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Message from the Editor-in-Chief

Hello from TOJQIH

TOJQIH welcomes you.

We are very pleased to publish volume 2 issue 3 in 2015. As an editor-in-chief of The Online Journal of Quality in Higher Education (TOJQIH), this issue is the success of the reviewers, editorial board and the researchers. In this respect, I would like to thank to all reviewers, researchers and the editorial road.

This issue covers different research scopes, approaches which subjects about quality in higher education by valuable researchers. I and The Online Journal of Quality in Higher Education (TOJQIH) editorial team will be pleased to share various researches with this issue as it is the miracle of our journal. All authors can submit their manuscripts to tojqih@gmail.com for the next issues.

TOJQIH will organize ICQH-2015 International Conference on Quality in Higher Education (ICQH) (www.icqh.net) in December, 2015 in Turkey. This conference is now a well-known quality in higher 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 quality in higher education. ICQH-2014 conference book has been published at <http://www.icqh.net/publications.php>

Call for Papers

TOJQIH invites you article contributions. Submitted articles should be about all aspects of quality in higher education. The articles should be original, unpublished, and not in consideration for publication elsewhere at the time of submission to TOJQIH. Manuscripts must be submitted in English.

TOJQIH is guided by its editors, guest editors and advisory boards. If you are interested in contributing to TOJQIH as an author, guest editor or reviewer, please send your cv to tojqih@gmail.com.

July 01, 2015

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A COMPREHENSIVE QA FRAMEWORK

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Abstract: Higher Education Commission (HEC) Pakistan was established to help national universities provide internationally competitive and compatible education. One of its core strategic aims is achieving excellence (Quality) in higher education. HEC's Quality Assurance (QA) Framework includes Internal Quality Assurance (IQA) and External Quality Assurance (EQA). IQA measures entail self-assessment of academic programs and university's internal quality audit whereas EQA practices include accreditation of programs by accreditation councils and universities' performance evaluation through HEC's Quality Assurance Agency (QAA). Author of this paper has first-hand experience of working for all four aspects of Framework. The paper gives an account of these aspects as being practiced in Pakistan for providing education that fulfills the expectations of stakeholders by meeting the threshold minimum requirements. The paper also describes various benefits accrued from the Framework exercises which are helping the universities to enhance quality of education as per national requirements and international standards.

A COMPREHENSIVE QA FRAMEWORK

Introduction

HEC has developed Quality Assurance Framework to assure quality of education in the Pakistani universities which is compatible with international standards. The framework caters to the External Quality Assurance and Internal Quality Assurance measures and practices.

EQA practices have been developed and implemented through Quality Assurance Agency (QAA) of Pakistan at the institutional level and through accreditation councils at program level. QAA Pakistan was established by HEC in 2005 as a policy making and monitoring body for maintenance and enhancement of quality in higher education. Quality Assurance policies are prepared by QAA under the guidance of National QA Committee (NQAC) for the purpose to enhance the quality of teaching, learning and research in higher education institutions. NQAC comprises of eminent educationists, heads of higher education institutions and quality professionals as its members. QAA engages in systematic implementation of quality enhancement procedures /criteria to attain improved levels of international compatibility and competitiveness at institutional level. It also facilitates the capacity building of the accreditation councils and oversees accreditation of programs by these councils [1].

Self-Assessment of programs and University's Internal Quality Audit are the two aspects of IQA which are implemented through Quality Enhancement Cells (QECs). The QECs are the field units established at different universities for implementing the quality assurance policies and programs with uniform pace and standards. In 2006-07, Batch-1 QECs were established at ten public sector universities. More QECs have been set-up in different phases and their number has grown to 130 (87 in public and 43 in private sector universities) [2].

External Quality Assurance

An account of both the aspects of external quality assurance that is the Institutional Performance Evaluation of higher education institutions (HEIs) and the accreditation of programs is given below:

Institutional performance evaluation of universities: HEC has initiated the process to review individual Pakistani universities for evaluation of the quality of teaching, learning, research and other relevant activities conducted by the universities. On-site visits for the purpose of Institutional Performance Evaluation (IPE) are undertaken by the review panels constituted by QAA. HEC's recognition of an institution is awarded only as a result of successful review and evaluation. For the purpose of conducting these visits, HEC has developed following *Performance Evaluation Standards for the HEIs* [3]:

- Mission and Goals
- Organization and Governance
- Planning and Evaluation
- Integrity
- Faculty
- Students
- Academic Programs and Curricula
- Public Disclosure and Transparency
- Institutional Resources
- Student Support Services, and
- Assessment and Quality Assurance

These standards outline major areas to be focused on by HEIs for evaluation of their effectiveness and future development.

The IPE Process

The Institutional Performance Evaluation is carried out through the on-site visit to the universities/Higher Education Institutions (HEIs). An overview of the activities before, during and after the on-site visit is given below^[4]:

Pre – visit activities: QAA nominates the members of the panel from the pool of experts who are generally senior university teachers, administrative officials and quality experts. Before the visit, university to be evaluated is asked to provide the University Portfolio Report (UPR) for the study of the panel before the visits. UPR is a kind of self-assessment report which includes the information and data related to the standards against which the university is required to be evaluated.

The university is also asked to make available some documents to be reviewed by the panel during the visit as evidence to verify the information provided in the UPR. The documents are placed in the room allocated for the use of the Review Panel.

Before proceeding on the visit, the panel holds coordination meeting and chalks out the plan for the duration of the visit. Panel leader is appointed and the members are allocated specific chapters (standards) of UPR to study with the purpose of identifying potential commendations, recommendations and affirmations. Besides, they are required to prepare the questions on the basis of the total contents of UPR and particularly the chapters allocated to them and also identify the university officials supposed to answer these questions. The executive officer from QAA consolidates the questions prepared by the members.

The panels: The evaluation panels are constituted from the pool of local experts. Sometimes foreign experts are also associated with the panels. Some of the panel members already carry the experience of conducting the external reviews / evaluation at the national and international levels. The others are provided training with the help of local and foreign facilitators. Moreover, a batch of fourteen academics and the quality professionals have also been sent to UK for training from QAA, UK. An official of QAA assists each visiting panel as Executive Officer who coordinates with the panel members and the university volunteering to be reviewed. The Executive Officer also accompanies the panel during the review visit.

On-site visit: During visits, the panel meets the university Vice-Chancellor/Rector at the beginning and then reviews the documents which university places in the Panel Room as per the requirement of Panel. The policies and processes, human and physical resources, programs and curricula are evaluated against the requirements of standards. If required, the panel may ask some additional information/documents to satisfy their queries. Then the panel conducts interviews of Deans, Heads of Departments, senior and junior faculty members, undergraduate and graduate students of different semesters / disciplines and administrative / technical staff for the purpose of getting confirmations, clarifications and additional information. The panel also visits classrooms to observe the teaching process besides visiting libraries and laboratories to observe their state and functioning. The panel also interacts with the relevant staff. After these activities, the panel conducts a private meeting to decide upon observations to be shared with the head of the institution during the exit meeting. Finally, the panel conducts the exit meeting with the VC/Rector to brief about the salient observations made during the visit.

Post visit activities: The panel members send the reports regarding the chapters allocated to them before the visit to Executive Officer for consolidation. These reports mainly include the commendations for the

strengths of the universities and recommendations / affirmations to make up the deficiencies with necessary rationale. The Executive Officer consolidates the visit report and ensures that there are no deficiencies or the duplications. The consolidated report is shared with the panel members for getting their comments for any further improvement. The final report, after the approval of the competent authority at HEC, is sent to the University for taking actions to make up the deficiencies in the light of affirmations/recommendations included in the report. The university is also asked to provide periodic progress reports to HEC about taking the remedial measures till the completion of the actions.

The impact of IPE: Till date, thirty universities have been evaluated by the Panels of Experts. The author has been member of ten panels which conducted the institutional performance evaluation of different Pakistani universities. Heads of these universities generally felt indebted to the review panels for conducting the evaluation of their universities with positive approach and highlighting the areas for improvement. VCs/Rectors acknowledged the usefulness of this exercise. Some of them expressed during the exit meetings that although they were in knowledge of some of the areas (not all) requiring improvement but their identification by the panel has confirmed their point of view. This will provide them impetus to take the remedial measures with confidence. They intended to get benefit from the result of this exercise to make up their deficiencies by getting support from the HEC and their respective federal/provincial ministries to which they are associated with. EQA activity is certainly going to help these universities in enhancing the quality of education and research through improvement in the governance and management, different processes and procedures, human as well as physical resources, infrastructure, support system and quality assessment. The EQA exercise carried out in these universities, with a view point to bring in positive improvement and not for finding faults, has not only influenced them positively but has also encouraged the other universities to present themselves for the evaluation. Process of institutional performance evaluation is taking roots in Pakistan and is expected to make a discernable difference in the realm of quality assurance in higher education.

Accreditation of Programs

Program level EQA is achieved through the mandatory accreditation of the individual programs by their respective accreditation councils as per their Manuals. Currently, following thirteen such councils exist^[5]:

Accreditation councils existed before HEC:

- Pakistan Bar Council (PBC)
- Pakistan Council for Architects and Town Planners (PCATP)
- Pakistan Engineering Council (PEC)
- Pakistan Medical & Dental Council (PMDC)
- Pakistan Nursing Council (PNC)
- Pakistan Pharmacy Council (PCP)
- Pakistan Veterinary Medical Council (PVMC)
- National Council for Homoeopathy (NCH)
- National Council for Tibb (NCT)

Accreditation councils established by HEC:

- National Accreditation Council for Teachers Education (NACTE)
- National Agricultural Education Accreditation Council (NAEAC)
- National Computing Education Accreditation Council (NCEAC)
- National Business Education Accreditation Council (NBEAC)

HEC is planning to establish more such councils to accredit programs related to natural, social, biosciences, and humanities etc.

Accreditation process: The processes adopted for accreditation of programs by different accreditation councils are generally similar. Before initiating a new program, the institution / department has to apply for getting clearance/green-signal from the respective accreditation council by supplying the information specified by the Council. The on-site 'Zero Visit' to the proposed program is conducted by the Team of Experts constituted by the Council. If the level of preparedness for initiating the program is satisfactory and the institution/department has a plausible plan to develop the infrastructure/facilities as the program progresses through different semesters, the Team recommends granting the permission to start the program. Final decision is made by the accrediting committee.

After getting the clearance through Zero Visit, the program is required to apply for the Interim Visit as per the deadline set by the Council in the Zero Visit report. The program provides all the information as per the Council's questionnaire, along with the progress made on the zero visit observations, for critical analysis. The Interim visit report comments on the conformance of the requirements included in the zero visit report for adequate conduct of the program and identify any additional steps to be taken by the program before the accreditation visit.

For inviting the accreditation visit, the program forwards application to the Council along with self-assessment report. The visiting team prepares its report on findings/observations, which is sent to the program for its rejoinder. The report and the rejoinder received from the program are placed before the accreditation committee for the decision. The committee may decide for (i) no accreditation due to non-conformance to one or more criteria or serious deficiencies, (ii) pend the decision for removal of deficiencies, or (iii) award accreditation for a specified number of years. In case of pended decision, a confirmatory visit may be necessitated to confirm the removal of deficiencies indicated. The program accredited for a defined number of years has to apply to the respective council for its re-accreditation before the completion accreditation period.

During different visits related to the accreditation process, focus remains on the matters related to students, faculty, curriculum, processes, infrastructure/facilities and institutional support. All these visits by the accreditation councils are conducted on the same pattern as the Institutional Performance Review visits, as detailed above.

The programs in the country which are not covered by any accreditation council have to take permission for their initiation from the HEC. The permission to start a program is refused, deferred or granted on the basis of level of preparedness.

Internal Quality Assurance

Both the processes of Internal Quality Assurance, namely; self-assessment of programs and the university's internal quality audit are described below:

Self-assessment of programs: QAA has made the *self-assessment (SA) of academic programs* mandatory as per the criteria, detailed in the HEC's Self-assessment Manual [6], which include; (1) Program mission, objectives and outcomes, (2) Curriculum design and organization, (3) Laboratories and computing facilities, (4) Student support and guidance, (5) Process control, (6) Faculty, (7) Institutional facilities, (8) Institutional support. University's QEC initiates the SA process through the office of Rector/Vice-Chancellor followed by the formation of Program Teams (PTs) by the programs. PT comprises of the competent faculty members who are expected to do justice with the task of report writing. Completion of the SAR requires collection of feedback from students, faculty, head of department (HoD), alumni and graduates' employers through prescribed feedback/survey forms. The feedback so received is required to be summarized to draw various conclusions which make part of the report. The department is required to facilitate the team for timely completion of the report by providing requisite resources; both human as well as material. PT prepares the SA Report (SAR) on the program for the review of QEC. If SAR is found complete and satisfactory, the QEC forms an Assessment Team (AT) of professionals, preferably from outside the university, which visits the program under evaluation to verify the data / information included in the SAR and carries out Rubric Evaluation of the Report. AT examines the program's facilities, interviews the faculty, administrative / technical staff and students and compiles its findings. The findings include strengths and weaknesses of the program. Based on the findings regarding the weaknesses of the program, respective HoD prepares an Assessment Results Implementation Plan Summary suggesting the measures to remove the deficiencies identified by AT. The QEC writes an executive summary of SAR and submits it along with the Implementation Plan for the perusal/approval of Rector/V C. Program is required to take action on approved implementation plan, while QEC follows up to ensure the completion of the required actions.

Challenges for SA process: Some of the challenges faced in preparing the SARs and getting the feedback/survey forms filled by different stakeholders are listed below^[7]:

- Lack of administrative / financial support to QECs by the institutions.
- General resistivity/re reluctance of department faculty members to engage in the SA process on the basis of extra burden of additional work; collection/analysis of data, preparation of SAR
- Half-hearted or no cooperation of faculty in supporting the PT/AT in self-assessment process, provision of requisite information due to fear of exposing the weak areas of own department / program
- Limitations of program / assessment teams to undertake due to time constraint, lack of incentives, and possible lack of resources (human as well as financial)

- Lack of alumni and employers' feedback culture in the universities and the society.
- Lack of faculty/students' interest in providing realistic feedback.
- Hurdles by teachers' associations / student unions in some universities.

Remedy: In order to counter the above mention challenges, the university administration is required to show a strong resolve and commitment to implement the quality assurance policies and programs across all the university activities. A clear and firm message from Rector/VC to the Deans and Heads of the Departments (HoDs) emphasizing introduction of the quality regime can pave the desired way. Deans/HoDs need to motivate their faculty members to undertake the SA process with the spirit of bringing improvement in the functioning of university. The administration needs to provide the required support to QEC for carrying out its responsibilities, effectively. Moreover, all necessary resources should be provided to the PT and AT for completing the SA process. Both the teams should show the commitment in preparing the realist self-assessment reports. Faculty and students should be motivated to provide realistic feedback and cooperate with PT and AT for further improving the processes at the university. A close liaison with the alumni and strong linkage with the industry/corporate sector needs to be maintained for getting their feedback about the university programs. All the stakeholders should be informed of the actions taken on the basis of their feedback. All these measures can be quite helpful in advancing the quality assurance program at the university.

Capacity building for self-assessment process: HEC organizes seminars, conferences and workshops for the training of Heads of QECs to play their role as Quality Assurance managers effectively. For the purpose of providing QA awareness among the administrative and academic circles, QECs organize seminars, conferences, workshops and meetings at their own universities. Besides, workshops/seminars are arranged for the training of the members of program/assessment teams to efficiently participate in the SA process for the purpose of preparing SARs, carrying out their rubric evaluation and writing the AT reports and executive summaries. Some Heads of QECs conduct seminars/workshops as resource persons at national universities on the topics of QA awareness, SAR writing and roles of program/assessment teams, for the heads of the universities which established their QECs in later batches.

University's internal quality audits: Although, HEC's QA Framework lists down the need to undertake Internal Quality Audits of different institutions/campuses of the universities after the completion of self-assessment of programs, but only a couple of universities (NUST being one of them) conduct these audits. An Internal Quality Audit is conducted by the university's Internal Panel with the purpose of removing any deficiencies at the institutional level and preparing the University for any External Review. University Quality Standards and Assessment Model^[8] provides the guidelines to conduct Internal Quality Audit through on-site visit on the lines of external reviews.

The process: QEC initiates the audit process after necessary approval from the university's competent authority and constitutes the Audit Panel comprising different directors from University's Main Office. Dates for the audit are fixed with necessary coordination with the panel members and institution to be reviewed. QEC asks the relevant institution/campus to provide an Institutional Portfolio Report (IPR) for a review by the QEC and the Panel. The panel members review the IPR and prepare questions to be asked during visit. It is also identified that which question is to be asked from whom. QAD consolidates these questions. The Institution/campus is also asked to place some documents in the Panel Room reserved for the Panel during the visit. Main activities during the Internal Quality audit are similar to those carried out during Institutional Performance Review such as meetings with heads of universities, review of documents, visit to institutional facilities and interviews with the students, faculty and administrative / technical staff.

After the visit, the panel members forward their observations and recommendations to QEC for consolidation. The post-visit report, comprising the good practices and observations along with recommendations is presented to Rector/VC for perusal/approval through all the panel members. The approved report is forwarded to the institution for taking actions on the recommendations of the panel.

Both the IQA exercises i.e. Self-assessment of programs and the internal quality audit help programs/institutions in improving governance, enhancing quality of teaching, learning, and research and developing infrastructure/facilities.

Benefits of IQA

NUST is fully involved in conducting both the IQA exercises. In year 2013-14, forty programs prepared the self-assessment reports while nineteen teaching institutions out of twenty two have been subjected to internal quality audit. These exercises have helped NUST in developing leadership, improving governance and processes, enhancing quality of teaching and learning and developing physical and technological infrastructure. The IQA has been possible at NUST because of the unconditional support and commitment of the NUST senior administration to make the quality of its educational provisions comparable to the best anywhere in the world. As a result of the IQA measures, the institutions were benefited in the following areas:

- Inducting additional faculty to make up deficiency
- Lab up-gradation
- Improving learning resources
- Implementing student advising system
- Introducing faculty orientation/mentoring system
- Improving internet facility in campuses/hostels
- Access of faculty to policy documents
- Reviewing / streamlining different processes
- Improving transport facility for faculty/students
- Introducing research culture
- Rationalization of faculty work load
- Ensuring implementation of various policies
- Taking effective QA measures
- Awareness and usage of digital library
- Gauging performance of the institution
- Preparation for the future accreditation visits
- Improvement in library facility
- Direct/true feedback from faculty / students
- Flow of information upto the Rector/Pro-Rector (Academics),
- Assuring the implementation of the policies of HEC and respective Council, etc.

International recognition: NUST IQA program has received the international acclaim and Asia Pacific Quality Network (APQN) has bestowed upon NUST the APQN's Best/Model Internal QA Award 2014 during a ceremony held at Hanoi, Vietnam on March 7, 2014. The Award has been given to NUST for demonstrating a good practice that has potential of adaptation among APQN members.

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A PROBE INTO THE DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHING MATERIALS AND QUALITY IN TEACHING CHINESE AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE IN TURKEY

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Abstract: To guarantee and improve the teaching quality, teaching material is one of the three main factors. In China the existing Chinese language textbooks for foreigners are almost universal, which can't meet the demands of learners from different countries. It's become a priority for us to prepare and compile country-specific teaching materials for local Chinese language learners. When we prepare textbooks, we may take these specific measures like changing the Chinese language-based perspective, highlighting the usefulness and relevance of teaching material; penetrating moderately cultural factors, adopting the way of international cooperation, which can make the learning process easier and more efficient.

Since 2009 China Hanban organized professors and experts to prepare a series of country-specific textbooks. However, most of these materials were only a translation of the original textbooks into different languages. They are not much used in Turkey as I know. My paper will search some solution to the real country-specific Chinese language textbooks for Turkish learners.

Keywords: Chinese language, Country-specific Teaching materials, Turkish learners

Introduction

An international symposium themed Country Specific Chinese Language Textbooks was held in December of 2009 at Xiamen University. Its aim was to “explore the country-specific teaching materials for learners from different countries to achieve sustainable development of Chinese language teaching materials”, which attracted the attention of both domestic and foreign experts. Subsequently, China Hanban organized professors and experts to prepare a series of country-specific textbooks. Country-specific foreign language teaching material is also known as localized materials. Recently, with the “Chinese rush” and teaching activities of the Confucius Institute carried out abroad, the problem of country-specific foreign language teaching materials has become more prominent.

Currently, commonly used Chinese textbooks are basically in English and Chinese, which sets up an insurmountable obstacle for non-English speaking foreign students. Even though textbooks in other languages can be found, they are only a translation from the Chinese-English version and error cannot be avoided. In the first lesson of textbook of 当代汉语 (Çağdaş Çince), the topic of the dialog is 您贵姓(What's your name). In the Chinese-Turkish version, the topic in Turkish is “Sizin soyadınız”, which is an incomplete question (Its proper Turkish translation should be: “Sizin soyadınız nedir?”) This is a very typical example of the fact that the country-specific textbook is only a translation from Chinese or English into a specific language. The compiler even did not read the contents of the text. In recent years, there are articles about foreign language teaching materials, but quite few specifically about the problem of localization of teaching materials. Some teachers have tried writing country-specific teaching material and have made some achievements.

But what is the localization of textbooks? What are the principles? How will country-specific teaching materials highlight the characteristics of “country-specific”? There are some issues worthy of further exploration.

1. What are country-specific teaching materials

As the name implies, they are Chinese language teaching materials prepared specifically for different countries. The ‘country’ not only refers to a particular country, but also to countries speaking a similar language and share similar cultural backgrounds.

