...only one time did I see someone look at their phone” and “ everyone volunteered answers without being called on.” The supplementary evidence collected from instructor reflections suggests that instructors are aware of observing both implicit and explicit engagement cues. They are responsive and they do use revealed student interests in their decision making process. With continued data collection in Spring of 2018, the Center plans to develop a qualitative coding scheme of these cues. How instructors use these cues is addressed in the following section.

Research Question 2: What do “on the spot” adjustments look like? What forms can they take?

To understand what adjustments look like, we identified four categories of actions instructors could take to incorporate student interest and developed a typology of potential responses. Instructors could:

- (1) choose not to modify their lessons plans;
- (2) change their examples or application in light of students’ interests;
- (3) change the agenda and give more time and prevalence to topics where students are highly engaged; and
- (4) incorporate student feedback into their lesson plans going forward.

These categories are not mutually exclusive and instructors in our pilot study used a combination of all four types.

No modification

First, instructors could choose not to modify their prepared lesson plans and keep their lesson plans in tact and on-track. This may be an especially relevant option for instructors when students reveal interests that are only tangentially related to the topic at hand. Because the study has conducted in small and personable settings, examples of this type of modification were limited. However, as one GSR noted in their reflection of the first class session, “Instructor Mary was really good at keeping to her time limits that she set, but the activities

seemed to come to abrupt halts, to some students' chagrin." Because the course offering was new, Instructor Mary prioritized covering all the planned material and sticking to the prescribed agenda. This type of strategy relaxed in subsequent sessions, as students became more comfortable expressing their interest preferences and instructors were more willing to make modifications. We expect this type of strategy to be more important in large, diverse classes.

Figure 1. Incorporation of revealed student interests.

Shifting examples and application to fit student interests

Second, instructors can incorporate their knowledge of student interests by reworking their examples in light of what is most engaging from the student's perspective. For example, Instructor Patrick introduced storyboarding as an active learning technique. To demonstrate how this might work, the instructor explained the process in light of Courtney's struggle to move her class from memorization to a higher level of mental synthesis. Instructor Patrick said, "I wonder how that could work, you said that you put a graphical organization to it. Maybe they're the ones who should have done the work. That can be an activity in and of itself." He went on to talk through what the storyboarding process would look like, entirely in the context of Courtney's class.

In another class session, involving the discussion of Appropriate, Relevant and Meaningful (ARM) educational technology, Instructor Patrick used Raven's experience with the Student Response System program "Kahoot" to provide more clarification. Students had expressed confusion over what qualifies as ARM technology and in his answer, Instructor Patrick first explicitly mentioned that Raven had tried "Kahoot" in her sections. He started the explanation by asking Raven "How did it work in your class?" Raven reported a positive response from her students, mentioning that they were particularly engaged. Instructor Patrick then elaborated on Raven's experience to demonstrate how this is a case of ARM technology. He explained that,

"When you press the button, you get the right answer, then it starts counting who gets the answer quickest...that's a piece of ARM tech that you use. If I was to say to you, go ahead, and use this other piece of technology, like paper and pencil, that could have been kind of counterintuitive, it could have distracted from the goal...your 'Kahoot' was absolutely relevant, it helped you achieve your goal in the end of getting students involved."

Shifting current planned agenda to account for student engagement

Third, there was also evidence that instructors changed their planned agenda when they observed that students were "leaning in" to a particular topic. Rather than cutting students off to get to the proscribed material, instructors could allow conversations to occur organically by re-allocating their time. In one class, students seemed particularly interested in sharing their reflections from teaching sections the previous week. Instructor Patrick allowed reflection time, which was allocated for 5-7 minutes, to stretch for 14 minutes given that students were highly engaged with each others' reflections and asking questions and giving suggestions to each other. In response, Instructor Patrick had to make an important adjustment. He allowed conversation to continue and then said, "I'll tell you what we are actually going to do. We were going to grab some Post-It notes and head outside...to do an empathy activity to understand our students...but we will emulate this experience here instead." Instructor Patrick reallocated his time and agenda to areas where students were highly engaged.

In that same class, incorporating student interests into the lesson plan also meant going over the allotted class time. In a later discussion of the fixed/growth mindset both Courtney and Fernando were asking questions, physically leaning in, and taking copious notes as the class watched and discussed a video on Carol Dweck's TED talk (2014). Halfway through the video, the class session ended. Instructor Patrick asked if the students could stay, then carried on the conversation, even moving the class to another room for an additional 15 minutes.

Incorporating student feedback and interests to shift future class meetings

Fourth, the pilot revealed evidence that incorporation of students' interests also carried over to later class sessions. In her own reflections during Week 2 Instructor Mary noted that "[student] reflections were thoughtful and honest and the conversation continued for about 10 minutes and could have gone longer." She provided a similar reflection again in week 3, stating that "unfortunately, that is when the time ran out, luckily this is part 1 of 2 on designing questions and facilitating discussion." In this particular example, Instructor Mary modified the lesson plan going forward after week 3 to allow more time on fewer topics in each subsequent session. As the course progressed, ethnographic notes reveal that Instructor Mary allowed more time for the specific discussion of students' teaching reflections and experiences. The allotted time for student reflections shifted from 5-7 min to 10-15 minutes by the end of the course.

DISCUSSION

To help students make connections to existing mental frameworks, instructors must make decisions about when and how to incorporate individual interests. This project attempts to describe and differentiate the ways in which instructors make these “on the spot” adjustments to their lesson plans. With this goal, we acknowledge that the types of modifications instructors use will vary greatly depending on the instructor’s teaching style. We simply strive to provide suggestions on what incorporating student interests might look like in four categories:

- (1) No modification;
- (2) Changed example;
- (3) Changed Agenda; and
- (4) Future Incorporation.

This research acknowledges that instructors make adjustments all the time and that they are already aware of the adjustments they make. This work does not suggest that instructors should adjust more or less, but is instead an effort to categorize the adjustments that instructors are already making. This research also remains ambivalent to the merits of one technique in comparison to another. In fact, instructors in the study used multiple techniques within the same class period. The categories are not designed to be mutually exclusive or exhaustive, but rather suggestive as a way to think about how to use student information.

Instead, this project’s primary contribution is to meet the rise in studies on student data collection with a new ethnographic method and a new focus on how to use collected information. First, this work points to the role of research ethnography in analyzing future questions on which it has been difficult to gather data on in the past. Ethnography can provide insight into the plethora of information instructors take in during each class period. It is particularly adept at providing observations in the classroom environment that aren’t explicitly prompted by the instructor. Second, this project suggests that instructors are cognizant of their efforts to incorporate student interests, yet respond in different ways. They are incorporating these interests into their classes, both simultaneously and retrospectively. This initial dialogue into how instructors use student information should prompt future work on how instructors can match their student data collection efforts with adjustments in their teaching.

This pilot study was performed in the context of a new program offered by the Teaching Center. Thus, the sample of students in this study were ones who sought out the aid of the Center of their own. The instructors in both sections were also Center employees, well trained in pedagogical professional development. While this may suggest that students may express more interest in the material or that instructors may be more adept at incorporating student interests, it is unlikely to be the case. While students did self-select into the course, they came from significantly different academic and personal backgrounds. They also expressed interest in a diversity of topics, with significant heterogeneity. Both instructors had different teaching styles and there was no suggestion that they operated the class any differently than they would in another venue. Identification and measurement will only get more precise as the study progresses to a larger sample.