The significance of country-specific Chinese language teaching materials is self evident to the performance of the local Chinese teaching. Then what's the relationship between country-specific and principles for the writing of Chinese textbooks?

1.1 The features and pertinence of country-specific teaching materials

In recent years, there are more articles on the principles of fun, practicality and pertinence in a Chinese language textbook. Fundamentally speaking, the user determines the principle to write a textbook, that is, it's important to know to whom a textbook is prepared, which is the issue not to be avoided. Li Quan (2004) generalized pertinence of teaching Chinese as a foreign language (TCFL) into five aspects: to fit the natural and social characteristics of learners; to fit the needs and goals of learners; to fit the conditions and environment of language learning; to reflect the nature of the discipline and the characteristics of the type of course; to reflect the teaching emphasis and difficulty of the target language. This summary is quite comprehensive. In fact, country-

specific is a concrete manifestation of the principle of pertinence in Chinese language teaching.

1.2 The relationship between the feature of country-specific and universal

The advocating of writing country-specific textbooks does not mean denying the writing of universal textbook. They differ only in the intention, the user, the contents, arrangement of style, choice of vocabulary, etc. If it does not reflect the principle for the preparation of teaching materials, a nominally country-specific Chinese language textbook may even less practical than one for general use. We studied some of the country-specific teaching textbooks and found that these teaching materials play a huge role in helping the local learners. Their common features are: (1) The “quantity” of the textbook coincides the local restrictive regulations for the school system, credit hours, which is easy to use; (2) The combination of text content with local circumstances and customs makes the teaching material attractive; (3) Grammar entry and choice of vocabulary is based on the language comparison in a specific range and as a result it is clearly targeted. (Zhao Jinming, 1992)

Although in recent years, manpower and material resources have been put in both domestically and abroad, the textbooks written appear “acclimatized.” Currently we are still lack of textbooks adaptable to all types and levels of learners. Country-specific teaching materials for specialized courses urgently need to be improved, such as textbooks for writing class and those for master programs of Chinese majors. Therefore, in order to compile a good localized textbook, we should not only compliance with the principles of localization, but also we follow the general rules to compile country-specific Chinese language teaching materials, such as following the principles of learner-centered, standing in the perspective of learners to design the structure, to select contents, to prepare exercises, to design the length of the text, etc. We should also follow the principles such as from easy to difficult, step by step, and recurring. All aspects of the past successful experience of compiling should be fully absorbed in the organization and lay out of a textbook and at the same time partial innovation should be made to enhance the characteristics and novelty of textbooks.

1.3 The significance and necessity of country-specific teaching materials

Since the teaching materials for general-purpose and for a specific country cannot replace each other, the country-specific teaching materials are indispensable. In particular, with the establishment of the Confucius Institute, Chinese language teaching has developed into two complementary wheels home and abroad. Now the number of Chinese language learners studying abroad even far exceeds the number coming into China to study. In many cases if we completely adopt teaching materials for general use for Chinese language teaching in a foreign country, the transformation is too large, too costly, which may be difficult for both learners and teachers to adapt. Thus it's necessary for local people to compile teaching materials that fit local education system, teaching philosophy, educational model, teaching content, etc. Or as what some universities have implemented, there should be a cooperation of Chinese and local teachers. Specifically speaking, emphasis should be laid on inter-university cooperation, regional cooperation and international cooperation. Universities should work together, break down barriers, and make full use of high-quality academic resources to construct successfully country-specific Chinese language teaching materials.

There's even a demand for country-specific teaching materials in China. Zhang Bo (2007) pointed out that due to the situation of little “United Nations” Chinese language learners with multi-native language speaking backgrounds has changed into the one with learners from different countries with a single-native language, the teaching pertinence quickly attracts attention of instructional circles. That means country-specific teaching materials also have a place in TCFL in China.

As to the language medium for universal teaching materials, Wang Hanwei (2007), after investigation, said that through consolidations of the composition of students of recent years and the findings of the survey, we can draw an important conclusion: TCFL teaching materials with English as its language medium provides service for different categories of foreign students to certain extents, but they mainly adapt about 16% of the native English speaker, not to approximately 84% of non English native speakers. Therefore, we believe that English cannot be used as the universal medium in TCFL and the language medium for country-specific teaching materials should be a local language, which means the preparations for country-specific teaching materials is essential.

2. Characteristics of country-specific Chinese language teaching materials

Country-specific Chinese language teaching materials are not simply a translation of the annotations of the existing textbooks into a certain local language, but they should be compiled concerning the language, culture, customs, and society of that country. Their characteristics can be of surface features and deep features.

2.1 The surface features of country-specific teaching materials

Surface feature is the surface characteristics, including: (1) Binding and design of textbooks. For example, the cover may be some familiar local landmarks, images of people, pictures of customs, etc. The user sees a brand new Chinese textbook, but there's something familiar to him or her which will bring about intimacy and will arouse the desire for the user to learn. (2) The annotation is in local language. Vocabulary and grammatical explanations leave clear traces of the local language. The user can accurately comprehend the

learning content, rather than learn a completely unknown language through a foreign language which he or she does not fully understand. (3) The text should involve local phenomena, like culture, customs, architecture, nature and so on. For an example, in a text designed for Turkish learners of making self introduction, such words like “伊斯坦布尔人 (I’m from İstanbul)”, “安卡拉人(I’m from Ankara)” and “伊兹密尔人(I’m from İzmir)” should be provided; as to festivals, such words like “开斋节(Ramadan Festival)”, “宰牲节(Feast of Sacrifice)”; as to customs, we cannot do without mentioning “土耳其肉夹馍(döner)”, “烧烤(kebab)”, “清真寺(mosque)”. While if a textbook for general purpose is used, it will be a teacher’s job to supplement these words. Although that is only a presentative example, it’s enough to make Turkish learners feel that this teaching material is entirely prepared for local learners, thus stimulating their enthusiasm to learn. (4) Lining with the actual situation of the local learners. Take the Department of Chinese Language and Literature of Erciyes University as an example, compared with 8-10 hours weekly for oral lessons (intensive course) in China, this university offers six hours. Besides, Turkish students, unlike Japanese and Korean students, spend less time in learning. So the capacity of a textbook for general purpose will seem excessive, which will result in a great blow to the confidence of the Turkish students.

2.2 The deep features of country- specific teaching materials

Deep features require that local learners’ characteristics should be studied; the similarities and differences between the local and the target languages should be compared to reduce the negative transfer. Surface features are relatively easy to achieve, but a country-specific teaching material cannot be in the true sense only with the surface features. Deep features include: (1) Contrast and comparisons are necessary between Chinese and the learners’ local language in order to improve their comprehensive level of Chinese language. For the learners learning Chinese as a foreign language, this contrast and comparison in their mind was inevitable and to a great extent the mistakes they make has something to do with the interference of their mother tongue. More importantly, if the advantage of the contrast and comparisons can be taken, the speed and efficiency of the learners can be greatly improved. Therefore, to compile good country-specific teaching materials with deep features, there should be teachers who know the local language to participate, especially the local Chinese language teachers, with their own Chinese language learning experience, coupled with their comparison of native and Chinese languages. As a result this teaching material can not only be more obviously targeted, but also help to improve the learning efficiency of learners. (2) Learners’ thinking and learning habits should be taken into considerations. The formation of learning habits is a long-term matter, and sometimes even with ethnic characteristics, so it’s no easy if you want learners to change their habits. As to the learning habits, the Chinese people generally spend a lot of after-class time to learn, but it’s rare for learners from the west, including those from Turkey. So the focus of the design of textbooks should be on classroom teaching. (3) Cultural contrasts and comparisons should be conducted to comply with the cultural identity of a specific country. In country-specific teaching materials, Chinese cultural phenomena can be appropriately explained. (4) Foreign language learning means should fit the specific country. If modern means can be found in a specific country, more practical network multi-media courseware and software should be developed.

3. The implementation for preparations of country-specific teaching materials

There are still some principles needed to be considered, such as the orientation of users, textbook category, context, vocabulary and grammar points.

Firstly, the organization of compiling team is important. Yang Qinghua (1995), said: “The characteristics of the country, the culture, the environment should be taken into considerations in the construction of a new generation of teaching materials, particularly for those to be use abroad. Chinese and foreign experts should cooperate. Only with a clear target will the teaching materials have better applicability and a higher effectiveness.” Tang Shi hong (2004), said: “I would like to acknowledge once again: Sino-foreign cooperation is the only way to improve the pertinence of TCFL teaching materials. And ‘cooperation’ should be a comprehensive cooperation in contrasting and comparing the languages and cultures. I wish that TCFL teachers and experts to give due attention and concern to this issue.” It can clearly be seen that the writers of country-specific teaching materials must be proficient in the actual situation of the two countries, languages, cultures, customs, educational system, educational philosophy, psychology of learning, learning stages and so on. The writer will either be local teachers who know Chinese or Chinese teachers who live and work for a long time locally, or a cooperation of two parties should be established. Textbooks with deep features should go through repeated trials, modification.

Secondly considerations should involve the implementation and enforcement of the principles to compile teaching materials. If deep features are to be embodied and to be implemented, at least the following work should be done: (1) After determining the general principles to write a textbook, the specific practices are to be established, such as those of how to allocate vocabulary, how to arrange grammar points, what is similar to the specific country. For example, we can change the sequence of Pinyin in phonetic learning stage by arranging

those consonants and vowels that have the same or similar pronunciation to Turkish in the first few lessons. By doing so, learners' fear of difficulty can be reduced, thus mobilizing their enthusiasm for learning in their first stage of learning. For learners of non-Chinese characters circle, they have to spend more time on writing, which should be taken into account. (2) Local second language teaching materials should be collected and then analysis and comparison should be conducted so as to establish the philosophy for the preparations of textbooks. It's also important to analyze the advantages and disadvantages of these materials, listen to the feedback from the learners about these materials so as to fully absorb the strengths of other materials and avoid deficiency. (3) The preparation of country-specific textbooks is inseparable from the principles for the textbooks for general purpose. The only difference is the addition of country-specific characteristics. The second language teaching principles, such as from easy to difficult, from simple to complex and priority for urgent should also be observed. (4) An investigation of motivation, purpose, methods and means is necessary. Preparation of a country-specific textbook is a comprehensive and systematic work. Preparation of dictionaries, of textbooks for different types of class and for different users for a specific country takes greater efforts for development.

4. Conclusion

When we talk about country specific teaching materials, we don't mean in a strict sense to compile a textbook respectively for every specific country. We mean only when universal teaching materials cannot meet the local demand do we have to prepare teaching materials for a specific region or a country.

Even a country-specific textbook will be given up or ignored if it is not well designed and prepared. A translation of the previous textbook cannot be a real and good country-specific textbook.

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AN APPROACH TO EVALUATING PROFESSIONALISM IN HEALTH PROFESSIONS EDUCATION

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Abstract: The higher education system lays a great deal of emphasis on attainment of knowledge and skills, but professional skills have not been emphasized and are rarely included in the assessment process. This study was aimed at evaluating if the use of multiple modalities of reflective assessment will help to provide an insight into the professional attitudes of students in health professions education.

Method: Professional attitudes of 56 medical and 78 pharmaceutical students were evaluated using checklists and scenario interpretation.

Result: It was seen that 92.16% of medical students and 91.67% of pharmacy students adopted health profession due to compassion for humanity. 95.24% of medical students and 92.86% of pharmacy students rated knowledge, clinical skills, attitude, communication skills and professionalism as highly important for success. 92.84% and 85.71% knew basics of professionalism.

Conclusion: Professional attitudes can be measured by using surveys and scenario evaluation in the early phase of health professions education. There is a high standard of professional values among the newly admitted students in the two colleges studied.

Keywords: professionalism, attitudes, student assessment

INTRODUCTION

Until the last few years, there was a differential emphasis on knowledge and skills rather than attitudinal skills in higher education. The inherent belief that professionalism is caught and not taught has led to deterioration of values and behavior. This has been detrimental to the society's perception of professionals whether they are in the business, engineering, legal or medical sector.

Most institutions of higher education have reported that secondary education has to be overhauled to incorporate social skills so that they will be able to achieve sufficient employability skills during higher education. Many universities have included this in general education as Accreditation bodies have recognized the need for it. However, there is still a lack of emphasis on these issues which has created a gap in imparting professional behaviours and measuring performance.

It might seem tough to measure the subjective attributes that constitute desired professionalism and attitudes, but emphasis on these skills and values have to be factored into the assessment plan to ascertain the effectiveness of any program. This is more so in the case of health professions education and this was the reason for this study.

BACKGROUND

Dubai Medical College and Dubai Pharmacy College have been every proactive in creating an environment which fosters high levels of knowledge and skills. While most universities rely heavily on acquisition of hard knowledge and career skills, recently most colleges have shifted their focus towards professionalism and communication skills.

At DMC and DPC, the students have low level of exposure to the sufferings of the poor and needy, creating a need for improving attitudes towards the destitute. Despite the desire to alleviate suffering, they have low tolerance for their own discomfort. They are unaware of the fact that it is the struggle and sacrifice involved that imparts such a high degree of nobility to health profession.

Their perception of their professional life is based on their limited experience, therefore when faced with difficult real life situations like stubborn colleagues or non-cooperative personalities, they have difficulties in coping with the situation.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Studies have shown that freshmen join universities with very ambitious ideals. But later, the need for long hours of hard work to master the knowledge and skills makes them depressed.

A study in 2013 has reported that it is critically important for practicing physicians to understand professionalism in the context of the community. The researchers concluded that opportunities should be provided to reflect on professional behavior in a non-threatening and open forum to motivate physicians to

assess themselves on their professional behavior at work. (Bernabeo, Holmboe, Ross, Chesluk, & Ginsburg, 2013)

Use of multiple methods may be the most valid mechanism for assessing professionalism as reported by some scholars. The validity of assessment of professionalism through Michael Kane's approach to validity have been described. (Clauser, Margolis, Holtman, Katsuftrakis, & Hawkins, 2012) In an earlier paper, Holtman states that social networks drives the professional norms so that social reaction becomes the central element of professional conduct. Therefore, accounting of the social reaction to professional conduct of an individual is required to make a valid assessment of professionalism. (Holtman, 2008)

In community colleges, it has been proved that it is imperative to teach them to construct knowledge through reflective exercises from environment, experience and leadership. (Sullivan & Wiessner, 2010).

Rather than using a written examination, oral evaluation or scenario interpretation and feedback are seen to be powerful tools for assessment. (Huxham, Campbell, & Westwood, 2012) In the engineering field, it has been reported that a challenging scenario for examinations are expected to create broader learning from focused assessments. (Rossiter, 2013) These studies can be interpreted to point out that multiple modalities are required for a valid student assessment process.

It has been proved by empirical studies that learning from their peers have made an impact in their professional behavior. Constructive feedback from peer assessment has led to improved work habits and interpersonal skills in students of anatomy. (Spandorfer et al., 2014)

AIM OF STUDY

This study was aimed at evaluating if the use of multiple modalities of reflective assessment will help to provide an insight into the professional attitudes of students in health professions education. This study also helps in evaluating the actual level of professional beliefs among students of health professions education.

METHOD OF STUDY

The study involved evaluation of the scoring pattern of first year medical and pharmacy students in reaction to the day to day encounters in real life. Their perception of ideal behavior in a social context has been evaluated through 3 sessions at intervals of 1 to 2 weeks.

The study included the population of students who were admitted to the colleges every year. The sample was the first year students of the batches admitted in 2012 in both colleges. The perceptions and beliefs of 56 medical and 78 pharmaceutical students of first year were evaluated using checklists and scenario evaluation.

The response rates have been shown in Table 1 given below.

Table 1 Response rates from both colleges

Response rate From DMC

No of responses	Total Sample	Percentage response
Session 1 51	56	91.07
Session 2 42	56	75.00
Session 3 42	56	75.00

Response rate from DPC

No of responses	Total Sample	Percentage response
Session 1 72	78	92.31
Session 2 70	78	89.74
Session 3 70	78	89.74

Details of the Three Sessions

The first session was done by an anonymous questionnaire on reasons of choosing health professions education. Students were asked to write a note on why they chose the health profession.

The second part of the study was done to evaluate and sensitize the students to the qualities required by health professionals. The students were required to rate the list of qualities provided among highly important-3, moderately important-2 and less important-1. This list was prepared from a reflective exercise on preferred qualities of health professionals. The percentage of students who rated each quality were now compared between the two groups.

In the third session, the students were asked to respond to questions related to multiple scenarios to assess if the students knew about professionalism and empathy as a concept. The scenarios were related to their emotions felt during the early classes in the Anatomy lab, how they thought a teacher should react to students with poor attitudes and how they would manage conflicts among colleagues in the hostel. It was clear that the students had gained an understanding about the importance of empathy.

The scenarios were related to

- Their emotions felt during the early classes in the Anatomy lab
- How they thought a teacher should react to students with poor attitudes

c. How they would manage conflicts among colleagues in the hostel.

RESULTS

The results obtained have been provided separately for each session and then later summarized.

Session 1

92.2% of medical students and 91.6% of pharmacy students adopted health profession due to compassion for humanity.

Table 3 A sample of the tabulation of student response from Session 1

What do you expect to achieve by being a health professional? (in their own words)	No. of students
cure people, reduce pain	7
help poor and needy	5
community, Public Health	2
save people's lives	2
research, discover new treatment	2
Be successful	1
self satisfaction	1
Make my own hospital	1
awareness	1
my own country	1
Happiness, role model	1

Session 2

95.2% of medical students and 92.8% of pharmacy students rated knowledge, clinical skills, attitude, communication skills and professionalism as highly important for success. The results are tabulated in the figures 1 and 2 below:

Session 3

92.8% and 85.7% of students knew basics of professionalism and empathy from DMC and DPC respectively.

Comparison of Overall Results of Both Colleges

It was seen that 92.16% of medical students and 91.67% of pharmacy students adopted health profession due to compassion for humanity. 95.24% of medical students and 92.86% of pharmacy students rated knowledge, clinical skills, attitude, communication skills and professionalism as highly important for success. 92.84% and 85.71% knew basics of professionalism and empathy respectively as shown in Table 3 and Fig 3.

Table 3 Comparison of overall results of DMC and DPC

	DMC	DPC					
% students with desired response	No of students with desired response	No of students with desired response	Total responses	%			
students with desired response			Total responses				
Session 1	92.16	47	51	91.67	66	72	
Session 2	95.24	40	42	92.86	65	70	
Session 3	92.84	39	42	85.71	60	70	

DISCUSSION

Way back in 2006, Sethuraman stated that a professional is a person who belongs to a profession which possesses specialized knowledge, skills and attitudes which have been obtained after a long period of study and which are used to benefit other members of society. The term professionalism is used to describe those skills, attitudes and behaviors which we have come to expect from individuals during the practice of their profession and includes concepts such as maintenance of competence, ethical behavior, integrity, honesty, altruism, service to others, adherence to professional codes, justice, respect for others, self-regulation, etc. A professional is a person who belongs to a profession which possesses specialized knowledge, skills and attitudes which have been obtained after a long period of study and which are used to benefit other members of society. (Sethuraman, 2006)

The desirable attributes of health professionals as perceived by society are competence, ethical behavior, integrity, honesty, altruism, service to others, adherence to professional codes, justice, respect for others, self-regulation, etc.

Arnold and Stern defined medical professionalism in the context of expected skills and attributes as stated below:

“Professionalism is demonstrated through the foundation of clinical competence, communication skills, and ethical and legal understanding, upon which is built the aspiration to and wise application of the principles of professionalism: excellence, humanism, accountability and altruism.” (Arnold & Stern, 2006)

An earlier study on assessment of professionalism has been conducted on first year medical students using multiple modalities, however the validity was confined to medical students. (Shersad, 2012). Expanding this to other health professions students has shown valid and reliable results, proving that the same could be applicable to other professions as well.

Discussion with self-reflection following assessment using examples of day-to-day behavior of students like absence and disturbing lectures due to mobile phones help them share ideas with their peers. It is clear that the priority for professionalism should be introduced into the students' minds early in the course as their enthusiasm is very high immediately after joining the course. Since assessment drives learning, such in-course assessment modalities will help instill values at this stage.

CONCLUSION

This study shows that professional attitudes can be measured by using relevant surveys and scenario evaluation in the early phase of health professions education. Students are motivated to reflect and respond honestly as it is a low risk assessment. Continuous, multiple in-course assessment leads to sensitization to professional behaviour.

Both the groups of students show a high level of professional aptitude. There are no significant differences observed between the students of the two colleges. While indicating the validity of the assessment method, it could reflect the high standard of professional values among the newly admitted students in the two colleges studied.

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BENCHMARKING AS A QUALITY ASSURANCE TOOL AND ITS APPLICATION TO HIGHER EDUCATION (A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK)

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Abstract: As a descriptive study which focuses on benchmarking literature in higher education (HE); this paper presents a general overview of benchmarking as a quality assurance tool and its application to higher education institutions (HEIs); introducing its true descriptions, its importance for HE and its application stages. The purpose is to draw more academic attention to the benchmarking theme by describing what really benchmarking is for HEIs and questioning how to apply it to HE. The study starts with the role of benchmarking in HE and then explains the relationship between benchmarking and quality assurance models and introduces current benchmarking implementations in HEIs. Finally, implementation stages and related issues relevant to literature findings are discussed.

Key Words: Benchmarking, Benchmarking Application, Quality Assurance, Higher Education.