Thus, to further this research agenda, the Teaching Center plans to continue the study in the Spring of 2018. As more ethnographic data becomes available, the authors hope to develop a qualitative coding scheme of the cues instructors respond to and the actions they respond with. Furthermore, as this is an instructor focused project, the Center plans to conduct interviews with instructors after each class session, to gain a better understanding of why the instructors chose the adjustments they did. Most importantly, the Center endeavors to move closer to understanding how instructor incorporations of student interests affect student learning outcomes. This will be the explicit focus of the research agenda moving forward.

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UNDERSTANDING LANGUAGE TRANSFER AND ERRORS ANALYSIS TRANSFER OR NOT: I AM THE BIGGEST IN MY FAMILY!

Mr.Naimi AMARA

Department of English, Hassiba Benbouali University of Chlef-Algeria
naimsoul@live.fr & naimsoul@gmail.com

ABSTRACT:

Correcting students' language errors has always received much importance because of its significance for analyzing those errors and trying to provide students and teachers with adequate techniques and strategies to avoid or at least minimize the number of errors committed while practising the foreign languages. This article will focus mainly on different ways in which an interest in language learner has revealed different aspects of the language learning process and suggested different ways of treating errors in our teaching. The objectives of the paper are mainly to understand the origins of an interest in errors that learners made and the related development of the concept of interlanguage, to appreciate the significance of learner error and how it might affect our methodology and to realise some of the causes of errors including positive and negative transfer. Furthermore, the article will explain the concept of systematic variability in learner language in order to become aware of some of the causes and significances of variability.

Keywords :Contrastive Analysis, Error Analysis, Interlanguage, Mother Tongue, Variability

1. Introduction:

Before 1970, Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research was dominated by Contrastive Analysis (CA) research. The purpose of that research was to test the CA Hypothesis' idea that learners' errors could be predicted on the basis of differences between the learners' first language and the target language. Linguists compared languages to see what the differences were and then used those data to predict the transfer errors learners would make. It was hoped that the data from linguists could eventually be used to help design special drills and exercises that would help learners learn accurate use of second languages but not make any errors while doing so. The prevailing view of errors at that time was that errors were bad habits that must be broken and not reinforced. They were viewed as harmful. Experts felt that errors had to be avoided, even in the course of learning, and for decades SLA researchers worked toward this goal.

By 1970, it was clear that CA could not predict the errors learners would make, therefore, researchers concluded that there must be some other processes involved in second language learning besides interference. As researchers discovered many errors that were clearly not due to interference, it became safe to assume that there must be other sources of errors besides the first language. Researchers then, shifted their focus from predicting errors based on contrasting language, to classifying the various kinds of errors they saw learners making. It was hoped that by studying the various types of errors that learners made at various stages of learning, that researchers could get a clearer view of the second language learning process. Thus, Error Analysis (EA), the study of learner language for the purpose of classifying errors and identifying their sources, emerged as the dominant SLA research.

While Contrastive Analysis was based only on the assumption that errors were all due to first language interference and were somehow harmful to the learner's development, Error Analysis was based on the assumption that errors were a natural and healthy part of the language learning process- a natural "by-product" of the learners step by step discovery of the second language's rules through a process of trial and error. This process was called "Creative Construction".

Error Analysis (EA) should be explained in relationship with interlanguage because it is difficult to understand the construct of interlanguage without the background of Error Analysis. The definition of Error Analysis involves a set of procedure for identifying, describing, and explaining errors in learner language.(Ellis,R,1994). Error Analysis (EA) is the study and analysis of the errors made by second language learners. Error analysis may be carried out in order to (a.) identify strategies which learners use in language learning (b.) try to identify causes of learner errors (c.) obtain information on common difficulties in language learning, as an aid to teaching or in the preparation of teaching materials.(Richards,Jack C et al.1992).

2. The difference between Error Analysis and Contrastive Analysis :

EA became distinguished from CA by its examination of error attributable to all possible sources not just those which result from negative transfer of the native language.(Broun,Douglas B.1994. p.206).In the 1970s, Error Analysis supplanted Contrastive Analysis, which sought to predict the error that learners make by identifying the linguistic difference between their L1 and the target language. The underlying assumption of CA was that error

occurred primarily as a result of interference when the learner transferred native language 'habits' into the L2. Interference was believed to take place whenever the 'habits' of the native languages differed from those of the target language. CA gave way to EA as this assumption came to be challenged, whereas CA looked at only the learner's native language. EA provided a methodology for investigating learner language. (Ellis, R., 1994.)

Learning a second language ... constitutes a very different task from learning the first language. The basic problems arise not out of any essential difficulty in the features of the new language themselves but primarily out of the special "set" created by the first language habits. (Fries in Lado 1957)

Contrastive Analysis approaches to second language acquisition, based on a behaviourist approach to learning and a structural approach to language, could not satisfactorily explain how learners acquired a second language. Looking at learner language, or interlanguage, illuminated various aspects of the process of second language acquisition - for example, the role of the first language, the nature of learner errors, how learners acquire the grammar of a language. A systematic study of learner language in all its forms underpins much of the theory in second language research. Errors can also be discussed according to different perspectives - Contrastive Analysis, Transfer, and Variability. The last, variability in interlanguage, is a newer area of interest and arguably of great interest to teachers because it deals with issues of why learners sometimes 'get it right' and sometimes 'get it wrong'.

The term "interlanguage" was first introduced by the American linguist Larry Selinker. The latter assumed that the systematic development of learner language reflects a mental system of Second Language (L2) knowledge. Through interlanguage, we try to explain L2 acquisition by answering questions such as "what is the nature of the linguistic representation of the L2 that learners form?" and "how do these representations change over time?" ».

Important to the understanding of the concept of "interlanguage" is behaviourist learning theory and mentalist views of language learning.

Behaviourist learning theory (1950's-1960's) accounts only for the observed behaviour, i.e. it controls the input to the learner and the learner's own 'output' and ignores what goes on between the two. It focused on "nurture".

The mentalist theory of learning: The main tenets or principles of the mentalist theory, famous in the 1960's and 1970's, are:

1. Language learning is a uniquely human faculty; only human beings are capable of learning a language (not animals)
2. The human mind has the Language Acquisition Device (LAD) separate from other mental faculties responsible for other kinds of cognitive activity as logical reasoning.
3. This faculty is the primary determinant of language acquisition.
4. Input is needed, but only to "trigger" the operation of the LAD, it is the language speech that a child hears around (input).

The concept of "interlanguage" draws directly on these mentalist views of language acquisition.

3. What is an error?

In the field of methodology, there are two schools of thought as far as learner's errors are concerned. The first school believes that even if we achieve a perfect teaching, errors still will be committed because there would always be inadequacies of our teaching techniques. The second school; however, says that since we are living in an imperfect world, errors will always occur. As such then we must find techniques for dealing with errors after they have occurred.

A noticeable deviation from the adult grammar of a native speaker, reflecting the interlanguage competence of the learner (Douglas Brown 1987). A belief that the first language could hinder second language learning was reflected in the popularity of contrastive analysis. The more we know about the differences and similarities between languages, the better we would understand the causes of our learners' errors.

We assume that the student who comes in contact with a foreign language will find some features of it quite easy and others extremely difficult. Those elements are similar to his native language will be simple for him and those elements that are different will be difficult. The teacher who has made a comparison of the foreign language with the native language of the students will know better what the real learning problems are and can better provide for teaching them. (Lado 1957:2).

3.1.Errors Typology: There are a lot of classifications of “error” listed in the literature, here are some of the most referred ones:

a)Systematic vs non-systematic errors

According to S.Pit Corder (1981) there are two major kinds of errors :

Systmatic errors : Also known as error of competence. This kind of error seems to occur because of some ignorance of grammar rules. It is a systematic deviation made by learners who have not yet mastered the rules of the Second Language (L2). A learner cannot self-correct an error because it is reflective product of their current stage of L2 development. E.g : He can learns.