Introduction

Among several improvement strategies and techniques such as quality management or continuous quality improvement, benchmarking has emerged as a valuable, easily understood and effective tool for ensuring and improving quality (ENQA, 2002; Tempus Focus Project, 2013). The function of quality management to give “trust of quality” to outside “stakeholders” is what is understood under quality assurance. The purpose of quality assurance is to ensure accountability, yet it must also enhance the quality of HE itself. However, there is often a perception that quality assurance has become too bureaucratized, failing to lead to real, deep changes in the sector. (Burguel, 2012, 6). Higher education institutions would need more explicit and concrete management tools for quality assurance and quality improvement. This is where benchmarking comes in. Benchmarking is a systematic-ongoing process which aims to measure and improve the organization’s performance by inter-organizational learning about possible improvements of its primary and/or support processes by investigating these processes in the better performing organizations (Alstete, 1996; UNESCO, 1998; McKinnon et al, 2000; ENQA Workshop Reports, 2012; ESMU, et al, 2008).

Some implicit forms of benchmarking have always been part of HE with various forms of peer review and site visits encompassing some aspects of benchmarking. In other words, improving performance by collaboration or comparisons within other universities is nothing new in higher education. What is new today is the use of explicit benchmarking and the formalisation and institutionalisation of the process (Schofield, 1998; ESMU, et al, 2008).

Perhaps the best way to understand benchmarking is to look at what it is not. First of all, benchmarking is not just comparative data analysis, where the analyst looks at where the institution stacks up to others in terms of measures like the student-faculty ration, productivity, cost per student, graduation rates or student satisfaction? Why, because it does not drive change and does not focus on the practices that leads to good (even best) performance (MCP Insights, 2008: 2). Also, benchmarking is neither a process redesign, nor a survey. Process redesign is a technique for looking at internal processes. Also, survey which is commonly used which for data gathering and can be extremely useful. However, surveys have participants, while benchmarking studies have partners who expect to learn valuable things in return for sharing information.

Many, completely miss the point of benchmarking that; it is not easily accomplished one-time effort. Especially it is not a three-hour “show and tell session” with another institution where they tell what they are doing, and you say; that is a good idea, we’ll copy it? In this way, no improvement mechanism has been developed, nor has a clear path been pioneered for future improvement. Nor have any measurements of success been put in place. The name of the game with benchmarking, therefore, is to institutionalize the benchmarking as a planned ongoing improvement process (MCP Insights, 2008).

The European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education (ENQA, 2002), states that the indispensable elements of true benchmarking are; negotiation, collaboration, dialogue and developing a process for mutual understanding. In benchmarking exercise, the question is rather: How can we learn from others; how

to get to where they are from here? Whatever its scope, benchmarking is an important element of the university's quality assurance and quality improvement cycle (<http://www.Adelaide.edu.au/learning/staff/benchmarking/>). Recently, the concept has been used at the level of single discipline or management approach (Vlasceanu, et al, 2007: 19).

Concrete nature of benchmarking as a management tool to improve operational performance, is not always fully understood. It is often performed as a mere data collecting and rank-oriented exercise without interest in learning from each other and also lacking a systematic approach for quality improvement. In higher education, many people still confuse about benchmarking whether it is collecting statistics or comparing performance indicators. Establishing or measuring externally visible performance through key performance indicators (KPIs), is only the beginning of benchmarking (ESMU, et al, 2008: 6). Although it has been in use in many countries since early 1990s, relatively little has been written on how to apply benchmarking to HEIs (ESMU, et al, 2010).

According to literature (<http://www.yok.gov.tr>; <http://www.kalder.org.tr/>), its use is also too limited in Turkish HE sector. This study, therefore, focused on literature review into benchmarking concepts, descriptions and its implementations in HE by analysing samples of individual and collaborative benchmarking practices which have been conducted by leading HEIs in the US, Australia, UK and the other European countries.

The underlying purpose is to draw academic attention to the benchmarking theme by describing what does benchmarking mean for HE; revealing its importance, components and application stages and open a discussion on how to apply benchmarking to Turkish HE. The study starts describing benchmarking and its importance in HE; and then presents the relationship between benchmarking and quality assurance models and current implementations. Finally, implementation stages and related issues relevant to literature findings are discussed.

It is expected to find proper answers to the following research questions:

- What is true benchmarking and why is benchmarking process vital for quality assurance cycle in HEIs?
- What is special about benchmarking with the quality assurance models?
- Where is benchmarking being used in HE sector?
- How to apply benchmarking to a higher education institution?
- What are preferred types of benchmarking currently conducted in HEIs?
- Where is benchmarking being implemented in Turkish HE sector and How?

Practitioners at universities have found that benchmarking at HEIs helps overcome resistance to change, provides a structure for external evaluation, and creates new networks of communication between institutions where valuable information and experiences can be shared (McKinnon, et al, 2000; ENQA, Workshop Report, 2002; ESMU, et al, 2008). Benchmarking provides objective measurements for goal setting and improvement tracking, which can lead to innovations (Alstete, 1996). In addition, Quality strategies and quality assurance efforts are both enhanced by benchmarking, because it can identify areas that could benefit most from quality assurance models and make it possible to improve operations with often dramatic innovations.

The Role of Benchmarking in Higher Education

No single university, however large, can encompass all knowledge. It is demanding to be world class in even a few academic fields. Each university has to prioritise the use of its resources and use them to best effect. Knowing whether it is succeeding in its aims is another more demanding level of difficulty. Considering these issues, the key question is, how university leaders will know where their institution stand and how they can be improved (McKinnon, et al, 2000: 1). The answer comes with benchmarking.

The Public Sector Benchmarking Service in the UK describes benchmarking as involving regularly comparing aspects of performance (functions or processes) with best practitioners identifying gaps in performance, seeking fresh approaches to bring about improvements in performance, following through with implementing improvements, and following up by monitoring progress and reviewing the benefits (Inglis, 2005). In a broad sense, benchmarking is an ongoing systematic process for measuring and comparing the work processes of one institution to those other institutions, bringing an external focus to internal activities, functions

or operations (Kempner, 1993). It is a process of self-evaluation and self improvement through systematic and collaborative comparisons of process and performance with similar organizations or cross-sector organizations in order to identify strengths and weaknesses; to learn, to adapt and then to set new targets to improve performance (Burguel, 2012: 8; ESMU, et al, 2008; ESMU, et al, 2010).

Some implicit focus of benchmarking have always been part of higher education. Peer reviews and site-visits have encompassed some aspects of benchmarking for the reviewers and the visitors. Both the peers and the institutions evaluated acquired insights into other institutions could make comparisons with their own institutions. What is new today is the use of explicit benchmarking and the formalisation and institutionalisation of these processes (UNESCO, 1998; ESMU, et al, 2008). The growth of benchmarking in HE reflects the search for continuous quality improvement and for a more effective way of improving performance in highly diversified HE sector in order to ensure that resources are used effectively and to support process improvements and outcomes of HEIs. As such, it is strongly encouraged by policy makers. Kwan (2006) claims that benchmarking must be seen as an integral part of the continuous quality paradigm of TQM. Indeed, the readiness to learn from other's experience through external benchmarking has been identified as one of the organisational characteristics of an academic 'learning organisation'.

In June, 2002, European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education (ENQA) organized a workshop about benchmarking in HE in Finland, and produced the second workshop report entitled "Benchmarking in the Improvement of HE". Almost ten years later, in the same country, ENQA held its fifth annual Internal Quality Assurance Seminar on benchmarking in internal quality assurance of agencies. This demonstrates that benchmarking is still considered as a strategic subject to promote (ENQA Workshop Reports, 2012). Now, in the HE sector, benchmarking is recognised as a valuable modern management tool for institutions eager to steer their institutional development in a strategic way. It involves a process of target setting by the universities looking to increase their performance through inter-organizational learning (Burguel, 2012; ESMU, et al 2008). In June 2011, the annual seminar of the ENQA, focus was on the theme of learning from each other using benchmarking to develop internal quality assurance (Hopbach, 2012, 4).

On the other hand, due to its reliance on hard data and research methodology, benchmarking is especially suited for Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) in which these types of studies are very familiar to faculty members and university administrators (Alstete, 1996). Benchmarking is a structured and collaborative learning exercise which would help HEIs identify and disseminate good practices and develop new ways of addressing specific problems. Such inter-organizational learning between universities within the context of quality assurance would enhance their reputation in demonstrating a continuous effort to improve the way in which quality assurance is performed.

Edith Cowan University (ECU) (2011) defines benchmarking as a continuous and systematic process of comparing services, processes and outcomes with other organizations or exemplars, for the purpose of improving outcomes by identifying, adapting and implementing best practice approaches (Edith Cowan University, 2011). Comparisons may be made against individual benchmarking partner or groups or other programmes within the university; sets of accepted standards; or data from past performance (Learning and Teaching Unit, 2012). For the Adelaide University, benchmarking is a means of comparing the university's performance or standards, or both, with those of its peers that have better practices. It is a means by which the university can monitor its relative performance, identify gaps, seek and learn fresh approaches to bring about improvements, set goals, establish priorities for change and resource allocation and follow through with change processes based on empirical evidence (<http://www.adelaide.edu.au>).

It can be about broad university-wide issues or specific matters affecting only one area; it can be strategic (addressing priority issues), or cyclical (addressing a number of areas on a regular basis), or ad hoc (taking advantage of an opportunity). Whatever its scope, or subject matter, benchmarking is an important element of the university's quality assurance cycle, focusing on answer following questions:

- How do the standards we have set ourselves compare to our peers?
- How does our performance measure against the outcomes of national and international comparator institutions?
- How can we adapt good practice examples from other institutions to our own organization?

In this way and due to its methodology, benchmarking allows the university to identify and monitor standards and performance in order to improve university outcomes, processes and practices; discover new ideas for achieving the university's core objectives as outlined in its strategic plan; provide an evidence-based

framework for change and improvement; improve strategic planning and goal setting; improve decision making through referencing comparative data.

Relation Between Quality Assurance and Benchmarking

Benchmarking has emerged in the world of business together with the quality movement. According to literature, it is obvious that; quality assurance and benchmarking has an important part to play in the European HE response to the Bologna process. Quality assurance and recognition of qualifications is the one of the three main objectives of Bologna process. In the Bucharest Communiqué (April, 2012), Ministers identified three key priorities: Mobility, Employability and Quality. Ensuring a quality HE system is the first priority among the Bucharest Communiqué priorities for the period 2010-2020 (<http://www.ec.europa.eu/education/higher-education/bologna.en.htm>; Tempus, Focus Project, 2013; Jones et al, 2006).

Major changes have taken place in HE, resulting higher education institutions having to enhance their attractiveness on the market and profile themselves much more strategically. Quality is a key to support these developments, and in this context, improving university performance through strategic performance became crucial. However, systematic data collection on institutional performance to improve decision-making is still lacking in many HEIs (Burguel, 2009:6). In the literature, related to quality in HE, three terms commonly appear: Quality assurance, quality improvement and benchmarking. Quality assurance is a process oriented to guaranteeing that the quality of a product or service meets some predetermined standard set either by the provider or by some external government or industry standards authority. The aim in quality assurance is to ensure that a product or service is fit for the market (Inglis, 2005). Benchmarking is different to using quality assurance (QA) models, as QA models generally focus on minimum acceptable standards and compliance and they are often imposed by management or external inspection requirements (Scott, 2011). In contrast, benchmarking sits within a broader framework of quality management and improvement. Kalder (<http://www.kalder.org.tr>) concludes this aspect of benchmarking as; From product-focus – to customer focus; From internal centre – to external centre; From organisational effectiveness – to accepted superiority; From incremental improvement – to quantum leap improvement; From TQM – to benchmarking excellence. Benchmarking helps an institution both recognize and achieve the situations where a “quantum leap” in performance is needed. Quantum leaps frequently require a “clean sheet of paper” and rethinking the basic assumptions about how you operate (MCP INSIGHTS, 2008: 2). Continuous incremental improvement will never get the institution there if major fundamental change is needed.

The purpose of quality assurance is to ensure accountability, yet it must also enhance the quality of HE itself. The standards and guidelines for quality assurance in the European Higher Education Area defined by ENQA, provide directions for HEIs to improve their internal quality assurance policies and procedures (Tempus, Focus Project, 2013: 8). However, there is often a perception that European Quality Assurance has become to be bureaucratized, failing to lead to real, deep changes in the sector. Not all higher education institutions take sufficient ownership in the process (Burguel, 2012, 6). Benchmarking exercises on quality assurance can take these standards and guidelines a step further. Tempus Focus Project (2013: 32) expresses the reasons as “benchmarking at HEIs helps overcome resistance to change by providing real - life examples of success, provides a structure for external evaluation, creates new networks of communication and facilitates sharing valuable experiences.

The Manual for Australian Universities (McKinnon, et al, 2000: 7) reports that higher education institutions are complex organizations. To keep relevant they must respond successfully to the massive changes now challenging them. Benchmarking thus needs not only to identify successes to date, but also vital signs of adaptation to the future. A university's dynamism is as important as its current achievements, a better guide to its performance. The best universities are those that combine high achievements with extensive evidence of dynamism and rapid rates of adaptation to new challenges. But how are the latter features best measured? If it is true that an institution cannot be sure that it is changing in particular dimensions unless it can measure that change, identification of appropriate performance measures becomes of crucial importance. However, for many HEIs measuring the success of past activities by outputs (or outcomes), have been the only performance measures used. While such *lagging* indicators provide useful information, there is also a need for *leading* indicators, that is measures of the drivers of future performance, and *learning* indicators, measures of the rate of change of performance. Benchmarking is a valid way of measuring dynamism and innovation. As change must be in particular directions if it is to be effective, there needs to be direct links between the benchmarking process (evaluates all performance measures) and the strategic plan of the institution.

What is special about benchmarking with the industrial quality assurance models (TQM, BALDRIGE Model, EFQM Model, ISO 9000) First, in benchmarking the focus is on the process of inter-organizational learning. It requires, just like quality assurance, an aim to improve performance of the institution. Also, it

requires methods to know about the current state of institution through some form of evaluation or measurement. Yet, benchmarking sees the measurement as a tool to know where improvements are needed, not as an end in itself, and gives more attention to the process of learning about ways towards achieving improvements than most quality assurance models do. In benchmarking exercise, the question is rather: How can we learn from others; how to get to where they are from here? Establishing or measuring externally visible performance through key performance indicators (KPIs), is only the beginning of benchmarking. The real issue of benchmarking process is how to achieve high performance which needs information of a much more detailed type than KPIs can give, from deep within the organization. Aim is to find out about good practices rather than only good performance (ESMU, 2008:6).

Rankings and league tables of universities are in this sense, perceived as false benchmarking, since they do not point to ways improvement which is the essence of benchmarking. Rankings which are already in use in many HEIs, contain no information about good practices. Although rankings are popular for comparison, they provide little information about how the university reached the score and if they do, indicators are often irrelevant to quality improvement of HEIs. Rankings can, however, initiate benchmarking by serving as a starting point in identifying benchmarking partners. Also, reliable rankings can be at the starting point of benchmarking exercises for those institutions willing to increase their performance in the rankings (ESMU, 2008: 6; Burguel, 2012, 3).

Current Benchmarking Implementations in Higher Education

Benchmarking was first adapted to business practices in 1979 by the then almost-bankrupt Xerox. Through the systematic and collaborative comparison of performance with its competitors, Xerox's aim was to evaluate itself, to identify its strengths and weaknesses and adapt to constantly changing market conditions. Benchmarking approaches have been gradually adopted by many businesses and higher education institutions in the context of the quality assurance and quality enhancement movements, facing the need to ensure productivity and effectiveness in the face of increasing competition (ESMU, et, al, 2008: 23).

Traditionally, educational organizations are natured for spreading and sharing of knowledge, collaboration in research and assistance to each other. Several authors advocated that benchmarking is more suitable in higher education than business sector, due to its collegial environment, which encourages easily to collaborate and cooperate (Pulatkhon, 2001). According to literature review Professional associations such as NACUBO, ACHE, ACU, ESMU, CHEMS and ENQA, independent data sharing consortia, private consulting companies, and many HEIs are all conducting either individual benchmarking implementations or collaborative benchmarking projects. Individual benchmarking implemetations between two institutions or among a group, called a partnership approach while collaborative benchmarking projects called a template approach in that benchmarking carried out among a large group of universities, usually at the initiative of a third party such as an association (mentioned above like NACUBO, ACU, CHEMS, ENQA, ESMU).

As Pulatkhon, (2001) stated, The NACUBO (National Association of College and University Business Officers) benchmarking program was begun in late 1991, and it seeks to provide participants with an objective basis for improved operational performance by offering a "pointer" to the best practices of other organizations. The Association for Continuing Higher Education (ACHE) and graduate business schools have also conducted specialized benchmarking studies that focus on the processes and practices concerning their particular institutional departments. A review of the benchmarking literature finds independent benchmarking projects are also in use by a wide range of higher education institutions.

The growing concern with quality in HE has led institutions to look for ways of managing quality processes effectively and efficiently. In Australia, the quality improvement framework described in McKinnon, Walker and Davis (2000) have offered A Benchmarking Manual for Australian Universities. In this manual sixty-seven benchmarks were identified with contribution of thirty-three participating universities, emphasis was on the drivers of future qualitative performance. Meetings and discussions were arranged by the Commonwealth Higher Education Management Service (CHEMS), Benchmarking Club in London and some UK universities (<http://www.acu.ac.uk/chems/>). According to Higher Education Statistics Agency (HESA, 2011) Association of Commonwealth Universities (ACU) maintains a higher education benchmarking programme through a series of collaborative reviews of selected business processes, through annual round of focused reviews involving 16 universities from Australia, Canada, Hong Kong, New Zealand, the African Continent and the UK. Universities share information on their activities in the selected themes regarding approach, application and outcome. Through these benchmarking exchanges, information about good practices are also identified and shared using the structure and criteria of the EFQM framework for instnutional process comparisons. According to HESA Status Report (2010), universities (Greenwich, Liverpool, York, Surrey), and many others in England are conducting benchmarking on strategic planning and administration, student services (career services, campus

services, accommodation, catering, conference services), research, teaching, estates, finance, human resource, library and IT across.

In the mid 2000s, Austria carried out a benchmarking exercise on the mobility of its scientists, Spain has benchmarked performance of a group of HEIs in terms of their research and training capacities. Sweden has benchmarked research management. Such sector-wide benchmarking exercises are setting performance targets for changes. At the European level, the open method of coordination between EU member states sets quantitative and qualitative benchmarks as a means of comparing best practices (ESMU, et al, 2008).

In Europe, collaborative benchmarking approaches in HE sector have developed from the mid-nineties as initiatives launched at the national level by groups of institutions or by independent institutions. Transnational level exercises have so far remained limited. But, collaborative benchmarking projects in European Higher Education was implemented by four partner organizations. These are European Centre for Strategic Management of Universities (ESMU), The Centre for Higher Education Development (CHE), The Unesco European Centre for Higher Education (UNESCO-CEPES), and University of Aveiro. This first phase of European HE benchmarking project (2006 – 2008), studied the concepts and practices of benchmarking in order to increase their usage in European HE. They analysed 18 collaborative benchmarking groups worldwide in Europe, Australia and the US (ESMU, et al, 2008). Second phase of European HE benchmarking project (2008-2010), involved 41 universities, divided four groups “on university governance, lifelong learning, curriculum reforms and university-enterprise cooperation”. The outcome is a handbook titled “benchmarking in European Higher Education” (ESMU, et al, 2010). These four benchmarking groups of HEIs studied on wide data exchange, advice and best practices in workshops and produced benchmarking tools (questionnaires, reports, handbooks of good practices).

According to paper of HEFCE (Higher Education Funding Council for England (2003), a number of studies undertaken and networks exist to share good practice in UK. At least two of the HEFCE Good management practice projects focus on benchmarking. This publication looks at the general principles of benchmarking and how the EFQM Excellence Model can provide a route into benchmarking (Pulatkhon, 2001).

The internal quality assurance group of ENQA (IQA Group) has been organizing a yearly seminar for its members since 2007. The main objective is to share experiences concerning the IQA of work processes in the participating agencies. The overarching theme of the 2011 seminar was “how to use benchmarking as a tool for developing internal quality assurance system (ENQA Workshop Reports, No.20, 2012). Another collaborative benchmarking project, IMPI is a three-year project funded by the European Commission, the work is coordinated by the Centre for Higher Education Development (CHE) in Germany. IMPI aims to develop and test a set of internationalisation indicators that can be used by European (and other) higher education institutions (HESA, 2011).

Practitioners (ESMU, et al, 2008; HESA, 2011; ESMU, et al, 2010; ENQA Workshop Reports, 2012) often identified two types of HE benchmarking approach in their benchmarking projects. In the first non-collaborative type, higher education institutions call on consulting firms to buy data to compare their performance with other institutions. In the second type, benchmarking is carried out in a collaborative way as an inter-organisational learning process between institutions with a view to improving their modes of operations. This second approach requires a high level of trust and confidentiality between participating institutions. According to APQC (1993), if the Benchmarking Code of Conduct is followed, confidentiality concerns can be reduced. The Code of Conduct calls for benchmarking practitioners to abide by stated principles of legality, exchange, and confidentiality.

Benchmarking Application Stages and Steps

Benchmarking as an improvement strategy and quality assurance tool is used commonly, but differently throughout the world. In the 1990s, benchmarking was defined by many authors as the process of continuously comparing and measuring an organisation with business leaders anywhere in the world to gain information, which will help the organisation take action to improve its performance (Spendolini, 1992; American Productivity and Quality Center, 1993; Watson, 1992). Spendolini (1992) offers five step benchmarking process involving: determining what to benchmark, forming a benchmarking team, identifying benchmarking partners, collecting and analysing information and taking action. Watson (1992) presents a six-step: plan, search, observe, analyse, adapt, improve.