Non-systematic errors (mistakes): These are errors of performance, they are due to some psychological conditions as stress. anxiety. tiredness. slips of the tongue...etc. The learner can readily self-correct the mistakes. In error analysis there are three varieties of language a Source Language (L_S),a target language (L_T) and an Approximative Language (L_A). A language usually involves the different steps we go through when learning a language. What has been proved to be important is that this (L_A) takes grammar from (L_T) and lexis from (L_S).

b) Another classification of errors :

1. **Transfer errors :** These are due to the learner’s transfer of items from mother tongue. Negative transfer is the typical kind of errors.
E.g1 : I have twenty years (In Arabic: انا عندي عشرين سنة), instead of saying I am twenty years; an instance of a negative transfer from Arabic (In French: J’ai 20 ans)
E.g2: She gave me very interesting informations (In Arabic: اعطتني معلومات جد مهمة - In French: Elle ma donnait des informations très important)
2. **Analogical errors :** These errors occur when we over-generalise in the application of rules. They have no connection with the nature of the mother tongue. They are inherent in the learning process (interlingual errors).E.g. He liked. He *goed* instead of he *went*.
3. **Induced errors :** These errors seem to be due to the methods and materials used in the teaching process. E.g. *as if =like*. She cries *as if* the baby cries instead of she cries *like* a baby.

c) Errors of competence versus errors of performance

Ellis (1994) and other writers distinguish between errors of competence and performance

- **Competence errors** may be :

Interlingual : coming from the differences between L1 and L2

Intralingual : Coming from within the language itself (developmental).

-**Performance errors** can arise: a. when learners have processing problems.

b. when learners use communication strategies because they lack sufficient knowledge of the language.

-Fossilisation

This refers to the relatively permanent incorporation into a learner's second language competence of incorrect linguistic forms (Selinker 1992).

Why does it happen?

- the learner does not have enough time to learn the target language
- the learner is under pressure to communicate
- there is a lack of desire to acculturate
- fossilisation is more common with older learners
- it depends on the kind of feedback the learner receives.

3.2.The importance of learner’s errors: Errors are not negative things , they can be a strategy when learning second language. A learner’s error is significant in three different ways. First to the teacher, in that they tell him, if he undertakes a systematic analysis, how far towards the goal the learner has progressed and consequently, what remains for him to learn .Second, they provide to the researcher evidence of how language is learned or acquired and what strategies or procedures the learner is employing in the discovery of the language. Thirdly, they are indispensable to the learner himself, because we can regard the making of errors as a device the learner uses in order to learn (Corder,1967).

3.3. The five stages of Error Analysis: Corder (1974) suggested 05 steps of error analysis

1. identification, 2. description, 3. explanation, 4. evaluation, 5. (prevention) all have problems associated with them.

Stages of error analysis :

- ✓ **1. Collection of a sample of learner language:** The first step involves collecting several samples of language use from a large number of learners in order to compile a comprehensive list of errors which represent the entire population
- ✓ **2. Identification of errors :** it depends on the analyst correct interpretation of the learner's intended meaning in the context. In other words , a learner may produce an utterance which is well formed but when taken in its context it is not acceptable at all.
- ✓ **3. Description of errors :** it is essentially a comparative process when the data being the erroneous sentence and the reconstructed sentence. It is argued that not a single instance of an error is to establish that this is a real one. In other words, when an error is occurring regularly It is a true error, while when it is committed only once it is mistake. It must be pointed out that it is on the basis of systematic errors that we construct syllabuses and remedial programs.
- ✓ **4. Explanation of errors :** the description of errors is a linguistic activity while the explanation of errors belongs to the field of psycholinguistic. It accounts for why and how errors come about.
- ✓ **5. Evaluation of errors:** The emphasis should be based on three basic categories: comprehensibility, seriousness and naturalness of the grammar and the lexis. Teachers who correct learners' errors have to keep in mind that there are two kinds of errors: global and local. Global error is the error which affects overall sentence organization (Her dog dangerous big), and local error is the error which affects single elements in a sentence (She has a interesting idea). A growing area of interest is in how we evaluate errors. Error Gravity studies explore the question of whether we evaluate errors on linguistic grounds, or whether we evaluate them on the content of the message.
- ✓ **Prevention** is not always included. These problems are comprehensively reviewed in the literature - and most teachers do not have time to carry out systematic and detailed error analyses. However, error correction does depend on some kind of error analysis if it is not to become a blind and haphazard process.