For HE sector, considering the types of benchmarking, Alstete (1996) defines four types of benchmarking linked to the voluntary participation of institutions, i.e. international benchmarking, external competitive benchmarking, external collaborative benchmarking and external trans-industry (best in class) benchmarking. UNESCO-CEPES (2007) uses similar descriptions referring to internal benchmarking, external competitive

benchmarking, functional benchmarking (comparing institutional processes), trans-institutional benchmarking (across multiple institutions), implicit benchmarking (quasi-benchmarking looking at the production of data/performance indicators), generic benchmarking (looking at basic process or services) and process-based benchmarking (looking at processes).

Three types of benchmarking advocated by the Australian Universities Quality Agency (AUQA) are:

Sector benchmarking in which comparisons of ‘whole-of-institution’ or focusing on some function or aspect are made against a benchmarking partner(s) in the same sector;

Generic benchmarking involving comparisons of processes and practices regardless of the industry;

Best practice benchmarking in which the University selects a comparator known to be best in the area to be benchmarked (Stella and Woodhouse, 2007).

Benchmarking process models and methodologies in HE are various with different number of phases and steps. Alstete (1996) suggested a four step approach: Plan – do – check – act (based on Deming’s PDCA cycle). Hacker and Kleiner (2000) suggested a twelve-step benchmarking process which has four phases: Planning; Analysis; Integration; and Action. *Planning* has five steps: determine what to benchmark, identify key performance indicators, identify benchmarking partners, determine data collection method, and collect data; *Analysis* has two steps: understand performance gaps, and predict future performance levels; *Integration* has two steps: communicate findings and gain acceptance, then establish functional goals and implementation plans; and, *Action* has three steps: implement and monitor progress, measure results against stakeholder wants and needs, and then recalibrate benchmarks. MCP INSIGHTS (2008: 3,4) introduces a seven-step process for collaborative benchmarking carried out among a large group of universities, usually at the initiative of a third party such as an association or a benchmarking club. Here is the most important issue is agreeing to exchange data and practices among the participating institutions. A true understanding of good practices can only be gained at the site of benchmarking partner with a well-prepared questionnaire.

All the primary data research requires the use of questionnaires. Developing questionnaires is the main step to gather specific data on the process in the partner institutions involved into benchmarking exercise. Site visits (covering arranged meetings, discussion sessions) and observations are the necessary methods of conducting primary data research. In this way, one can provide insight to real working practices that can be very useful.

As it is seen, the benchmarking process traditionally encompasses four phases: I. Planning the study; II. Collecting data and conducting the research; III. Analyzing the data; IV. Adapting the findings to the situation of the institution. A Benchmarking project by the Australian Universities Quality Agency (AUQA) introduces the major steps for higher education benchmarking as shown below: (<http://www.auqa.edu.au/gp/search/index.php>):

1. Determine which areas to benchmark;
2. Identify benchmarking partners;
3. Determine types and level of benchmarking;
4. Prepare benchmarking documents and templates including the purpose, scope of project, performance indicators, performance measures and performance data;
5. Design benchmarking process;
6. Implement benchmarking process;
7. Review results;
8. Communicate results and recommendations; and,
9. Implement improvement strategies,

This process usually aligns with the Plan/ Do/ Review/ Improve cycle in the Quality model of many universities. Similarly, Adelaide university offers a checklist covers the key activities of benchmarking listed below:

- Identify what is to be benchmarked (project selection),
- Form an internal benchmarking team,
- Select the benchmarking partners (consider the necessary protocols required such as confidentiality arrangement, agreements, code of practice, etc.),
- Finalise benchmarks (measures and indicators),
- Collect data (choose data research methods among emails or mail surveys, telephone or video conferencing, questionnaire design, site visits, discussion meetings or workshops and observations),
- Analyse data (determine performance gaps, reasons for gaps, cost/adapting benefit analysis),
- Communicate findings (gain acceptance from management and area staff),
- Set new targets (implement specific improvement actions),
- Prepare a monitor progress plan (include responsibilities and deadlines).

Recently, collaborative benchmarking models are being used at international level. For instance, EU funded second European HE benchmarking project (ESMU, et.al 2010) was implemented by four partner organisations: The European Centre for Strategic Management of Universities (ESMU, in Belgium), the Centre for Higher Education Development (CHE, in Germany), the International Centre for Higher Education Management (ICHEM), University of Bath and Institute of Education (IoE, from University of London). This benchmarking project in European HE is the pilot project formulated into four stages and thirteen steps as follows (ESMU, et, al 2010: 65-67):

Phase 1-Defining Priorities, Targets, Criteria, Indicators and Benchmarks

- Deciding priority areas,
- Developing the list of potential indicators,
- Agreeing the list of potential indicators,
- Developing expertise level and scoring,
- Creating the balanced scorecard,
- Finalizing the indicators set with senior managers

Phase 2-Data Gathering and Reporting

- Gathering and validating data,
- Scoring the institution against the benchmark

Phase 3-Developing an Action Plan to Introduce Change

- Diagnosis of institutional strengths and weaknesses,
- Developing an action plan around pilot Project

Phase 4-Monitoring and Follow-Up

- Implementing the action plan,
- Reporting back.

Burguel (2012: 9) concludes the success factors of the collaborative benchmarking process as;“It is crucial that the benchmarking group agrees on common priorities based on which a list of performance indicators can be developed. Depending on the nature of the benchmarking exercise, there will be a stronger focus on qualitative or quantitative indicators, or on input, process, output or outcome indicators. A full benchmarking cycle requires all types. The sets of indicators get final agreement from the senior leadership of each participating institution. There is also an agreement on what constitutes good performance with

four “expertise levels”: *basic* performance, *standard* performance, *good* and *excellent* performance. Once the priorities and indicators have been defined, the data gathering can start. The question is how much data should be gathered and how to ensure their validity and reliability. The group may wish to use external experts for this purpose. Once the data have been gathered, institutions are placed and scored against the “*expertise levels*”. The comparative scorecards combining the individual university scores show current performance and provide indications on where individual institutions should place the precise focus for their strategic improvement plan. From a collective exercise the process becomes very individual with institutions drawing their own realistic action plans to address the gaps identified around a pilot project with a precise timeframe, specific tasks, and adequate financial and human resources”.

CONCLUSION

No single university, however large, can encompass all knowledge. It is demanding to be world class in even a few academic fields. Each university has to prioritise the use of its resources and use them to best effect. Knowing whether it is succeeding in its aims is another more demanding level of difficulty. Considering these issues, the key question is, how university leaders will know where their institution stand and how they can be improved (McKinnon, et al, 2000: 1). The answer comes with benchmarking. Benchmarking is an ongoing systematic process for measuring and comparing the work processes of one institution to those other institutions, bringing an external focus to internal activities, functions or operations (Kempner, 1993). It is a process of self-evaluation and self improvement through systematic and collaborative comparisons of process and performance with similar organizations or cross-sector organizations in order to identify strengths and weaknesses; to learn, to adapt and then to set new targets to improve performance (Burguel, 2012: 8; ESMU, et al, 2008; ESMU, et al, 2010).

Improving performance by collaboration or comparisons within other universities is nothing new in higher education. What is new today is the use of explicit benchmarking and the formalisation and institutionalisation of the process as a planned ongoing improvement process (Schofield, 1998; ESMU, et al, 2008). According to The European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education (ENQA, 2002), the core elements of true benchmarking are; negotiation, collaboration, dialogue and developing a process for mutual understanding. In benchmarking exercise, the question is rather: How can we learn from others; how to get to where they are from here?

Benchmarking experienced universities in the US, Australia, UK and the other European countries see benchmarking as a quality assurance tool by which the university can monitor its relative performance, identify gaps, seek and learn fresh approaches to bring about improvements, set goals, establish priorities for change and resource allocation and follow through with change processes based on real life experience.

Also, practitioners at universities have found that benchmarking at HEIs helps overcome resistance to change, provides a structure for external evaluation and creates new networks of communication between institutions where valuable information and experiences can be shared. In addition, Quality strategies and quality assurance efforts are both enhanced by benchmarking, because it can identify areas that could benefit most from quality assurance models and make it possible to improve operations with often dramatic innovations. Thus, it is recently defined as a structured and collaborative learning exercise which would help HEIs identify and disseminate good practices and develop new ways of addressing specific problems. Such inter-organizational learning between universities within the context of quality assurance would enhance their reputation in demonstrating a continuous effort to improve the way in which quality assurance is performed.

However, benchmarking as a management tool to improve operational performance is not always fully understood. It is often performed as a mere data gathering exercise or just comparing performance outcomes lacking a well-planned systematic and collaborative approach based on real-life experiences for institutional improvement. Establishing or measuring externally visible performance through key performance indicators (KPIs), is only the beginning of benchmarking. The real issue of benchmarking process is how to achieve high performance which needs information of a much more detailed type than KPIs can give, from deep within the organization. Aim is to find out about good practices rather than only good performance.

Rankings and league tables of universities are in this sense, perceived as false benchmarking, since they do not point to ways improvement which is the essence of benchmarking. Rankings which are already in use in many HEIs, contain no information about good practices. Although rankings are popular for comparison, they provide little information about how the university reached the score and if they do, indicators are often irrelevant to quality improvement of HEIs. Rankings can, however, initiate benchmarking by serving as a starting point in identifying benchmarking partners. Also, reliable rankings can be at the starting point of benchmarking exercises for those institutions willing to increase their performance in the rankings (ESMU,

2008: 6; Burguel, 2012, 3).

According to literature, professional associations such as NACUBO, ACHE, ACU, ESMU, CHEMS DETYA and ENQA, independent data sharing consortia, private consulting companies, and many higher education institutions are all conducting either individual benchmarking implementations or collaborative benchmarking projects. Individual benchmarking implementations between two institutions or among a group, called “a partnership approach” while collaborative benchmarking projects called “a template approach” in that benchmarking carried out among a large group of universities, usually at the initiative of a third party like NACUBO, ACU, CHEMS, ENQA, ACHE, DETYA, ESMU which all facilitate comparisons, and lead directions for the benchmarking exercises or projects. This benchmarking approach requires a high level of trust and confidentiality between participating institutions. According to APQC (1993), if the Benchmarking Code of Conduct is followed, confidentiality concerns can be reduced. The Code of Conduct calls for benchmarking practitioners to abide by stated principles of legality, exchange and confidentiality.

Although benchmarking has been used in Turkish private sector since mid.1990s (Sarıaltın, 2003; <http://www.kalder.org.tr>), there is no institutional initiative to handle Turkish HE benchmarking applications. Also, academic studies on benchmarking on doctorate level is still too limited (Küçük, 2004; Gerek, 2010) and also research papers on benchmarking are just a few articles (Büyüközkan, 1997; Karabulut, 2009). For higher education benchmarking we need more academic studies examining and analysing current benchmarking exercises and practices in Turkish HE and its application to Turkish HEIs.

Contribution and Recommendations for Further Studies

In this study, HE benchmarking literature have been reviewed in order to make researchers and academicians gain better understanding of the subject for HE, and take a closer look at the importance and applicability of benchmarking to Turkish HE. For the newcomer to benchmarking it may be difficult to have a clear idea of how to start and manage benchmarking implementation. This study, therefore would help with a clarification on concepts, definitions and application examples of benchmarking in HE. At the same time, the study will provide valuable information on benchmarking application steps and stages for HEIs which already have experience with some aspects of benchmarking and are willing to take their efforts a step further.

The underlying purpose of this study is to *draw more attention* to the benchmarking theme by describing what does benchmarking mean for HE through revealing its importance, its linkage with quality assurance models, its current implementations and explaining its application stages. In this way, I think first four research questions, given above, have already been answered. The study still continues and, thus last two questions of the study; “what are preferred types of benchmarking currently conducted in HEIs” and “where is benchmarking being implemented in Turkish HE”, need more detailed analysis on both local and international studies and examining good examples of practitioner institutions in Turkish HE sector.

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Common understanding of pedagogic practice to the new quality

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Abstract: Global changes, its dynamism and unpredictability create necessity for consistent and competent corpus of kindergarten teachers. Despite the fact that the traditional approach in professionalization of kindergarten teachers gradually becomes weaker, it is still, to a large extent, present technical- rational model of creating its professionalism. Contemporary approach in professional advancement of kindergarten teachers is focused on the development of sophisticated procedures in understanding of pedagogic theory and its implementation and transfer to the pedagogic practice domain. Dissonance between contemporary professional epistemology and conventional approaches requires reconstruction of fundamental modes of their initial teaching and learning and the subsequent lifelong learning.

Introduction

Today's world is a world of changes that are occurring rapidly and unpredictably so, inter alia, from the upbringing and education (formal, non-formal and informal) it is required a continuous change and restructuring. Professional competences related to education undergo many transformations due to new ways of creating knowledge, changing of the learning environment, local and global social changes. This century is the century of an uncertainty which is ultimately better than the security that makes us inert and therefore hinders progress (Hentig, 2007, Fullan, 2008). Formal and informal preparation for the field of practical educational process must be an integral part of the initial and subsequent professional development and advancement of the educators. It is believed that the discontinuity between the initial education of practitioners and their subsequent professional development is still expressed. There may be at least two situations that hinder continuity, consistency and complementarity of formal (initial) education and the subsequent informal professional development of the educators. It is possible that the situation during initial education does not develop in students (future educators) those competences and capacities that will later with their entry into the educational practices, provide orientation in the complex conditions of the teaching practice and be relevant and adequate to the challenges of a particular environment. The practitioner does not enter the static and an already known area, so the path discrepancy between the expectations of future practitioners and their current capacities and capabilities can cause a range of interpersonal and intrapersonal conflicts. None of the learned techniques and strategies may not necessarily be effective in all practical situations (Schon, 1990; Neuweg, 2004; Fullan, 2008) because each particular action during the practical operation is unique and requires broad theoretical knowledge and practical professional skills at the same time. The range of factors that determine the approaches and actions in the professional field of activity is divergent and polyvalent. These decisions and variations, according to Zwozdiak - Myers (2008) are determined by, among other things, culture, sensibility and value system of the individual. The synergy of actions and reactions within concrete situations, their subsequent reflection in the context of a reflective process in which we focus on understanding of the individual actions make effective practice that is largely determined by the individual educator's biography.

Often the arrival in a traditional and rigid stimulating environment causes in a young professional many dilemmas, but not enough opportunities for his free-organizing, checking various strategies and steps, as well as participating in joint reflection with colleagues. "Practical situations are not determined and related to the pre-learned, recognized and fixed reactions ... but they are marked with their recognizing and responding to the same" (Oser, Achtenhagen, Renold 2006) or according to Neuweg (2004) it is a fact that teachers think about their own actions and their effectiveness. It can be expected a situation where teachers with the entrance in an educational institution continue an already initiated way of developing their technical and professional competences. Since there are a lot of discussions about building some new competences required for better orientation training of educators (and all other professionals) in the complex area of practice (especially the research and reflective type), it is expected that on a level of initial professional education the students are intensively engaged in research activities where they will actively participate in the consideration, but also in changing of educational practices and on that basis build their own professional identity. The competency of the reflective approach (competency for reflective practice) is one of the core competencies and involves a high level of autonomy in making of professional decisions, ability of interactive assessment of practice and collective discourse.

HOLISM AND DIALECTICS IN RELATION TO THE THEORY AND PRACTICE

The relationship between pedagogical theory and educational practice is viewed in the light of the integrative discourse in which the "declarative", "formal" and propositional knowledge (often decontextualised) is associated with procedural (know how), and the two segments have very significant tacit (hidden, intuitive, internal) knowledge that everything is processed in complex practical situations. Considering ties and eventual dichotomy it is followed the nature of the relationship between internal processes and professional conduct and actions of educators, in other words, the successful implementation of new approaches, methods and techniques in the field of practice. Conceptual knowledge (which is theoretical or epistemological issue) will help the field of practice with dealing with everyday problems and ensuring the more adaptable and effective actions and strategies and that "externalization in communities of learning" is updated when the learning group has a common (creative, innovative) target. Bolhuis (2006) points out that the professionalism is at the same time related to intentional, but also to spontaneous and senseless actions. He specifies the number of statements in the case when dominates the experiential knowledge (which often remains implicit):

- With discourse of different actors in this particular context it is necessary to create an understanding on the explicit level

- Experiential knowledge is often difficult to verbalize and communicate to other professionals who work in the same or different culture of the institution

- Experiential knowledge is impossible to replicate from one to another culture (consideration and concrete action is necessary), therefore, it is viewed from the perspective of the specific culture

- Collaborative approach in the development of professionalism creates awareness about the goals of the individual activities

In the light of perception of educator as the primary agent in questioning and realization of the institution's culture, his professionalism becomes a topical issue in the application of the new paradigm of education on the children of early and preschool age (Delors, 1998, Fullan, 2008). It is reflected in the active and constructive approach to building competencies and emphasizing the importance of the joint research and questioning of the current practice.

Bleach (2014) identifies two models of professionalism in the early and preschool education: social constructive model and individual reflective and active model. Partially, the development of professionalism of the educators may be considered as a part of the advancement in the context of intentional activities aimed at the joint construction of meaning (participants are various professionals responsible for the quality of teaching practice), but also of the spontaneous, intuitive and unconscious pedagogical actions. It is the willingness and ability of practitioners for a jointly collegial discourse which in the process of reflective practice creates an openness to alternative strategies and processes, and better understanding and curriculum building ("practical understanding"), that is a significant segment of the professional identity of educators.

The joint diagnosing of the educational reality (quality and features of its culture) by the practitioners and researchers is transferred into conceptual changes, resulting in scientifically based interventions and actions (Hargreaves, 2005). Action researches (researches of the practitioners, Bruce, 2006) are an integral part of the professional development of practitioners (Schon, 1990, Dahlberg and Moss, 2005, Fullan, 2008). The researches incorporate and simultaneously involve two processes: investigation and action that lead to a deeper and fuller understanding of the educational practice. Such participatory and integrative research paradigm promotes practitioner (direct holder of the educational process) as the creator and explorer of his own practice.

PROFESSIONALISM OF THE EDUCATOR BASED ON THE RESEARCH CULTURE

The postmodern society is focused on the divergent development of educational institutions and the creation of a specific culture, which corresponds to a personal educational philosophy of professionals who work in it, the value systems which dominate in it, the quality of interpersonal relations, etc., which are projected on the nature of learning, teaching and characteristics of the entire life of children in the institutional terms.

Professional autonomy is often contextually determined and is defined by fellowship (collaboration), as well as the support and connection of all the factors within the institution. Interpersonal communication in each institution just as the professional and personal progress are a socially constructivist process and are an integrative part of the autonomy and emancipation of educators. An interactive process in which educators deliberate critically over their personal and others' actions, reflectively generates the necessary change and innovation, the large number of alternative responses and the expression of different ideas. Many studies show the importance of the collective discourse for the promotion and implementation of innovative strategies (Bleach, 2014), which leverages and builds the "collective intelligence" (Vecchi, 2010, 58), systematized change and its impacts on the quality of practice (MacNaughton & Hughes, 2008), and better interpretation and understanding of their own experiences.

The investigative approach of understanding the culture of the educational institution, joint and active resolution of problems and responsible directing of his own professionalism in the context of a lifelong learning

and education make a significant segment of the competence approach in the development of practitioners. Traditional and rigid approaches to developing professionalism (how well we're doing with regard to standards) and professionalization (status that has a practitioner in a society) shows a high level of resistance to diverse ways of cultivating and updating practices.

The study of educational practice and the creation of professionalism of educators are indivisible, unique and complementary processes. The development of the professionalism of educators should be predominantly based on knowledge, skills, abilities and beliefs that are a result of experience, observation and research of practice. Practitioners who with the research of their practice develop their professionalism focused on the relevant issues of a specific culture which creates the conditions for the constitution of knowledge needed for future high-quality practice. Research-oriented construction and development of competencies, based on the highly cooperative actions of professionals from different levels and areas facilitate everyday decisions of the educators (Schon, 1999, Senge, 2003, Bergen, 2006). The joint diagnosing of educational reality (quality and features of its culture) by practitioners and researchers is transferred into conceptual changes, resulting in scientifically based interventions and actions (Hargreaves, 2005). The professional knowledge is developed by the critical reflection from the explicit to the implicit and from the individual autonomy to the construction of responsibility in a continuous process of dialogue and common action.

To ensure the necessary conditions for the education of the "new educators", it is necessary to engage every individual that in such a social interaction creates a communicational context and takes responsibility for the quality of the teaching practice. Educators should take a more active role in the research process because it is true that they are often outside those circles which participate in the creation of the educational policy. Therefore, it is increased the interest in a reflective practitioner and a reflective practice and the "research-based professional" (Schon, 1990) like an educator who continuously builds the capacity of theoretical reflection in practical terms, and vice versa, with practice and thinking about it builds a new theory. In the process, he critically analyzes his own and others' practices and the activities he does and discusses his ideas and the ideas of other professionals.

Reflective practitioner creates or builds a reflective practice on the basis of his own consideration of it - before and after the activities and operations of the course of action, which is characteristic of skilled (reflexive) practitioners. We could say that the process of development of a reflective practitioner means the process of elevating on a high level his educational activity, teaching and learning.

Reflective practice is a holistic process that represents a way of learning and research which integrates theory with reflection (thinking) and practice and in which reflection is the essence of the process of learning and changing. It is a dialogue between the objective and normative theoretical knowledge on the one side, and contextual and subjective practical experience which is the source of individual variation of educator's work on the other side. In that context, learning comes to its full expression as a dynamic and complex process that involves creative thinking, evaluation of the choice of decisions and exploration.

INSTEAD OF CONCLUSION

Action researches provide practitioners the opportunity to access professional development in an innovative way and to focus on the specifics of any professional environment. Participating in action researches, professionals from different areas of pedagogical theory and pedagogical practices are not only encouraged to become reflective practitioners, but they gain the possibility to use information in a meaningful and constructive way that develops the practice and it ultimately leads to an improved learning environment. Providing them with information about their own practice of teaching and learning, practitioners get the opportunity to act as researchers of their own practice and take responsibility for their own professional learning. At the same time, a systematic critical reflection leads them towards an understanding that learning is a continuous and reflective process that provides them an opportunity for a new understanding of the context in which to learn and teach. This allows them to make expert judgments about the best course of action that will lead to improvements in the environment and in educational outcomes. The stated is in contrast with the experiences of professional development through seminars or workshops that are traditionally performed and that support the idea of the professional development of the educator occurring outside of the school's culture.

Every culture of the educational institution requires a certain competence profile of practitioners and a level of professionalism that allows the synthesis of theoretical concepts and the practical specific achievements. To create such units it is required a stimulant and non hierarchical approach to the research and the changing of the culture of the educational institution. It is based on paradigms where teachers are seen as researchers and reflective practitioners, and their education is seen as a process based on research.

Dissatisfaction with the current quality of teaching practice leads to an analysis of the alternative solutions and to construction of new approaches that have been incorporated into immediate practice. Conceptual changes in culture within the educational institutions are caused by identifying previous conceptions and perspectives and with the comparison of the current practice, new information and designs are created, and a new concept is built and evaluated.

The professionalisation of practitioners includes not only an autonomous responsibility for the quality and nature of the culture of the institution, but also involves changes in the socio-cultural level, which presupposes the participation of all professionals in an institution. The creating and changing of the culture (as a very complex structure of an institution) assumes perception and reflection of its divergent dimensions.

Participation in action researches, the ability of continuous professional learning and improvement, reflecting their own work with children and the evaluation of their effectiveness in the collaboration with colleagues and participation in the preparation of future educators are some of the ways of developing professional competencies of educators.

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CONTRIBUTIONS OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING ASSISTANTS TO UNIVERSITIES IN TURKEY: A CASE STUDY*

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Abstract: As a result of globalization and internationalization of universities, English language has become the dominant language taught and learnt almost all over the world. This dominance of English language has caused universities, schools, private institutions and various language teaching centres to hire native English-speaking teachers (NESTs) in order to offer quality language education for their students especially in English as a foreign language context (EFL). So as to meet this need, the Turkish Fullbright Commission and the Turkish Higher Education Council have initiated a cooperative program called The English Teaching Assistantship. Thanks to this program, English Teaching Assistants (ETA) have been placed to various Turkish universities in recent years. This case study investigates the contributions of ETAs to a state university from both the students and ETAs' point of views. Within this context, semi-structured interviews were administered to both ETAs and their students by the researcher. The results reveal that ETAs contribute to students' language development in that they provide authentic language, increase intercultural competence of the students, and constitute a good source and opportunity for a real communication in the class. In addition, most of the students stated that ETAs really helped them improve their speaking and pronunciation to a great extent, however; they complained about being too nervous while communicating with NESTs.

Keywords: English Language Assistants, intercultural competence, native English-speaking teachers

INTRODUCTION

The number of people learning English has been increasing day by day in the world. Schools and other private institutions provide opportunities for students to learn English and other languages. According to recent statistics on primary and secondary schools in the EU Member States and candidate countries, a great majority of students choose to study English as a foreign or second language. In primary education, learning English is mandatory in several countries. Almost 100 % of students in the EU Member States learn English in primary schools. Foreign language learning statistics in 2013 revealed that 93,8 % of all EU students were studying English as a foreign language. Luxembourg and the Czech Republic were the countries with the highest proportion (100 %) of secondary education students learning two or more languages in 2011. When it comes to Turkey where English is taught as a foreign language, contrary to the situation in most of the EU countries, a dramatic increase can be noticed in the percentage of students learning English in general programmes between the years 2006 and 2011. In 2006, the proportion of students learning English was 67,3 %, but it increased to 99,4 % in secondary education level. This increase indicates the change in foreign language teaching and learning philosophy of the Ministry of National Education of Turkey. This change can also be observed in the tertiary level foreign language education. Most of the state and private universities in Turkey offer one year elective or compulsory language education for undergraduate students. The main objective of this language education, usually called preparatory class, prior to bachelor's degree is to present opportunities to the students for improving four language skills; reading, writing, listening and speaking. In addition, almost all of the departments of English Language Teaching (ELT), English Language and Literature, Translation and Interpreting Studies in English, and Linguistics offer one-year compulsory language education as well. Considering the number of students learning English in Preparatory classes and language-related departments in Turkish universities, the demand for qualified teachers has been increasing each passing day for enhancing the quality of language education. For this reason, proficiency of English Language Teachers is of great importance for the maintenance of the quality. In such a challenging process aiming at success, native English speaking teachers (NESTs) have been available on the stage in order to help non-native English speaking teachers (non-NESTs) cope with the difficulties they face in the English as a foreign language classrooms. With this aim in mind, Turkish Higher Education Council and Turkish Fullbright Commission have initiated a cooperative program called The English Teaching Assistantship. This program enables English Language Teaching Assistants (ETAs) to teach in various Turkish Universities for one or two years. It is estimated that ETAs contributions to language learning process are worth stating, but no research has been reported about them so far in the literature. Especially ETAs' opinions about language learning

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and teaching process in Turkish universities and how they are perceived from the students' point of views need to be explained in order for identifying their contribution to the improvement of language skills of Turkish EFL learners. To this end, it is thought that the answers of the following research questions will highlight the remarkable contributions of ETAs to a specific state university in Turkey in terms of identifying their weak and strong aspects. The research questions to clarify these points are as in the followings:

1. What are ETAs' educational and occupational backgrounds?
2. What are ETAs' opinions about language learning process in EFL context?
3. What are the potential contributions of ETAs to language learning process in the university?
4. What are the perceptions of students about ETAs and their contributions to their foreign language development?

The English Teaching Assistantship

The English Teaching Assistantship is a program which places newly graduates as English teaching assistants in primary, secondary schools, and universities all over the world. The main objective of the program is to help foreign students improve their English language skills together with the knowledge about the United States of America with the help of native speakers. The program also provides U.S. students with the opportunity of improving their language skills and cultural competence of the host countries. The program is sponsored by the Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs, U.S. Department of State. Most of Fullbright ETAs are sent to outside of the capital cities in order to make them integrate with the host community much which has limited interaction with Americans. The candidates can apply through a U. S. institution or At-large in which the candidates must submit their applications through the Embark online application system. The components of the ETA application consist of biographical data, statement of grant purpose, personal statement, foreign language forms, references, transcripts, and critical language enhancement award statement for select countries. The English Teaching Assistantship Program in Turkey has been administered since the 2010 - 2011 academic year with the cooperation of The Turkish Higher Education Council and the Turkish Fulbright Commission. The number of grantees and number of participating host universities have been increasing over the years. In the 2014-2015 academic year, seventy-two U.S. English Teaching Assistantship Grants have been awarded to teach at 36 different universities all around Turkey.

Relevant Studies on NESTs

Native and non-native dichotomy and main characteristic differences between two have remained on the agenda of English Language Teaching (ELT) Methodologists, linguists, and language researchers. However, it can not be said that they have reached a consensus on which one is more advantageous, better teachers, and more or less accomplished. Medgyes (2001:430) defines a native speakers as '... someone who speaks English as his or her native language, also called mother tongue, first language, or L1.' He also scrutinizes native and non-native dichotomy from the linguistic and educational perspectives. He maintains the discussion with the questions 'What are the criteria for native proficiency? What is the cut-off point between native proficiency and various levels of non non-native proficiency' (p.431). In the light of the potential answers to aforementioned questions, Medgyes carries out a survey including 325 teachers from 11 countries in order to validate his assumptions: 1. NESTs and non-Nests differ in terms of their language proficiency, 2. They differ in terms of their teaching behaviour, 3. The discrepancy in language proficiency accounts for most of the differences found in their teaching behaviour, and 4. They can be equally good teachers on their own terms (p.434). According to the results of the survey, Medgyes states that non-NESTs are more or less handicapped with regards to their command of English. NESTs and non-NESTs can be considered as equally effective teachers in terms of their balance in their strengths and weaknesses. He also suggests that language teachers must be evaluated on the basis of their professional qualities rather than their language backgrounds.

The similar results have been reported in several research (e.g. Liu 1999; Kramsch 1997; Nemtchinova 2005; Canagrajah 1999) as well. As for the perceptions of students' about NESTs, most of the research focuses on opinions of students in English as a second language context (ESL). However, Rao's study (2010) highlights Chinese students' perceptions of NESTs in EFL teaching. The study reports the views of 20 Chinese EFL students on the strengths and weaknesses of NESTs in EFL context. According to the results of the study, the strong characteristics of NESTs were listed as: native language authenticity, cultural familiarity, and new methodological insights. As for the weak points, some students thought that NESTs were insensitive to students' linguistic problems and their learning styles. In addition, they were perceived as unfamiliar with local educational and cultural system. The writer suggests that NESTs are qualified as teachers, but they should improve their knowledge about the local cultures and some pedagogic issues related to learners. Another study

conducted in an EFL context is by Chun (2014). The researcher administered a questionnaire to 125 Korean EFL university students. Results of the study revealed that Korean students perceived NESTs and non-NESTs as having both strengths and weaknesses. NESTs were judged more effective in linguistic competence while non-NESTs were more effective in understanding students' needs better and help them with linguistic difficulties they faced thanks to mother tongue use. The study suggests that students can benefit from both NESTs and non-NESTs from different aspects. Although there are numerous studies on NESTs and non-NESTs dichotomy both in ESL and EFL context, research on ETAs and their contributions to language learning and teaching process in periphery countries is very rare. Trent (2012) reports a qualitative study examining the identity construction experiences of six ETAs in an English medium university in Hong Kong. The contribution of ETAs to the internalization of the university was searched and the findings revealed that ETAs confronted important challenges in constructing their identities as teachers and that endangered ETAs' contributions to the internalization goals of the university.

METHOD

The current study is a case study which was conducted in a state university in Turkey. Data collection instrument, procedure, participants, and data analysis parts are presented below.

Data Collection Instrument and Procedure

For the current study, data were collected through semi-structured interviews which were carried out by the researcher. Semi-structures interview type, by its very nature, is commonly conducted in applied linguistic research. Dörnyei (2007:136) points out that 'Although there is a set of pre-prepared guiding questions and prompts, the format is open-ended and the interviewee is encouraged to elaborate on the issues raised in an exploratory manner.' For this reason, we preferred applying semi-structured interview in order not to limit ETAs and their students' opinions. The interview was administered in the fall term of 2014-2015 academic year in a state university in Turkey. The interview with ETAs was recorded and transcribed. As for the interviews with the students, we conducted focus group interviews which enable researchers to collect data from large number of participants.

Participants

Participants of the study consist of two ETAs and sixty undergraduate prep class students. ETAs had been teaching in the university for nearly one semester when the study was initiated. They were teaching *Speaking Skills* course from two to four hours a week to prep class students with various English proficiency. Sixty undergraduate prep class students were chosen randomly and they were interviewed with groups of ten in six sessions. All of the students were attending elective or compulsory prep classes offered by the university. They were taught English from 22 to 26 hours a week by both ETAs and non-NESTs.

Data Analysis

Data obtained with semi-structured interviews were transcribed first, and then they were analysed through pre-coding and coding processes. In the pre-coding process, the transcriptions were read several times by the researcher and some key words related to the topic were highlighted. In the coding process, multi-level procedure which contained open, axial, and selective coding was applied. Categorization was the last step followed in analysing the data.

RESULTS

Results based on the Data from ETAs' Point of Views

ETAs' educational and occupational experiences

One of the ETAs stated that she majored in Political Science. The other one had a BA in English and Theatre. As for their occupational experiences and teaching career, one stated that she had several internships relating to Political science. She maintained as:

"One was at a US non-profit as a fundraising coordinator, two internships abroad (one in Sarajevo and one in London) with development organizations; I have also had one internship with a Turkish think tank, the SETA Foundation. The only teaching experience that I have had was teaching private violin lessons in high school and college as well as some volunteering at summer teaching program for disadvantaged youth."

The other ETA stated that she tutored students in English and Maths in College. She taught theatre to children, and assisted in homeschooling of her siblings. She also added that she worked as a waitress, costume designer, a hostess, and a stage manager.

ETAs' opinions about teaching English to non-natives

Each ETA had different perspectives about teaching English to non-natives. One stated that teaching English to non-native speakers allowed her to better understand her native language, English, offering her a fresh perspective for the students. On the other hand, the other ETA emphasized the importance of cultural immersion and learning a language within a country around the world, and she added:

"I think that it is really important to build relationships and understanding between Turks and Americans. I think that teaching English in the Universities is a great way to build this kind of understanding with young people. My motivation for specifically teaching English is honestly secondary; I have no future plans to teach."

ETAs' opinions about their contributions to the university and prep-class students' proficiency

Both ETAs agreed that the most important contribution they made was about improving students' use of idioms and colloquial phrases. They both complained about low-level students since it was difficult, they stated, to get to any kinds of conversation. One of them stated that:

"I think that the contributions that we can provide as native English speakers are with practical application (what native speakers really say versus what the textbooks teach), pronunciation and colloquial phrases. I think that these skills are best learned from a native speaker no matter which language you are teaching. However, it is difficult to use these skills in the low-level preparatory classes. Many of my students have such a low level of English that I can barely get to any kind of conversation because I must spend the class reviewing what they have learned in their main course or teaching them new vocabulary."

As it can be inferred from the excerpt, practical applications and improvement of pronunciation are accepted as the contributions of ETAs to speaking proficiency of the students. In addition, the other ETA focuses on making students' speech more natural by using the advantage of being native.

ETAs' opinions about their contributions to language skills

Helping the students with pronunciation, fluency, colloquial usages of English and target cultural issues was among the ones both ETAs agreed on. This means that ETAs contribute a lot to the improvement of students' speaking skills and sub-skills like pronunciation together with target culture-related problems. One of the ETAs pointed out that:

"I think fluency and pronunciation are the biggest areas I can help the students in. Because they always are encouraged in the classroom to try to speak, even if they do not know the exact words or grammar. Their fluency is already increasing."

ETAs' opinions about their contributions to students' intercultural competence

One of the ETAs stated that most of the students were uninterested in American culture. However, she said that she would do her best to incorporate cultural issues into her classes. The other ETA was not so pessimist. She focused on the activities such as dialogues based on traditions and practices of another culture in the classroom. This main difference between ETAs' two different point of views can be attributed to the activities and dominance of American culture-specific issues in the classroom. For example, one of the ETAs stated that students were not interested in Halloween so much in one of her classes. That sounds quite natural when we think about Turkish traditions and culture. Instead, native teachers can try to balance Turkish and American culture teaching in classes in the form of exchanging information with their students. One of the ETAs' complaints were like that:

".....whether or not they are willing to learn about another culture is hard to say. It is already clear to me that the vast majority of my students do not know much at all about other cultures. However, when I have tried to teach a lesson centered on certain American holidays (Halloween) the majority of my students have seemed very uninterested. I have and will continue to try to incorporate cultural aspects into my lessons for my students."

ETAs' opinions about potential increase in students' proficiency level

Both ETAs were in the opinion that their students' reading and writing skills are poor. When it came to speaking skill, it was almost non-existent. One of the ETAs was quite optimistic about a gradual increase in students' speaking skill till the end of the academic year while the other one did not think so because of low motivation of students to communicate. One stated that:

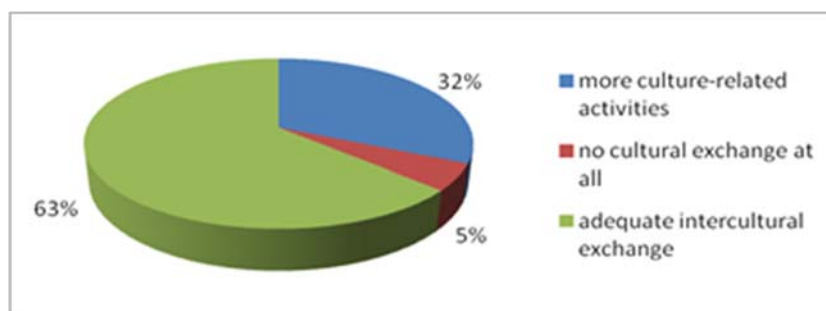
"The students' speaking skills are quite low, but they understand a lot about grammar. I can see the students' speaking skills growing with practice, trial and error. I think they can improve by the end of the year. The ELT classes are great listeners and are slowly gaining courage to try to speak in class."

Results based on the Data from Students' Point of Views

Results based on the data from students' point of views can be divided into five main categories with regard to the in-depth analysis of the students' responses. These categories are issues related to intercultural competence, ETAs' use of authentic language, ETAs as good language models and sources, opportunity for a real communication for the students, and nervousness appearing in the course of communication with native speakers.

Intercultural Competence

Thirty-eight out of sixty students stated that they were content with the intercultural exchange in the lessons. They pointed out that ETAs taught them about American culture and they taught them Turkish one. However, some students stated that culture related activities were not enough, and they needed more about American culture. Few students stated their speaking class did not contain any cultural exchange activities.



Graph 1. Percentage of the students' responses in relation with intercultural exchange

Graph 1 illustrates percentage of the students' responses about intercultural exchange in the speaking classes offered by ETAs. It is obvious that more than half of the students satisfy with the cultural issues taught in the class, but the percentage of the students demanding more culture-related activities cannot be underestimated. Therefore, it is suggested that ETAs include more culture-based activities in the classrooms.

Authentic Language

The vast majority of students thought that one of the advantages of participating in ETAs' speaking class is to be exposed to the authentic language. Fifty-six students stated that they liked listening to ETAs in the class as they were producing authentic language of their own. They maintained that that was a great opportunity for them to get the message at first hand without having to refer to any materials since authenticity was always in their classes. Some of the excerpts from students are presented below;

Student A: "It was a great chance for us to be attending ETAs' class. Being exposed to real English in every speaking class was splendid."

Student B: "People we saw in the videos of our coursebooks were in our class. Their natural speech motivated us to use English more authentically."

Only four students stated that the language ETAs speak was complicated, and they had difficulty in understanding them properly. An example for this is as follows;

Student C: "I could barely understand what ETAs said in the class. That demotivated me and I did not want to attend their classes."

Good Sources and Models

Thirty-five out of sixty students pointed out that ETAs were really good language sources for them. They stated that they could ask them every tiny detail about complex structures and some phrases that they had difficulty in comprehending their meaning by looking up the dictionaries. The rest of the students focused on ETAs' qualifications as Models. They stated that they took ETAs as good language user models in speaking classes. Some excerpts are as follows:

Student D: "I was trying to imitate ETAs after each speaking class, and I was trying to pronounce the words like them."

Student E: "They were real models for us. I would love to be like them."

Few students stated that they could not be like them even if they wanted, since they were native speakers of English. They also added that they did not want to be like them because of their accents and speed of speech. An example for this is as follows:

Student F: "I had difficulty in understanding ETAs due to their thick accents. That turned the lessons into a disaster for me"

Opportunity for a Real Communication

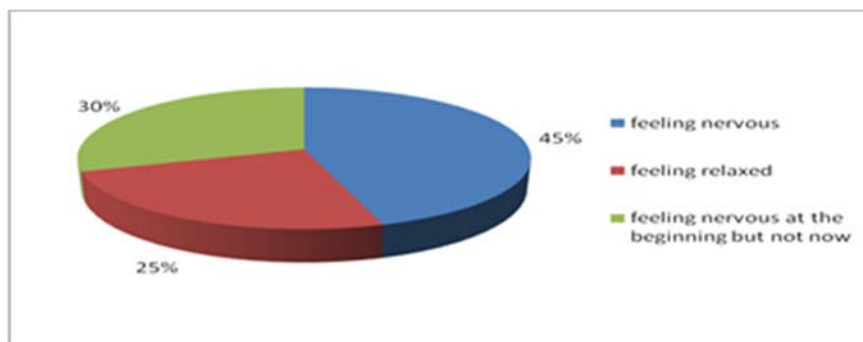
Fifty-one students stated that ETAs' presence in that school was really an opportunity for a real communication. They also pointed out that they felt as if they were communicating for nothing when they were dealing with the tasks in the coursebook. Non-native teachers' courses, they added, were also quite artificial as both the teachers and students could speak Turkish, but they had to communicate in English just for the sake of speaking activities in the coursebook. However, in the speaking courses conducted by ETAs, they needed to say something in English just for the sake of communication. Some excerpts are as follows:

Student G: "Why are we speaking in English in the class where we and the teacher are both Turkish? I think it is just because of course requirements."

Student H: "We had to speak in English in order to communicate with ETAs. Otherwise, they do not understand what we want to say"

Nervousness

Almost half of the students thought that they felt nervous while communicating with ETAs. Some complained about unfamiliar pronunciation, some about speed of their speech, and some about complexity of their speech. Some students stated that they felt nervous at the beginning since it was the first time they were communicating with a native speaker, but their nervousness gradually disappeared. Some other students stated that they felt quite relaxed in the course of communication with ETAs contrary to other students. Percentage of the students in relation with nervousness is illustrated in the graph below:



Graph 2. Percentage of the students' responses in relation with feeling nervous

As it can be illustrated in the graph above, 45 % of the students stated their nervousness in communicating with ETAs. 30 % of the students pointed out that they felt nervous, but it was temporary. They got used to speaking English with ETAs in the course of time. However, 25 % of the students felt relaxed while talking to ETAs. All in all, it can be inferred from these results that nervousness is a great problem in speaking classes of ETAs. Therefore, it is suggested that ETAs should do their best in order to cope with this emotional barrier in their classes.