3.4. Feedback or correction

Correction has a certain negative connotation - many authors are suggesting alternative terms e.g. response, feedback etc. Some authors talk about incidental and systematic error correction. The former refers to correction of errors as they occur but no attention is paid to the underlying source or reason; the latter refers to a correction that tries to get the learner to generalise to other areas. Hammerly (1991) also uses this distinction in talking about 'surface' and 'deep' correction. Consider if the focus is on fluency or accuracy:

- Does drawing attention to errors have any effect?
- Equally others consider that error correction (not necessarily by the teacher) can help develop explicit knowledge - or it can cause the learner to notice features of the input which Ellis claims is vital: 'no noticing, no acquisition' (Ellis, 1995a)
- If error correction is effective, when should it be done?
- How should you respond to errors?

Some further points to remember:

- a. there is a distinction between pointing out an error and correcting it. We know that processing is more effective the more effortful it is.
- b. If you correct a student and (s) he repeats the correction, (s) he does not necessarily understand the correction.
- c. Giving rules is fraught!! Think why
- d. If students keep making the same errors, stop and reflect. Perhaps they are not yet ready for that language.
- e. Not all errors are equally important. How are you to decide?

4.1. What is interlanguage?: Interlanguage is to be understood as follows :

The L2 learner constructs a linguistic system that draws, in fact, on the learner's First Language (L1) but is also different from it and also from the Target Language (TL). Hence, a learner's interlanguage is a unique linguistic system and it involves the following premises about L2 acquisition :

- a. The learner constructs a system of abstract linguistic rules which underlies comprehension and production of the L2. This interlanguage a "mental grammar" (First the understanding of the input then the production of the output)
- b. The learner's grammar is open to influence from the outside (the input) and from the inside (errors of overgeneralization, transfer, omission....). It is the learner who generates some aspects, for example, the negative transfer.
- c. The learner's grammar is transitional; he changes, adds and deletes rules, and restructures the whole system. This results in an "interlanguage continuum" (from simple to complex). This mental grammar will gradually change and become more and more complex. (paint, paints, painted, painting, ...).
- d. Learners employ various learning strategies to develop their interlanguages. Different errors reflect different learning strategies. E.g: omission is a simplification strategy of the rules which are not yet mastered. Overgeneralization and transfer errors are evidence of strategy use.
- e. The learner's grammar is likely to fossilize. Backsliding prevails. (i.e the production of errors representing an early stage of development). Fossilization is unique to L2 grammar, it does not occur in L1 acquisition.

Input → intake → L2 knowledge → output

A computational model of L2 acquisition

4.2. Principles of interlanguage: Interlanguage or learners' language is often referred to as the "interlanguage continuum" because the learner moves from zero knowledge of the TL along a 'road' to greater proficiency and mastery of the TL. Either "**recreation**" or "**restructuring**", a compromise position is to think of the process as involving both - perhaps for phonology and lexis a "restructuring" takes place and for syntax "recreation". Dulay and Burt (1973): **creative construction theory**. If you consider that what happens is "restructuring" then you would expect learners to learn a language in different ways depending on their mother tongue - certainly the influence of the mother tongue would be very evident as learners tried to fit the 'new' with the 'old'. If, however, you take a "recreation" stance, then all learners start from zero base and we would expect them to more or less follow the same path, making the same errors, etc. Some would claim that indeed this happens with syntax.

Ellis (1992) summarises three major features of interlanguage:

- 1 It is permeable
- 2 It is systematic yet variable
- 3 It is dynamic

In addition we can say learners pass through a number of stages in acquiring the Target Language. Each stage can be considered a Transitional Competence. Interlanguage systems can fossilise

4.3. Influence of the mother tongue/other languages – transfer or cross linguistic influence

Early research into the influence of the mother tongue was part of *Contrastive analysis* which was the systematic comparison of specific linguistic characteristics of two or more languages – among its aims :

- predicting and explaining the problems L2 learners have i.e. predictive AND diagnostic
- helping teachers develop appropriate course materials which take into account the learners' mother tongue e.g. The Crescent Course for the Arab World which paid particular attention in the early stages to the Roman Alphabet.

Theoretical basis partly depended on behaviourism – once this became discredited then knock-on effect on tenets of contrastive analysis. Also looking at learner language revealed many errors were not due to the influence of first/other languages . e.g. from Dulay and Burt (1974)

'...universal cognitive mechanisms are the basis for the child's organisation of a target language and that it is the target language rather than the L1 (native) language that guides the acquisition process.'

Now resurgence of interest in influence of mother tongue:

- the role of universal developmental sequences does not rule out a role for transfer
- transfer does not HAVE to be linked to behaviourism
- emphasis in CA was on morphology and syntax. What about pronunciation, lexis and discourse?

4.4. Positive and Negative Transfer

Odlin (1989) gave this definition: Transfer is the influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously (and perhaps imperfectly) acquired.

Positive transfer – where the first/other language helps you in some way with the target language. The similarities, for example, in lexis may enable you to more easily acquire the lexis of the target language.

Negative transfer (previously referred to as interference) – where the first/other language causes you to make an error.

This may be through:

- underproduction or avoidance
- overuse of a structure/lexis etc.
- errors in speech and writing – called production errors e.g. literal translation; or using a particular politeness strategy
- misinterpretations – where the mother tongue guides how you interpret the target language

This is the classification used by Odlin but it is not entirely a satisfactory description. Perhaps easier to concentrate on the linguistic areas in which transfer, both negative and positive occurs.

Effects of transfer – areas in which it happens

- 1 Discourse
- 2 Syntax e.g. relative clauses
- 3 Phonology – a very strong negative transfer usually
- 4 Lexis

Transfer can be a very useful strategy to overcome problems in communication – you can make up for gaps in your knowledge by borrowing from your mother tongue and hoping... You can use discourse patterns that exist in your own language to for example try to persuade somebody .

4.5. Variation in Interlinguage

Tarone is the most notable writer in this area. Ellis and Gass and Selinker give comprehensive and good overviews.

- 5.1 Diachronic (or vertical) variation
- 5.2 Synchronic (or horizontal) variation

Most distinguish between *synchronic* variation and *diachronic* variation. The former refers to variation at any one point in time whilst the latter refers to variation over time - hence developmental.

Ellis distinguishes between inter - and intra- learner variation.

The quote below is from Tarone (1988) who has written extensively on the subject of variability:

Systematic interlanguage variation occurs when a learner produces different variants of a particular IL form either in varying linguistic environments, or under different social conditions with different interlocutors or in different physical locations.

One important feature of interlanguage is that the learners' internal representation of a language changes as they progress. In other words – it varies. The variation that we are concerned with is systematic – that is, we can see a pattern to the variation.

Sometimes this variation is over time – *diachronic* variation (from the Greek 'through time'). But sometimes learners vary in their language use at any ONE time – called *synchronic* variation (from the Greek meaning 'in the same time-period'). This can make it difficult to decide whether learners have/have not acquired a particular structure. For example, they may 'get it right' when they are writing an essay, but then they may 'get it wrong' when they talk to you about what they have written. Synchronic variation is of great importance to teachers because it explains why learners make errors in some instances and not in others.