CONCLUSIONS

This case study was conducted to investigate the perceptions of Turkish EFL students about speaking classes offered by ETAs. The other aim of the study was to uncover the contributions of ETAs to a state university in Turkey. According to the data obtained from semi-structured interviews, ETAs contribute much to students' oral proficiency skills, their use of idioms and colloquial phrases, pronunciation skills, and intercultural competence. In addition, the students participating in the study regard ETAs as good language models and source and authentic language users. They also think that ETAs' availability in their school is really a good opportunity for a real communication. Nervousness in the course of communication is another focus of the students. In the light of all results, it can be concluded that ETAs help Turkish EFL learners improve their communication skills in English to a great extent. It is believed that universities in Turkey should try to find the ways of employing more ETAs in order to provide their students with a quality language education specifically focusing on improving oral communication skills. In this way, speaking which is accepted as a challenging skill in language learning process in Turkey can be improved to a great extent.

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DIGITAL CITIZENSHIP IN TURKEY AND IN THE WORLD: EDUCATIONAL APPLICATIONS AND TECHNOLOGY

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Abstract: Technological developments and movement to the digital era necessitate redefining some concepts or updating existing definitions. While identifying new notions, a gap is observed in the educational and social structure of 21st century. Among the standards of national educational technology, it is emphasized that both student and the teacher are required to have digital citizenship characteristics. Thus, it is thought that the quality in education will be increased. While defining digital citizenship, some elements are essential to mention. These can be listed as digital access, digital commerce, digital communication, digital literacy, digital etiquette, digital law, digital rights and responsibilities, digital health and wellness, and digital security. The present study gives information about digital citizenship through introducing different definitions stated by several researchers in the literature and examined with the educational activities at schools. Furthermore, it is emphasized that investing money on expensive technologies and facilities is not enough to meet the needs for the education of these individuals.

Keywords: Digital citizenship, Digital identity, Digital technology, Educational applications.

INTRODUCTION

Technological developments which are the centre of current information age move people to a digital era. This movement necessitates redefining some concepts or updating existing definitions. To illustrate, the concept of citizenship is defined as “the quality of an individual’s response to membership in a community” (Arthur, Davies and Hahn, 2008). Through technological developments, this concept leads to occurrence of a new term as “digital citizenship.” Digital is described as “using an electronic system that changes sounds or images into signals in the form of numbers before it stores them or sends them” (McIntosh, 2013).

The definitions including these two concepts together are expressed in different ways by authors in literature. Ribble (2011) states that digital citizenship is a new way to think about digital technologies. According to his definition, digital citizenship means using technology appropriately and responsibly. He expresses that focal point is to think about how technology should be used instead of considering about what technology can do. According to Mossberger (2007), this concept is defined as a competence of taking part in a society through an online environment. Çubukçu and Bayzan (2013) express that digital citizen refers to a person using digital technologies properly in digital platforms by knowing ethical rules and responsibilities. In the light of these facts, digital citizenship can be defined as all appropriate activities, ethical and responsible behaviours of a person on electronic media.

DIGITAL CITIZENSHIP

Digital citizenship is a notion which arose from technological innovations and developments of globalising world. In District Administration (2014), it is pointed out that “You need a driver’s license to drive. You need a pilot’s license to fly.” Then it is asserted, “Why don’t you need a license to navigate digital technology?” Even though digital citizenship is considered for all individuals (Gülseçen, Özdemir, Çelik, Uğraş and Özcan, 2013), it is seen that the concept started to be mentioned with the use of personal computers and developing technology in 1980s (Prensky, 2001; Jones, Ramanau, Cross, and Healing, 2010; Palfrey and Gasser, 2008; Tapscott, 2009 and Oblinger, 2003). By the way, the computers started to have an important role in our lives increasingly. This situation caused a turning point in the lives of individuals. While they were not having enough experiences with the digital era as computers, technologies, social networks; they started to have more experiences on the digital era to supply their needs. Educational applications at school may help to individuals to get experiences around the developing technology.

In changing world, the individual’s needs changed, too. These areas of needs include daily life but also the educational experiences. There are some sharers to supply the needs of individuals such as teachers, students, administrators, coaches, and computer science educators (Orhan, Kurt, Ozan, Vural, and Türkan, 2014). In this process teachers should be more oriented while acting the digital citizenship characters at the educational applications. Among the standards of national educational technology, it is emphasized that both student and the teacher are required to have digital citizenship characteristics. One of the performance indicators of National Educational Technology Standards for students is “digital citizenship.” For the teachers, there are five performance indicators. These can be listed as “facilitating and inspiring student learning and creativity, designing and developing digital-age learning experiences and assessment, modelling digital-age work and learning, promoting and modelling digital citizenship and responsibility, and engaging in professional growth

and leadership.” (http://www.iste.org/docs/pdfs/20-14_ISTE_Standards-T_PDF.pdf) For this reason, teachers should carry these characters as define in the standards. Because these teachers who have these character as define in the standards have an important role in the education process. Their usage of technology, method, learning approaches will affect the quality of education. Teachers are also supposed to design materials and activities to meet the educational needs in order to carry digital citizenship characters. It is believed that this attitude enhances the quality. Correspondingly, numerous research and books on digital citizenship are available in national and international literature.

DIGITAL CITIZENSHIP, EDUCATION AND TECHNOLOGY

Our educational activities are surrounded by the technology. Especially, the investment on the educational era is increasing in our country. However, the investment is not enough to supply the students’ needs. Alkan (2011) discusses that the biggest mistake in our country is to establish expensive facilities and to invest for unnecessary technologies because of their results. Meanly, supplying technological environment to the students is not enough to support and encourage the digital citizenship in the schools. Today, expensive educational technologies are not enough for students who can define digital citizenship. However, the characteristics of digital citizenship can be thought as a special identity designed for individuals of the era. This identity provides competence for individuals to use technology in electronic media in an appropriate way. These competences include nine basic elements of digital citizenship. Ribble (2011) lists the elements of digital citizenship as; digital access, digital commerce, digital communication, digital literacy, digital etiquette, digital law, digital rights and responsibilities, digital health and wellness, and digital security. These elements form a basis for digital citizenship. Moreover, they create the digital identity of individuals who have these characteristics.

The schools have to supply the needs of students who define as digital citizenship and encourage them to be the characters of this platform. As listed in the study of Ribble (2011), the characters of digital citizenship are explained on the concept of educational activities at schools. In these concepts, the schools can sustain the educational activities by giving them digital access opportunities. For example, the students can be more active by using the web 2.0 tools and hyperlinks. Moreover, a digital citizen can be exposed to some damages like fraud, malware and plagiarism. For this reason, a digital citizen is able to make analysis on the information reached through online media. Based on digital commerce, use of online shopping and banking, and trading while using these systems are as important as protecting personal information and choosing secure webpages. A digital citizen is supposed to carry out commercial activities without losing any information and data. Otherwise, a person can face with many problems and commercial risk in online media.

The web 2.0 tools have been affecting the digital communications. Using internet in every phase of life has formed a basis for using web 2.0 tools. Widespread use of mobile technologies and improvements in mobile application software are among the developments are important in today’s digital citizenships. Today, members of digital students can communicate through social networks almost everywhere, they can express themselves freely in an online community; they can learn autonomously and carry out several activities. The usage of social networks in the educational process may help them to work in community. However, communicating through internet technology in online media and social network may lead to some interaction problems. Sharing personal information with people who you do not know well during communication may cause violation of right of privacy. Also the students mostly explore the internet sources. The schools may help them to be careful while they are having experiences on the internet. Digital literacy also plays an important role to have digital citizenship. Shifting to the digital eras requires redefining the educational activities. Students who have digital literacy are able to access more easily to the knowledge looked for. Digital literacy has become to gain more importance than the generally known literacy since nowadays a child starts to use digital tools and has experience about these tools before educational activities. Digital literacy includes correct use of internet, effort for reaching right information, sharing the true information on internet and carrying out appropriate educational process based on these features.

Digital etiquette has an impact on the digital environment to define the behaviours of the students. It is essential to be respectful and responsible while using internet tools in online media. For example, an appropriate language and ethical behaviours in online media can be shown as ethical fact. When the ethical behaviours are not regarded, some problems like sharing provoker contents or cyber mobbing tend to occur. The necessity of digital law also should be considered among the educational activities. As in all digital environments, there are some rules on internet. A digital citizen needs to be aware that criminal acts in real life are also seen as crime on internet. Therefore, individuals who commit an illegal act should be reported. On the other hand, most of digital tools offer internet technology. Internet is an environment in which everyone expresses themselves freely. In addition, this freedom should be restricted in order not to bother other people. This balance point is formed through knowing digital rights and responsibilities. For example, there are some rules for using information which will be cited and some responsibilities are available for using this information. In a similar vein, there are

some responsibilities of a digital citizen about injustice behaviours and illegal contents on internet. At that point, individuals have some digital rights and responsibilities in terms of all risk groups on internet.

Health factor in digital environment is mostly seen negatively. While digital citizens are using digital tools, online technologies and computers, they are exposed to physical, psychological and mental diseases. These diseases can be listed as musculoskeletal diseases and mental disorders (especially for children) which stem from internet addiction. It is clear that internet contents are among the factors affecting digital health and wellness in digital citizenship. In digital environment, security has become as important as physical security in daily life. It is predicted that some concepts like cyber security and cyber awareness will be used commonly in this decade. Cyber security gaps and increasing number of cyber-attacks can affect technological systems of countries and digital tools of individuals. Concepts of digital security or cyber security are increasing the prominence of the concepts like internet security and secured internet day by day. A digital citizen is supposed to be careful about personal information security and credibility of web pages on the internet. Furthermore, digital citizens should equip their computers with protective measures such as filtering and anti-virus programs. Otherwise, internet can cause risking elements in terms of security.

STUDIES ON DIGITAL CITIZENSHIP

There are several studies, activities and application on digital citizenship in our country. A short time ago, “Gezi Park” protests showed that digital population in all groups with different standpoints came together in a virtual environment (Babaoğlu, 2013). Similarly, e-state application is a kind of digital citizenship application based on the principle of conducting works through a digital platform. Research assignments of students form an important part of digital citizenship identity as well. An individual analyses the reliability and validity of useful information on digital environment in which he searches for the assignment. He knows the ethical rules about who owns the information and behaves regarding this awareness. He contributes to development of digital culture and digital world with the conscious of rights and responsibilities. Correspondingly, numerous research and books on digital citizenship are available in national and international literature. Some of these studies can be summarized as below;

In their book “Digital Citizenship in Schools”, Ribble and Bailey (2007) explain why educators, students and parents should care about digital citizenship. Using various technologies and our interaction with these technologies has created a digital society. This digital society provides its members opportunities for education, employment, entertainment, and social interaction. The authors emphasize the importance of digital citizenship. Moreover, they offer professional development activities to help educators for integrating digital citizenship concepts into the classroom.

Another source is “Teaching with Digital Images: Acquire, Analyse, Create, Communicate” written by Bull and Bell (2005). In the book, it is suggested that digital cameras provide new opportunities for the classroom. Students like the technology, and digital devices can be used for curricular objectives. The topics of the book include digital photography, digital images, curriculum design, technology integration and lesson plans. In consideration of this study, it can be said that the teacher can use these digital technologies to supply educational needs of students.

Nebell, Jamison and Bennett (2009), in their study entitled “Students as Digital Citizens on Web 2.0” examined how new technologies can be integrated into the curriculum and classroom environments. They designed learning experiences related to digital citizenship with the aim of preparing students for participating fully in the world of the Internet. The authors provide some examples of Internet sites and activities that a teacher can use to incorporate the skills, knowledge, and responsibilities of digital citizenship into an elementary classroom setting.

Farmer (2011), in the study entitled “Teaching Digital Citizenship”, highlights that educators need to teach the learning community about digital citizenship. In this way, according to the author, everyone can understand, address, and prevent technology abuse. In the light of these, the author gives definition of digital citizenship and discusses its effects on individuals and the learning community at large. Besides, the author makes some suggestions for strategies in digital citizenship education.

Kaya and Kaya (2014) also investigated Computer and Instructional Technology Education teacher candidates’ perceptions of digital citizenship in their study. The findings of the study showed that the majority of prospective teachers associated the concept of digital citizenship with digital technology as facilitating individual’s life. It was apparent that the concept was perceived correctly. Findings revealed that teacher candidates mostly use digital technology for social networking, online shopping and searching something for their assignments. Digital commerce, one of the nine elements of digital citizenship, is used by all prospective teachers.

Bensghir (2000), in his study titled “Communication of Citizen and Government by E-mail” emphasized the effective role of digital communication between citizen and government. He also investigated the interactive communication, participatory and collaborative management between government and citizen. This study

pointed that the e-mail may contribute to effective use of digital communication. This means the government is trying to encourage the citizen to use new digital technologies while communicating.

Aktürk, Yazıcı and Bulut (2013), in their study “The Effects of the Use of Animations and Digital Maps in Social Studies on Students’ Spatial Perception Skills” find out that students in the experimental group who were exposed to the use of animations and digital maps had higher academic performance than those did in the control group. These findings may bring light for teacher to use the digital technologies in their educational applications as an indicator of National Standards of Technology.

The studies on developing digital technologies are not limited to those studies. There are also some digital technologies to make easier the people’s lives in Turkey and in the world. According to Lu (2011) and Gonzales and Rossi (2011), there are smart cities applications in the world to economic regulation, social management and control in many areas of public services to the market by using Information and Communication Technology in the lives of individuals. For example, some traffic lamps have the smart system like sensor (Gülseçen, Özdemir, Çelik, Uğraş and Özcan, 2013). It helps people to make easier their lives. Meanly, it is clearly based on the digital technologies. These applications are the results of to be the citizen of digital decade. At the same time, school applications should be based on the digital applications to help the students’ digital citizenship.

CONCLUSION

The present study gives information about digital citizenship through introducing different definitions stated by several researchers in the literature. It is emphasized that investing money on expensive technologies and facilities is not enough to meet the needs for the education of the individuals. Instead, the teachers are required to support education using related materials, activities and applications to enhance learning. In addition, the study summarizes particular studies about digital citizenship in the literature and focuses on the importance of the era we live in. As a conclusion, national educational technology standards for teachers (2008), shows us teacher should be digital model to the students (Orhan et al, 2014) at the educational experiences. The digital model of teachers should serve the components of digital citizenship, encourage them to carry the characters of digital citizenship, support their rights and responsibilities while being digital citizenship by using the technologies truly at the educational applications.

Looking at the afore-mentioned studies, it is possible to assert that increasing number of digital citizenship and new identities in the world is really striking fact. It is significant that educators and parents are required to be more sensitive about digital citizenship. They are responsible for raising students who have proper features for national educational technology standards.

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DIGITAL EDUCATION, DEVELOPING TECHNOLOGY, TRADITIONAL EDUCATION TOOLS, A CRITICAL AND EXPERIMENTAL LOOK TO NEW STUDENTS

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Abstract: Traditional education tools started to change and evolve since the invention of first personal computer in 1970's (Paul, 2003: 11). This irresistible change informed the world based on individual, it also changed education tools.

The aim of this article is to handle positive and negative effect developing new technologies on digital education; comparing with traditional methods in general if for understanding the effect of digital age on education with a student centered experimental and critical view.

Keywords: Digital education, developing technology, advanced technology, traditional education tools, digital education tools, new student, experimental, critical.

Introduction

Thanks to developed technology to become widespread, it is better to say that the habitat of human / human beings was undergone metamorphosis. This unforeseen high speed change / transformation did not only started seventy years ago by the invention of first personal computer in 1970, it also gave some hint about the current foreseen use of technology not to everybody but to those who put the computer into the service of common people in 1983 (Paul, 2003 11). Television that interrupted face to face communication at least was required to share the same space. Upon it found a space for itself in bedrooms, this condition changed too. Today, they are replaced by their up to dated versions: tablet computers, smart phones etc. to name a few. They started to be in the form of devices equal as well as more than the number of individuals in a family.

A research says that there is at least one computer in every home. In rich families, this percentage is 100 % where this percentage is at least one computer in every three house of poor families. Besides, in every three family out of four has internet connection at home and this ratio to be in 40 % 's in poor families, and having e – mail or Facebook account is at 80 % even at second grade students of primary school gives us adequate clue about the connection of families and their children with technology and their technology dependence. The same is valid for cell phones. Cell phone usage rate is 70 % among second grade students of primary school where it is 90 % among secondary school students. Besides, two out of every three secondary school student has internet connection in their phone (Akyürek, 200 : 80).

What is meant in Digital Education is the usage of multiple communication devices. There is not yet a unified identification of digital education. As we look at its historical development, we can see the concept of Smart Classes that entered our Education – Teaching life starting from primary education. For example, starting by 1998 – 1999, we can see three computers (desk top computers) in each classroom of Mef Schools. Public schools also included such digital possibilities into their curriculum.

When we have a look at our traditional education – teaching tools, we see that we used to have black (or green) board and dusty chalks, than it is replaced by white board and marker, for presentation we had acetate papers and overhead projector.

Even though it looks inevitable to transform digital age to digital education, in developed countries, the issue received necessary attention to manipulate the system and rooted educational traditions used digital possibilities as a complementary element of education.

This article will neither talk about digital education or traditional education at length. Due to the reasons that there is not a unity in education, even this does not have a clear definition (See The Law of The Unity of Education 1924). Instead of this, questions such as; are we ready to examine the route we follow in education and teaching? How will this transition be carried out? How was the student in the past? Why? How will the new students be? Were tried to be understood, foreseen and healthy recommendations were tried to be given.

Let's have a look at the fact that how learning might be maintained under normal conditions:
Conditions of learning:

You can not change your innate capacities. You can improve the success in learning by better environmental conditions. Current level of success in most of the people nowadays is less than the real capacity of that person. For these people do not know how to improve their current capacities, they have accepted this level as a destiny, and they used to believe that this is all they could do (Özakpınar, 2001: 9).

If a person approaches at education with desire and determination, that person will perceive the thing he / she is going to learn with a keen dedication. He / she will observe the important parts of the content without losing sight of it. Mind of the individual who starts with interest and determination will not deal with the words but the meaning they bear. The mind that is interested in the meaning of the thing to be learned is not a passive system; it is a selective, interpretative, organising and internalising system. Another point to be taken into consideration is that outsourcing the desire and determination artificially will not work. Desire and determination should derive instantaneously by the mind eager to learn based on the relationship with the content to be learned. If the mind is supplied with the content to perceive and internalise by the current capacity, the mind takes action. The secret of putting mind into action is to supply mind with content that are vague in that it can embrace the mind as well as the content that can be perceived by it with a slight effort (Özakpınar, 2001: 11).

If the level of learning material content is adjusted to the mind perceives level, desire and determination of learning reveals instantaneously. If content is already known, no problem such as learning difficulty prevails. On the other hand, if the content is in the level not to be perceived by the mind, so, there is no point in insisting on learning. Yet, a content that is not known and that might be learned by paying effort calls the attention of the mind: it triggers the wish to learn. A level of difficulty which both challenges the mind and that also gives opportunity to succeed is a required type of content. The content with the most appropriate level looks like vague at the first sight (Özakpınar, 2001: 11). But it gives the idea that it can be understood by our current knowledge. The mind that tries and recognises that it is going to succeed wishes to learn the content. There is a connection here like the one between being eager to solve crossword puzzle and its difficulty. If the crossword puzzle is very easy, solving it neither enjoys the mind nor gives an opportunity to present its skills. A very easy crossword puzzle does not bear a wish to solve. If the crossword puzzle is very difficult, it will not deliver a hope to solve it. In this case, solving crossword puzzle creates weariness; the wish fades away (Özakpınar, 2001: 12).

The level of success depends on the increase in these dynamics, they are: Studying plan, emotional effect, desire, dedication, will and mind (Özakpınar, 2001: 21).

If an appropriate studying method is not adopted based on psychological principles such as learning, memorising and thinking that form the main activities of studying lesson, the energy flows with no reason. The will debilitates. The student disappoints and dislikes studying. Thus, by the activities of desire and dedication, discipline and studying, combination of studying method composed of learning, memorising and psychology of thinking is necessary (Özakpınar, 2001: 23).

So, what is learning?

Learning and memory: Although we have a valid learning definition at hand, we can come across with incoherence's with this definition. We call them grey areas. They are; discrimination between maturation and learning together the ones between biology and environment.

Is it environment that cause behavioural change? Or is it biology? The border between learning and other changes that derive from experience are not almost always clear. For instance, we claim that we learn through experience, but we know that the brain is affected by the development of experience. When mature rat siblings are subjected to an enriched environment including other rat siblings and toys, it is found out that development is observed both in nerve cells and their connection of hippocampus responsible from learning in brain. Rats raised in enriched environmental conditions are more successful than rats raised in standard conditions concerning tasks like knowing and smelling the new items. Long term changes based on experience included in the literature are identified by learning in some certain situations; however it is almost impossible to call the product as learning in some others. Another grey area about the definition of learning is; the discrimination between learning and maturing. The main problem here is that learning and maturing are in interaction with each other. In terms of development, babies learn to sit first. Afterwards, they stand on foot and then they walk. In a classical experiment, Gesell and Thompson practices one of the twins with ladder walking up, and they did not practice

the same to the other. In the result, it is found out that the baby who lacks this practice gained the ability only one week after the other (Cangöz, 2012: 15).

Learning is rather long term changes in behaviour of behaviour literature based on experience. Temporary behavioural changes caused by ups and downs in attention, motivation and stimulation levels are excluded from this definition. Researchers studying learning commonly came across with innate behaviours or the behaviours that reveal as a result of maturation (Cangöz, 2012: 19).

On the Origin of Species published in 1859 by Darwin has effect not only on biology but also learning. In the theory of evolution that forms the basis of this study, Darwin explains how the organism changes to adopt its environment. In order to prove this, he focuses on the changes within a specific species. Said differences increase the organism's possibility of survival and multiplication. If the individual differences are transferred to next generations, the features related to adaptation will evaluate (Cangöz, 2012: 6).

We can consider digital education tools as instrumental conditioning tools

Instrumental conditioning can be inserted in computer games for older children or university students where instrumental reaction task is fulfilled by pushing certain keys in keyboard. For instance students can be told that each time they press the "space" key, they will be playing a market game in which they will use some amount of their money for investing; the computer displays the profit or interest won on the screen as "reward" (Cangöz, 2012: 158).

"When university students play this market game, an instrumental condition is adjusted to space key for revealing certain numbers of reward upon certain amount of clicks on this key (Cangöz, 2012: 160). In positive reinforcement, reinforced instrument depends on carrying out the reaction (Cangöz, 2012: 159).

In the group where there is no dependence on condition, the same amount of win is obtained: but this amount is randomly distributed by the computer and it does not depend on clicking on the keys (Cangöz, 2012: 160). Rewarded group, will push the key more than the group whose reward is no depended on behaviour. If you as these students, they will explain that subjects in reward group, behaviour causes the behaviour. Subject in the control group on the other hand will not perceive a relationship between reaction and reward. Reinforcer in the form of behaviours is the systematic application of learning principle. Instrumental learning is different in human beings. Using out of conscious (Cangöz, 2012: 160 – 177 - 183).

So, how teaching is carried out in education – teaching in our country?

Does the method by which we learn our mother tongue affects our whole life?

First of all, how we learn our mother tongue?

Although there is an ever changing approach in this regard; it will be important with what methods the teachers who will involve in this change learned their mother tongue since it will be important in their ability to teach. In his work called "Language and Learning", Noam Chomsky states that: in the brain, "*there is a place for language learning*". The baby learns the language in family, the social environment where he born in, or by *interaction* with "meaningful others" (person who looks at it) (Chomsky, 2001: 20). Induction is subjected to language by an umbrella view. In other words, a baby hears, sees, feels, touches and learns the equivalent of a sentence in real life. But we including the author of this article learn to read and write our mother tongue by syllabising. In other words, it is the method of induction. Thus, natural development process of language is halted when we start school. However, human mind is designed to learn the whole better than the single in such maturity of learning language. Contrary to other sciences, deduction method is important for this reason. It is again based on the same reason that we learn to read and write late and it turns out to be a painful process (rewarding by red ribbon). This is not a simple thing. There is a close connection between language and thinking and your way of learning language affects your way of thinking. A behaviour not to see the whole can be obtained just because of learning a huge society language. When language, consequently though is a matter of question, an umbrella approach will be unavoidable. When giving meaning is a matter of question among the approaches of semiology or the case included semantics, it is necessary to use a cure all or deductive method (Rifat, 2009: 13). It is the sole reason of teaching foreign language for six years in public schools. When we simplify our terms, if the student learns his / her mother tongue, reading and writing in the conditions where speaking is learned, he / she both will learn it easily and correctly. Although they start to teach mother tongue in primary schools by deduction method, it should be kept in mind that, this will be obtained by teaching students by teachers who learned how to read and write their language by deduction method.

In Vygotsky System, language has an important place in mental development (Haktanır 2010: 14). It is thought that the biggest effect of the language in general is related to the content of language. What we thought and know is affected by the symbols and concepts we have. Vygotsky states that language has a great role on knowing. Language is a real mechanism and a mental tool for thinking. It is a process where external experience transforms into internal meaning. *Language makes thinking more abstract, flexible* and independent of close range environmental stimulations. Language recalls and helps to articulate related estimations about future with a new method. The more children use symbols and concepts about thinking; they will not need the presence of the object to think about it. Language helps the child to dream, create and transform new ideas, and share them with others. This is in a sense one of the social interchange means. Thus, language has two roles; it is a means in the development of cognition and it is a part of cognitive process (Haktanır, 2010: 22). As the children conducts assimilation, the self-learning of the children is permanent (Ökpınar, 2010: 38).

In the natural course of life, the child learns the mother tongue by forming a tight relationship / bond between language and reality. Language is a symbolic means required to form communication and comprehend the world. The children speaks to state its wishes to the elders, ask them the things he / she wonders and shape his / her ideas and observations based on the answers of the adults. The child states the things that call his / her attention in a questioning tone to the adults. According to their response (Özakpınar, 2010: 44), the child questions his / her thoughts. When he / she does not consider the answer complete or correct, he / she will direct consecutive questions. If the child is content based on its point of view, he / she accepts the answer. If the child is not content but its experience is not enough to ask new questions, the child get mute, but this silence is delaying the questioning until enlightening data arrives.

The child observes and thinks. The child uses these two criterions that are obtained by all researchers who look for truth diligently at the extreme. Once discovering that speaking / sounds are symbols to represent truth in the mind, the children initiates the environment they are told with reality and tries to figure out what is tried to be explained (Özakpınar, 2010: 45).

Child is a real entity in a real world. Its connection with the world is a concrete one. It obtains its knowledge based on the requirements of this reality. There is no artificial, temporary thing. Now, the child is no more an unconscious entity depended on external effect through representing the world in mind by language symbols and designs the things to do in symbolic plan (Özakpınar, 2010: 41).

The children hadn't learned the structural features, namely rules of the language apart from how to call what; the child obtained the skill of comprehending speech patterns it came across even in the environments it is part of (Özakpınar, 2010: 41) and forming sentences based on those speech patterns. Its grammar is a skill by all means. Knowing what to do, and articulate how it is done in words is something different from being able to do this thing. A person who learns how to articulate verbally has not yet obtained that skill; it only obtained the information related to the skill (Özakpınar, 2010: 46).

All learning of child is not memorising the words hanging in the air that do not have connection with the reality; they are the experiences driven from the *interaction* between events other than itself (Özakpınar, 2010: 51). However, it is the route we follow in learning how to use our mother tongue and it also can be considered as the source of memorising education because *in interaction, the mind* is in process.

The adults have a skill to learn about their processes. They benefit from discussions and brain-storming done about their learning processes. The adults can know how to learn by themselves (Baron, Tustingi 2010: 85).
How about Children?

All educators who are aware of the problem brought out by a memorising and authoritative education and teaching will new searches within the framework of their possibilities. Without any question (İpşiroğlu, 2002: 11), knowing a foreign language means knowing the said culture with this or that way. A constant reality both in foreign language and fields of literature and other fields of science, higher education does not exceed being cut away from life and abstract transmitting. Whatever you tell about rules of literature to a person who does not read a book in their life, it is baseless. For this reason, students rush from lesson to lesson, they take notes and memorise them, if they have no interest, they even choose not to enter courses. Then, they prepare for the exams from somebody else's notes but the result is the same, both interested and uninterested, the one who wants to learn and the one who doesn't, they all are stored abstract data and they stuck in the end (İpşiroğlu,

2002: 15). Unless the problem is considered as a main problem of culture and fundamental changes do not appear, it is clear that the cultural status of the student will deteriorate every passing day (İpşiroğlu, 2002: 116).

In “our Universities that have a name but no a self, it is clear that as a sign of being an extension of distorted teaching system, thinking is replaced by memorising and reading is replaced by data storing. Students whose minds are filled with data that is cut off from life since early primary school years are not approached with a different method in their University Education. Taking notes, memorising, visa exam, exam cycle at cross purposes resumes. There is a problem of youth who has no idea about what is *independent thought*. The students whose development is prevented through various pressures, will be prone to be affected by simple advertisement for they are devoid of *skill to think independently* (İpşiroğlu, 2002: 15).

“ .. I am neither a teacher, nor scientist; I am only trying to think.” Was science and being a teacher coincide with thinking? I can understand more clearly in this period where scientist have not time for science, teachers continuously bombard students with encyclopaedic information and are away from thinking, looking at the questions from a critical point. In the light of my father’s criticism harsh in one time encouraging on the other, I was trying to learn how to think about a subject with all respects and how to express the scientific language of the thoughts away from dryness. By the way, there were obstacles to be pass over; first of them is *the more abstract and meaningless you utter or write, the more you are admired and you are considered scientific*. The other is *the more you fill the mind of students with encyclopaedic data, the more you receive respect* and it is not easy to learn and teach how to think in a society that is not used to thinking. To the students who got used to data transmission (İpşiroğlu, 2002: 17) and memorising for years, when you ask for their own comments regarding a poem, short story etc. they read, they are puzzled. For they do not know thinking and comprehend its necessity, there are a handful of thinkers appearing each season and their thoughts are listened, notes are memorised and their thoughts are adopted. Although these “*thinkers*” show university teaching not as hopeless as it seems, the tradition of memorising resume its affects at a grate scale (İpşiroğlu, 2002: 18).

The habit of reading books can be obtained by improving level of education and adopting a habit of reading to children from early childhood (İpşiroğlu, 2002: 39).

First of all, rethinking on the things to be done in Education . . .

How the critical thinking be thought?

Towards a healthy education.

- 1 . Suggesting love of reading to students,
- 2 . Preparing ad lesson program that is focused on thinking,
- 3 . It is difficult for a student who did not obtain habit of reading in primary school to obtain it at university. But a subject to call the attention of the student may help to correct this problem (İpşiroğlu, 2002: 47).

Our teaching system is based scholastic teaching. Karl Jaspers identifies scholastic teaching as follows; in scholastically teaching, the teacher is not a researcher but a transmitter. There are certain books used. Teacher is only the spokesman of these books. In this respect, personality of the teacher is not a matter of question; another individual can easily substitute him. The teaching material is filled with some certain structures. The aim is to internalise and teach these structures. Scholastically teaching mainly depends on teacher’s dominancy on the student without any question. The reason of our education system to be based on scholastical teaching is based on tradition of Madrassa affected by our religion according to İpşiroğlu.

2 . The problem of university reform: It was in the agenda when Ottoman University was closed and when İstanbul University was constituted for the first time. Before Professor Mlache prepared his report about the foundation of the University, he declares that he conversed with Turkish students and learned that the students confined themselves with repeating their professors and do not eager to discuss openly. In this respect, the reason of new university formed was getting clearer. İstanbul University was to teach Turkish youth free thought. Teaching was not confined in abstract level but make its route towards reality and not to the tradition of transmitting but research (İpşiroğlu, 2002: 101).

As we can not see a development preparing the past and present and shed light to future, we are roaming in vicious circle (İpşiroğlu, 2002: 102).

As this was the situation, the reason for equipping the education – teaching with tablet computers looks as if the EU programs where Turkey is a part of because one of the EU programs is: Life - long Learning Programme. Specific objectives of Life - long Learning Programme (LLP) are as follows:

- By improving the capacity of life – long learning programme, having high performance, innovation and Europe dimension to be developed together with entire system and applications,
- Forming European life – long learning programme area,
- Together with improving the feeling of European Citizenship based on human rights and democracy basis of life – long learning, improving social reconciliation, intercultural dialogue, gender equality and understanding,
- *Promotion of innovative IT (Information Technologies) base scientific approaches and encouraging language learning and versatility,*
- In order to reach below mentioned targets, people of all ages including the ones with special needs and disadvantaged groups are supported to participate in life – long learning irrespective of their socio – economical background (Toygür, 2012: 8).

IT approaches valid in life – long learning can be designed for the whole education – teaching life starting from primary school. However, we have the said problem in this land that start in the past and still valid. We shouldn't have started these applications before recognising and thinking over them.

Digital communication means to be widespread in University Education caused financial powers to take action in this field as a profitable sector area. University education became a part of financial race (Portnoi, 2010: 17).

Education unions are using the comparison in order to increase the performances by observing the results of applications since 1990. Comparison in education unions has been based commonly on *school performance* and financial planning (Ensari, 2009: 95).

E – Education is a part of it. While supplying individuals with the ability to configure, fast update, educative materials in electronic environment including different technologies into learning process, 24 / 7 availability based on suitable time; it is a formation where institutions serve and transfer their educations. In e – learning processes, e – communication technologies gain more effectiveness. Especially internet based distant education systems puts away the concept of time and place in education / teaching by in-situ connection of human resources in world of work power, education / teaching and it enables the highest amount of success (Demirci et, al., 2011: ix).

Since 1999 in schools of Turkey, Total Quality Management application EFQM perfection model has been practiced. Thus, by Total Quality Management getting widespread, importance of comparing which is a management means increased (Ensari, 2009: xii).

On the other hand, the process of operation starts with attention. By the means of digital communication, colourful / appealing environments could be maintained. Stimulants that do not call attention vanishes away. The individual discriminates some of the stimulants from inside and outside consciously, and for some of them, the individual discriminates instantaneously. In another words, selection can be selective and instantaneous. Selective attention is under the supervision of the individual. Individuals have the capacity to divert their cognitive powers towards certain sources of data in the environment. Effective learning depends on the selectivity skill of the individual (Ulusoy, 2007: 377).

Storing the data in short time memory is approximately 20 seconds. In the end of this duration, the data vanishes away. The data taken to short time memory; is repeated in the limitation of time and its proficiency can be increased by grouping. Continuous repeating will activate the data and help the data stored in the memory to be used. The research's say that short time data is limited to 5 – 9 unit data. Transferring the data to long time memory; depends on the process used and open and covered repeating. If the data is repeated in adequate frequency, it is transferred to long time memory. Repeating is conducted in two ways; verbal and in mind. The role of the individual in repeating process is important. By the process of repeating, the individual should be active rather than passive in learning. Besides, intermittent repeating is more effective than continuous repeating. Coding: It is initiating the data present in long time memory with the one in short time memory and transferring it (Ulusoy, 2007: 377). 1 . Activity: Learning is the individual's being active; According to the theory of data processing, data is not a recessive receiver of the individual but itself an affective individual carrying its own leaning responsibility. The individual does not suck the data in itself like a sponge; instead, it prepares and structures the data in its long term memory for storing. 2 . Organisation: it is a process that conducts; preparation

or data groping, forming consistent structures and help coding (Ulusoy, 2007: 380). 3 . Articulation: It is the process of increasing relationship and explanation between articulation and data units which is an effective strategy in placing the date in long term memory (Ulusoy, 2007: 381).

4 . Memory supporting hints: By forming hints that are not present naturally, it helps coding. In another words, in times where natural connections are no more valid, they form communication by creating associations (Ulusoy, 2007: 382).

You can not change your innate potential. You can improve your success by adjusting more feasible conditions. Success levels of most of people are under their potential capacity. For these people do not know how to increase their level of success, they adopted that level as a destiny and they came to believe that their current level of success is their capacity (Özakpınar, 2001: 9).

In the individual approaches and the act of learning with desire and dedication; it can comprehend the content to learn with a grate attention. The individual observes the important parts of the content without missing any point. The mind of individual who starts with desire and dedication focuses not on the words but their meaning. The mind that is interested in the meaning of the content it is going to learn is not a passive system; it is as selective, interpretive, organising and internalising system. Another point to be taken into consideration is that outsourcing the desire and determination artificially will not work. Desire and determination should derive instantaneously by the mind eager to learn based on the relationship with the content to be learned. If the mind is supplied with the content to perceive and internalise by the current capacity, the mind takes action. The secret of putting mind into action is to supply mind with content that are vague in that it can embrace the mind as well as the content that can be perceived by it with a slight effort (Özakpınar, 2001 : 11).

If the level of learning material content is adjusted to the mind perceives level, desire and determination of learning reveals instantaneously. If a content is already known, no problem such as learning difficulty prevails. On the other hand, if the content is in the level not to be perceived by the mind, so, there is no point in insisting on learning. Yet, a content that is not known and that might be learned by paying effort calls the attention of the mind: it triggers the wish to learn. A level of difficulty which both challenges the mind and that also gives opportunity to succeed is a required type of content. The content with the most appropriate level looks like vague at the first sight (Özakpınar, 2001: 11). But it gives the idea that it can be understood by our current knowledge. The mind that tries and recognises that it is going to succeed wishes to learn the content. There is a connection here like the one between being eager to solve crossword puzzle and its difficulty. If the crossword puzzle is very easy, solving it neither enjoys the mind nor gives an opportunity to present its skills. A very easy crossword puzzle does not bear a wish to solve. If the crossword puzzle is very difficult, it will not deliver a hope to solve it. In this case, solving crossword puzzle creates weariness; the wish fades away (Özakpınar, 2001: 12). The level of success depends on the increase in these dynamics, they are: Studying plan, emotional effect, desire, dedication, will and mind (Özakpınar, 2001: 21).

If an appropriate studying method is not adopted based on psychological principles such as learning, memorising and thinking that form the main activities of studying lesson, the energy flows with no reason. The will debilitates. The student disappoints and dislikes studying. Thus, by the activities of desire and dedication, discipline and studying, combination of studying method composed of learning, memorising and psychology of thinking is necessary (Özakpınar, 2001: 23).

The necessity of thinking, trying and serving all of these digital communication tools by dividing them into place, time, subject etc. that it will contribute in education – teaching comes to fore. Is the data reached for normal conditions of education and teaching are reached in digital communication tools?

If all these data pertaining data acquisition methods are to be uses as a dominant means in education starting by primary school onwards, the necessity of reorganising and preplanning them for digital education tools came to fore.

In the process of planning normal education – teaching environment:

In the children having innate potential, the important is the possibility for them to meet environments to reveal this potential, because the potential is not revealed instantaneously in most of the cases. If the children meet wrong stimulants, they can consider themselves silly. They can interpret the failure not caused by the material

but by their own mistakes. When this idea is stable in the mind of the child, it is highly difficult to erase it (Selçuk, 2004: 108).

When teachers plans the lesson or making plans, the issue to be kept in mind at first should be what to do in the step of calling attention. The methods of calling attention are; making continuous eye scan in the classroom, using word like “ready” before start, removing attention distracting effects before starting the course, asking the questions to students from the list at random basis, knowing how to use the voice, ups and downs of teacher’s voice, writing key words related to the subject told at the white board, making eye contact etc. (Selçuk, 2004: 178 – 179).

Project based, technology supported learning applications in primary school 5th grade classes; an example for the beginning years of project based, technology supported learning applications in primary school 5th grade classes: It was carried out in 2005 – 2006 education year winter semester in Eskişehir Province, Lawyer Mail Büyükerman Primary School (Ersoy, 2007: vi). The students prepared their projects by using multiple media features in PowerPoint presentation and by combining their project reports, and formed a book named “Lets Learn Eskişehir”. In general, the students state that they like the project. Some of them state that they have problems because of broken down diskettes, searching in the net and presentation preparation. The teachers stated that they were worried in pre – PTO process. But upon application of PTO, they mentioned that PTO is both profitable for them and their students. Devices such as computer, internet, television, digital photograph machine are used. Student oriented problems are; noise in the classroom, forgetting the diskette studied on at home, brokered down diskettes, chatting in the net during the class, playing games and being not able to check the validity of the information present in the internet. Teacher oriented problems are; making negative criticism about some students, not giving adequate feedback to the presentation of students, not forming the cells heterogeneously and not telling the students evaluation part adequately. School oriented problems are; IT technologies, inadequacy of the number of computers in classes, improper classroom location and lack of new technologies (Ersoy, 2007: vii).

Mind today is evaluated from a structure of new information requirement that focuses calmly but where less amount of information is served to a short overridden structure and it is evolved with the motto of “the faster is the better”. But, as it is said by Karp in 2008, we are trying to play the game based on both the old and the new rules but we are not wholly depended on these rules. We are not wholly depended on both new and old rules (Demirci, Yamamoto: 2011: v). This case of being dependent and independent should be well calculated and adapted on the conditions of our country when the arena of education – learning is a matter of discussion.

RESULT

Education is a force to enable constructing interdependent and participative societies and *train multidimensional and acknowledged citizens*. The investment on today’s human capital and especially education; has arrived at an important status in determining strategies for determining social unity and whole employment, economic growth, progress and welfare.

Education and learning are multidimensional phenomenon. Education has a great role in development of the countries. Education in essence is an economical investment. *Increasing the work force for the needs of country with education, accelerating structural development of improvement of economy can be maintained by increasing the productivity in production and producing higher employment possibilities*.

Increasing economical effectiveness *based on work force by education* can be supplied by human capital or labour force in literature.

Human capital in general is innately owned by the individual and obtained later on (Eby et. Al., 2012: 23).

Development of human source from cultural and social aspects opens the roads that lead to modern civilisation. Education factor in globalising world is a concept commonly related to many variables such as; human capital, growth, development, employment, technology, productivity, price, earning, culture etc. (Eby et. Al., 2012: 24).

Making the best use of human capital means to construct the future of our society on behalf of our society.

To do this, together with other features that is tried to be explained in this article, environmental preparation for traditional education tools called “educable time” should be re - organised this time for digital means of communication. First of all, these activities should be carried out, and then the students who will use these means of digital communication will be acknowledged with updated information continuously through education about in which media they start to present themselves, afterwards those devices might be given to them with an heart at peace and this will act as an assisting factor.

In the article by Ferit Edgü about Turkish politician’s “Connection with Art and Culture”, the author tries to imply that we are grown up with a higher culture than European countries, I agree with this. For the fact that we are not ahead of European countries in terms of technics, they consider us illiterate. For me in short, in terms of technics, we are more illiterate then them, and in terms culture, they are more illiterate then us (İpşiroğlu, 2001: 23).

Starting by primary school now, does using digital means of communication makes us superior in terms of technic?