4.5.1. An example of variability in interlanguage use: Based on: Tarone (1985)

This was a full scale study of variation in learners' grammatical accuracy at the level of syntax and morphology. Twenty second-language learners (adults) at the University of Minnesota took part – 10 native speakers of Japanese and 10 native speakers of Arabic. The research looked at the production of four target language forms:

1. third person singular present tense –s;
2. the articles a/an and the;
3. the noun plural –s;
4. and third person singular direct object pronouns.

This task only considers the results for the articles (2).

The learners were asked to:

- i. Undertake a written 'grammaticality' judgement task. This had a number of English sentences with missing articles. Subjects marked any sentence which they thought was grammatically incorrect and then they had to rewrite the erroneous part.

Participate in an oral interview with a native speaker of English. This dealt with the subject's field of study, plans for the future etc.

iii. Undertake an oral narration task. The subjects looked at a series of events shown on a video screen with no sound. Then they told the story of the video clips to a non native listener who had to select a sequence of pictures to match the story. If they told it correctly, the listener was able to select the correct sequence of pictures. The Japanese and Arabic speakers were paired and took turns to do the task.

Tarone points out that the tasks can be ordered not only in terms of decreasing amount of attention to grammatical form; but also according to:

- a) the connectness of the discourse
- b) the communicative pressure placed upon the speaker to transmit information clearly.

Tarone did find that learners achieved most grammatical accuracy with some forms – e.g. the third person singular –s ending, when they carried out tasks which seemed to require more attention to form but as you have seen this did not occur with articles.

You will find Tarone's explanation below – how similar is it to your answer?

Tarone's (1985) conclusions

What we are arguing here is that these learners used articles and direct object pronouns most accurately in the narrative because they realised (possibly unconsciously) that these features have an important function in maintaining a clear story line. It may be that articles and direct object pronouns were supplied least often in the grammar test because cohesive ties are not required within a set of unconnected sentences; as the oral tasks required increasingly cohesive texts to be produced by the subjects and applied increasing communicative pressure, the subjects increasingly supplied these two forms in obligatory contexts.

and

If indeed this explanation can account for the differential pattern of variable grammatical accuracy found between third person markers on the one hand and the direct object pronoun on the other hand, we must then conclude that the variable production of these learners was governed not by attention paid equally to all language forms, but to some degree by the nature of the discourse which the tasks required, and the sort of grammatical forms required by the discourse. As tasks elicit discourse which is increasingly cohesive and/or they apply increasing communicative pressure upon the speaker, some grammatical forms may improve in accuracy rate while others may decrease in accuracy.

4.6. The limitation of Error Analysis: By focusing only on errors, researchers were denied access to the whole picture of SLA. They studied what went wrong with learners but not what made them successful. Moreover, it was often impossible or very difficult in best situations to identify the unitary source of an error. Other critiques of EA is : a. An oversteering of production data b. Fail to account for the strategy of avoidance c. too closely focused on specific language rather than viewing universal aspects of language.

5. Conclusion:

This article tried to shed light on some concepts in the field of SLA and FLA such as errors analysis, contrastive analysis, interlanguage and variability. It has been clearly explained that errors are not seen only as the unfortunate result of 'interference' as the Audio-linguists thought but seen as inevitable and necessary part of language development, that teachers could use as well as 'deal with.' Learners were now thought to use L1 knowledge as a positive learning strategy until the features that they used were sufficiently 'disconfirmed' by feedback or by 'noticing.' Some authors talk about incidental and systematic error correction. The former refers to correction of errors as they occur but no attention is paid to the underlying source or reason; the latter refers to a correction that tries to get the learner to generalise to other areas. Error Gravity studies explore the question of whether we evaluate errors on linguistic grounds, or whether we evaluate them for their effect on successfully communicating the content of the message.

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