One of my findings in this study is that, the type of learning mother tongue affects type of thinking in later ages. My desire of research derive from the supposition by Canadian and British Lecturers in Bağaziçi University YADYOK prep class to us, the graduates of public high schools, that “do not divide the language and put it into pieces continuously”. I resolved at the idea that independent thinking occurs based on the type of reading – writing learning of mother tongue from that point and I tried to shed light in this issue here in this article. My interest in this field will continue at a great scale.

In developing countries such as us, considering the developing technology as a field of income and interest and in such a fundamental and less develop and still problematic status in education, it is of utmost importance to calculate the results.

While TV is number one child dilatory factor in houses and is a device opened by many as soon as the person wakes up, and while tablet computers act as an extension of human body instead of books starting from early primary school to years of university education, it tries to give the impression that we are trying obtain knowledge by smart digital devices, we are trying to borrow “mind” and try to be “knowledgeable”.

Such digital equipment cause damages such as; obesity, circulation disorders, a un-sociability and addiction due to continuous sitting: is the radiation received by children and the youth from these equipment, damages by led screens, results of magnetic field pollution are discussed and calculated?

European countries should act in this field that; demolishes written and verbal expression, uses a distinctive type of communication, and forms a world based on clicking, dragging and monitoring and take necessary measures. Although their education – teaching system is not depending on memorising, they are discussing this field at a great scale.

“Critical, self-guided human thought” that we consider forming the basis of humanity without any question, can only developed through **reading – writing**. Human is a product of **literacy**. Collapse of written culture means increase of violence (Sanders, 1010: 10).

We should not forget that, “Eye with a sight is not only an organ; it is also a means of perception conditioned by the culture the individual grows in” (Mlodinov, 2013: 47). This field where feeling of sight is dominant constitutes its world order.

Although we have fundamental problems in education such as teaching how to think, producing generations to think independently and being formed of memorising that start from early years of primary school, using digital education tools in this scale in education – teaching will lead to problems in the future we can not foresee from now.

On the verge of a period where these devices are discussed by their being a technical means, not by the messages transmitted by type of media, by comparing the previous formations with the current ones, the features that discriminate them from others will be identified and their innovative sides will be stated. In another words, soon after the period they came to being, it is not true to make new opening to the new media without taking the

changes they caused in the society into consideration (Binark et, al., 209 – 247). **How about it in the field of education?**

On the Origin of Species published in 1859 by Darwin has effect not only on biology but also learning. In the theory of evolution that forms the basis of this study, Darwin explains how the organism changes to adopt its environment. In order to prove this, he focuses on the changes within a specific species. Said differences increase the organism's possibility of survival and multiplication. If the individual differences are transferred to next generations, the features related to adaptation will evaluate (Cangöz, 2012: 6). As a matter of fact, it is necessary to think twice before equipping the new students with digital devices.

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EDUCATION IN AN ECOLOGICAL-SYSTEMIC PERSPECTIVE

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Abstract: The present work aims to track and support the need for a rethinking of the ways, often "dormant", to configure the process of teaching and learning, in order to promote an attitude of waiting between us and our knowledge, an hermeneutic capacity that goes beyond the pure description.

In other words, there is the need to develop new modalities to correlate the differentiation of identities to the symbolic and communication contexts, through correlation and recognition. Ecological-systemic education guarantees the diversities and supports the category of the possible and of the differences, exploring different horizon structures to build a methodology which is functional to a genuine process of inclusion.

It is an alternative trip that could lead to acquire a attitude to knowledge that demands humility and commitment, undertaking of responsibility in the encounter with the other, the construction of a interweaving of stories, that is the enhancement of the possibilities to experiment the answers to the problems, answers based on silence as a guarantee of words.

It is in particular in the work of Gregory Bateson that a new way of knowing is experimented. In this article this is the reference point: the mind connects different parts, captures relationships, relates to the educational dimension in an ecological perspective. Not to acquire a map that will replace another one, but as an opportunity to reflect on the actors involved in the educational relation and on the context in which this is actualized as a system.

DISCUSSION

The cornerstone of the epistemological conception of Gregory Bateson is an ecology of mind understood as a new way of thinking about the order and organization in living systems. In its literal meaning, ecology is understood as the study of the mutual relations between living organisms and the environment and the consequences of those relationships. Bateson uses as an example the evolution of the horse. This, he says, cannot be the result of the adaptation of the life of the only Eohippus to the grassy plains life, because these in parallel have followed that of the hooves and teeth of the horse. It is the context, constituted by both the animal and the environment, which evolves: i.e. a constancy persists in the relationship between the two elements, through forms of adaptation towards one another and vice versa, moment by moment. In living systems, therefore, not only mechanisms of genetic order are traceable, but also properties of intelligent adaptation. The methodological key that is proposed is a circular model.

Manghi (1990) says: "My' Bateson has little to do with the current vulgate who attributes him the authorship of harmonious universal principles capable of explaining every phenomenon. The road through this Vulgate, projects toward new global visions of reality, that is towards answers alternative to those prevailing in order to what to do, it is not one of those where you can run into Bateson. The ecosystem is another thing. It eschews the "high road" of seeking answers, frequented by preachers, therapists and scientists who are working on to promise salvations, healings and certainties, in this life or after. It prefers cross streets, beaten by explorers of questions, the streets that you do not know, in the sense of St. John of the Cross, that you have to follow if you want to get to the place you do not know".

To go through "cross streets" means taking the risk of challenging your own beliefs, your own mental habits: to abandon those that Bateson called "dormitive principles" because they do not leave room for questions; be aware of the limitations of our knowledge, without delegating to others the proposition of requests.

The eco-systemic perspective requires a rethinking of the destructive ways of conceiving the environment as well as our thinking, our mental habits. A so developed concept of ecology of mind is a harbinger of many educational implications. It emerges an idea of education as art, as a creative process that uses maps to not get lost in the unpredictable area of life, but also knows how to silence them to be able to meet a territory, to communicate with it. To educate and to be educated is a process that cannot find a pose and that shapes according to our way of thinking about life, which also includes the choices of aesthetic character, because the mental process operates through a "creative filter" whereby we attribute to things some forms rather than other ones. Demetrio (1996) says: "A good and happy training will therefore be that one that puts the learning in a position to benefit from everything in its path, establishing linkages". And only in the creation of connections, relations based on reciprocity, we can structure an ecology of ideas that will allow us to develop stories.

From an educational point of view it follows that isolating the child and the adult from the context in

which they live is illusory, since biologically impossible, because you cannot isolate a single component without distorting the whole. If, in fact, on the one hand, to be a part in the complexity of a new system is a difficult and tiring task, sometimes daunting, on the other it offers endless combinations of elements that are part of it. This means being able to deal with a problem from multiple points of view, therefore to have more resources available means to create new situations through which the whole system can evolve, including teacher. And not just the child.

The educational relationship is ecological since it is able to correlate both the differentiation of identities and the structures of connection, symbolic and communication contexts within which there are encounter and growth. It is ecological when it is configured as a "vital trajectory that corresponds to everything that we met by chance or by will (ours and others), but also to everything that we have been able to build with those found on the road" (Demetrio, 1998).

Still it persists in educational environments an understanding of the educator, the teacher, just as the primary cause of the pupil's cognitive organization and behavioral changes, seen within a cause and effect relation; but, in reality, the process of teaching and learning has a recurrent nature and it is not possible to determine the process, but only to attend to it: "Each of the participants in an interaction is both message and context for each other, and therefore takes part, with its settings with its interactive proposals, of a double stochastic combined process" (De Monticelli, 2003).

Within a complex epistemology, due to many authors, other than Bateson, that here it is not possible to take promptly into account, we have not to contrast two perspectives (or / or), but to consider them as different recursive levels, partial ways to segment the realities that acquire meaning to the extent that we are able to connect them, to make them communicate (and / and).

Closed interactions, or negative feedback, like mental habits, stereotypes, prejudices that are not completely eliminated, become present in each of us, so that we can learn with difficulty to be aware, to strive to control them, putting into question every time we introduce the transition from the rule, from control to regulation to the cooperative construction. If the old sailor, as Bateson says, already knows what he is looking for, he will not lose time surfing the Antarctic seas. As a foundation of everything there is the awareness that every person, and thus also the person with disabilities, is a system capable of self-organizing, of a continuing re-equilibration of his/her strategy of building the reality and every self-organization is by itself a change, regardless of the form that it can and knows how to achieve.

The educator has a function that requires a great commitment and undertaking a strong sense of responsibility, that of being a director, facilitator of experiences, preparing situations that promote learning places, organize the environment, emerge problems, modulating its support and providing additional energy that can feed that energy already present in those who faces.

An education that wants to define itself ecological is not content to collect data; instead describes constructs, relationships; approaches itself to the structuring of the other, to his being significant, to his way of being smart that can really grow and appear only in an environment that knows how to welcome him, because it can embrace diversity and promote the differences. It is an environment characterized by recognizable and therefore sharable meanings, by situations that promote connections between different skills and, at the same time, positive interactions between different identities, where even those who are in distress, those who are disabled, can claim and satisfy their right to be the subject of education and not to be reduced to be subject of the intervention because we shortsightedly catch in his existence only elements of liabilities that, in turn, lead us to reduce the complexity of the design to a management technique.

Education, thus understood, is exchange, is the possibility of building an ensemble, growing together inside a physical and symbolic structure that allows the players (and everybody is a protagonist) to connect to each other as in a dance, rather than being isolated in a vain defense of the individual himself.

The search for knowledge does not mean the discrediting of common sense, of the daily activity of the senses, of the imagining, and cannot consist in placing oneself on the defensive, looking for the causes, so that the educational activity remains without the slightest reflection.

Each one's own being is certainly an intuitive knowledge too; it is a partial knowledge but, whilst we realize it, and though often aware of the difficulty to grasp the expression, we attribute a strong claim of truth, not immersing ourselves in the effort, in the journey of discovery, from which you cannot leave unchanged. Discovery that is substantiated and is legitimate by building a relationship through spontaneous and reworked ways, through words and through non-verbal communication that we can offer to each other, even when the other seems to be able to propose only fragments of his identity.

In addition, the awareness on the part of an educator of the infinity of variables which every day he has to manage, and being conscious that, in haste, these can be grasped only for a small part, means that, for example, the opposition of a parent becomes a resource to draw upon to create new modes of action and thoughts, instead of being an obstacle to delete or correct.

Throughout our lives we encounter people, but often the bump is not transformed, not structured in terms

of the Encounter, which is an experience "originally bidder", in that it shows the other in its originality, in its carnality, in his thought; at the same time we are offered a way to make its knowledge, as long as we both open ourselves to the possibility of being available to the commitment that the encounter demands. "If you want to know, ask" says Pask. Commitment on the part of the educator, to modify, refining it, the modality to explore "another horizon structure", not stopping to a sensory perception, but promoting the transition from seeing to feeling, that gives the opportunity to build a bridge to the other structure, to the differences.

It is an attitude to suspension, to not presuming the knowledge of what it is shown, what appears, and this attitude is reflected in a waiting between us and our knowledge, it precedes and accompanies the undertaking of an interpretation vertex, and materializes in a listening skill of how the other asks us to be known, which does not dissociates the other pretending to explain him, that dilate the same concept of experience of how each person makes himself known as such, of what is essentially individual. The other does not show everything here and now, and asks us a very long time to get him known, to make a journey together where every destination is a starting point.

Therefore you need to assume an attitude that is embodied in the search for what unites us, to better understand what distinguishes us, a knowledge attitude that somehow the Id demands. But how can we become aware with humility and patience of the cognitive path that it offers us? Putting us on the road to build a real relationship where roles are not fixed, unchangeable: to qualify an educational relationship that, although characterized by asymmetry, does not make us arrogant, thinking of being able to accomplish the knowledge of a person. This knowledge does not end in the relation, but assumes it as an essential condition to start the building of a path of knowledge, where the encounter with the other means also encounter with yourself.

The first requirement, then, cannot be "what to do", but "where to start" to build an encounter, a common language, to learn to think. Even the child with disabilities, like any other person, is part of a story, is within a circuit where relations mingle and preferences are expressed, basic as well as specific needs. Consciousness of belonging becomes central, the common point to start so that these stories can in turn intertwine to give rise to a new path, full of meanings. To ask "where" means to "steal" time for making; this, when not improvised, yet takes account the subject, but too seldom the subject placed in a context. The questions relevant to "what to do" and "where", both legitimate, articulate two different times and the more attention is aimed to what to do, the more you risk to lose the sensitivity for the learning contexts, the ability to feel a creative part of a dispute and not determined by this. Many times, the more we engage in an action, the lesser time we reserve to thinking, because the times of a certain action are the restricted times of the immediate response, of the instant solution, of the short and straightforward explanation. The times of thinking are the long times of doubt, of the uncertainty in contrast to action, of questions which have not been answered, of theories to be validated, of the expectations that are disillusioned to create other ones more relevant. Yet often any doubt and waiting procure anxiety, the anxiety of wanting to show, and on the other hand test, your "special" knowledge; the anxiety of not having to waste time, indeed, to have to recover that time "lost", that every person with disability seems to impose on us.

Instead the uncertainty, the doubt that assails us at the beginning of a journey must bring forth a kind of reassurance, because it means that we are moving with respect to our intelligence, and to the one of others, which in turn experiences the doubt and the uncertainty.

When we bump into a new problem, often we act by instinct, and successively, if the experience had a positive outcome, those which were initially insights, become habits: other times, but also in new situations, the same patterns are repeatedly applied, compressing the originality of the other in attitudes typical of the category where we believe we can put him in. Thus even educators end up taking on well known and stereotyped behaviors, almost mechanically; and they interpret the actions of the other, providing explanations without having looked for them. To silence the "basics", the basic assumptions with which we are used to segment the reality, perhaps means to give ourselves the ability to catch not limited information about the system to which we belong, to select not only what can be immediately inserted in our maps, thus thinking that we have a clear view of reality; and it is in this silence that the possibility of the encounter emerges.

The encounter not only "is made" but "makes us", changes us; it is an adventure from which there is no unscathed escape; it is also the location of errors and illusions. The error is inherent to the process of knowledge; who is on the way is wrong, and it is untenable to separate knowledge from error because it is a constitutive element; it is the formulation of hypotheses that substantiate it because they prevent it from ending if we endure the discomfort, the cognitive and emotional suffering of having to abandon them, to be able to propose other ones, to refine the ability of listening, to be able to serenely listen, not thinking that always one must have the answer, but learning how to increase the possibility of response. It is so that the silence, the waiting, is "an essential possibility of talking", and allows us to begin to enter into the present of the other, in a story, not bewildered by the anxiety of the future.

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ESTABLISHMENT OF COOPERATION AND COLLABORATION PLATFORMS BETWEEN UNIVERSITIES AND INDUSTRY TO IMPROVE EDUCATION QUALITY

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Abstract: Although education is the primary mission of universities, research activities in support of businesses and industries are quite important as well. The education aims to provide qualified manpower for industry in addition to create scientists for the future of our civilization. Such an aim requires coordination, cooperation and collaboration with industry to fully understand and meet the requirements of the business. Today, techno-parks which provide opportunities for industry and university cooperation have many deficiencies in terms of efficiency and effectiveness. Additionally, many countries established vocational qualification systems to realize the qualification requirements and provided a full spectrum education system to meet industrial requirements. The study is to be conducted in three steps. In the first step, capabilities of possible platforms and eligibility of them to meet the coordination requirements of universities and industries will be investigated. The second step is dedicated to investigate effectiveness of the use of different platforms. Finally possible solutions will be summarized and associated to propose an effective and applicable solution for better coordination, cooperation and collaboration.

Key Words: Coordination, Cooperation and Collaboration between University and Industry, Vocational Qualification System, Education and Research, Techno-park.

1. INTRODUCTION

Due to the state's conservative bureaucratic structure, state universities in Turkey have long been reluctant to establish cooperation with industry and just a few state universities have had links with state-owned industrial corporations. After the foundation of a private university system in the Turkish academic world, the situation has changed.

Although the first private university was founded only couple of decades ago, in 1984, private universities have become effective on cooperation issues with industry by increasing their numbers in Turkish academic life in the 2000s. Since then, University-industry collaboration has been a foregoing issue in academic planning because most of the board of trustees' members of foundation universities were coming from the business world and they have already had links to start cooperation with the industry

As a result of the new opportunities provided by university-industry cooperation and encouragement by the state, the research function of universities in addition to the routine educational function has started to gain more value. Research is not only a scientific inquiry but also a business for private universities. Moving from this point of view, private universities have also assumed the research cooperation with industry as a significant tool to increase their incomes to secure flow of their revenues. Meanwhile, decreasing government support to state universities due to the increasing number of universities in the country made the universities search for new resources to support their research activities. Accordingly, they have also started to look for cooperation with industry as a new asset to expand their limited resources allocated for research.

Both Turkish industry and universities do not have an enhanced expertise on research projects and development of innovation, and, unfortunately, most of them are still reluctant on the matter. Despite the state's developing interest and encouragement, university-industry collaboration could not gain sufficient momentum. There is a threat to reduce getting benefit from the young and educated population in the country. This gap may slow down the improvement of research activities and lose innovation efforts which are vital for the development of the country. In order to fulfil this gap, the European Union funded research projects may be an opportunity as being a suitable tool. The cooperation and collaborations of Turkish universities with some EU universities on these kind of projects would facilitate improvement of practice and lead to start similar projects in home. Even though some universities have already been participated in EU funded projects, their numbers are still inadequate and project sharing level is low.

Nowadays industry and university cooperation moved another dimension from cooperation to collaboration. Collaboration means the action of working with someone to produce something and it differs from cooperation which means the association of person or business for common, usually economic benefit. The co-works in the university-industry activities mainly resemble the collaboration rather than cooperation as a nature of the work. An important part of information exchange process requires with a series of jobs which should be

done together as synchronized movements. So we should consider also collaboration beyond coordination and cooperation. This makes us consider collaboration when we study on the relations of university and industry.

This paper will introduce the current situation on university and industry collaboration in Turkey and look for new opportunities.

2. METHODOLOGY

The aim of this study is to determine current problem areas in the university and industry interactions in Turkey and to define probable solutions in establishing platforms for effective coordination, cooperation and coordination issues especially in improving education quality. The study is to be limited with university and industry relations to have an effective applications of collaboration activities for the benefit of not only the industry but also for benefit of universities.

The study has been conducted in three phases. In the first phase, intention was to gather detailed information and present a full view of current situation in Turkey on university and industry cooperation, collaboration and coordination issues. The second phase covers study of data related to the subject. In the third and final phase the findings are categorised, grouped and associated for a further deeper study that is necessary for formulating possible/probable model solutions which may overcome the possible problems directly affecting the success of a mutual collaboration. In this phase, proposals are also prepared and summarized to be discussed in related/respected forums.

This paper is designed to provide discussion items on possible solutions especially for cooperation, collaboration and coordination requirements to be taken into account in establishment of platforms/mechanisms aiming to improve university and industry relations. Accordingly, having introduced to the subject and determination of research methodology respectively in the first and second sections, then, issues related with education and research possibilities and cooperation and collaboration opportunities both for universities and industry are to be discussed in detail in the third section and results are to be presented in the last section.

The results of this study will provide possible solutions to establish effective platforms in providing reliable, acceptable and applicable coordination, cooperation and collaboration between universities and industries.

3. DISCUSSION

3.1. The University-Industry Collaboration:

The university–industry collaboration is one of the most important means of embedding accumulated knowledge into production. University-industry mutual collaboration is a special multidisciplinary process using basic and theoretical knowledge that are obtained from universities for the benefit of industry. It is not only a commercial factor, but also a routine practice necessary for innovation and economic development.

Etzkowitz (2002) adds government contributions into university-industry collaboration activities and defines three different types of university, industry and government collaboration in his study. Triple Helix is the most welcomed model stationed in the core of his theory. The concept of the Triple Helix of university-industry-government relationships initiated in the 1990s (Etzkowitz and Leydesdorff, 1997), interprets the shift from a dominating industry-government dyad in the Industrial Society to a growing triadic relationship between university-industry-government in the Knowledge Society. The Triple Helix thesis is that the potential for innovation and economic development in a knowledge society lies in a more prominent role for the university and in the hybridisation of elements from university, industry and government to generate new institutional and social formats for the production, transfer and application of knowledge. Triple Helix Thesis has evolved over time to its neo-institutional and neo-evolutionary perspectives.

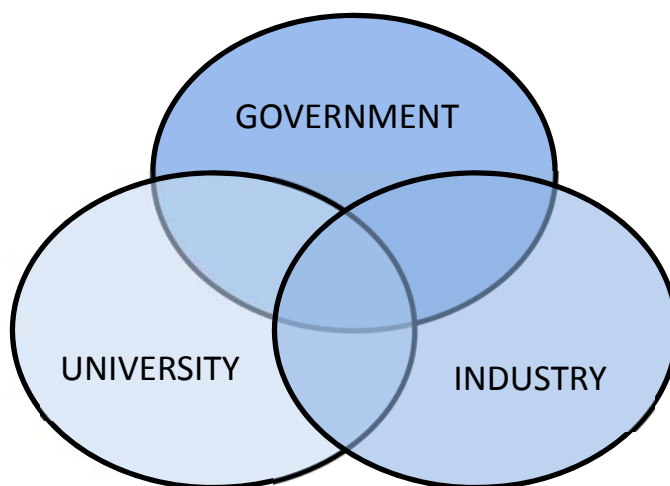


Figure 1: Triple Helix; Government, University, Industry Collaboration.

A (neo) institutional perspective examines the growing prominence of the university among innovation actors. University has gained a 'third mission' as commercialization of academic research and involvement in socio-economic development, such as forms, stakeholders, drivers, barriers, benefits and impact, university technology transfer and entrepreneurship, contribution to regional development. A (neo) evolutionary perspective sees the university, industry and government as co-evolving sub-sets of social systems that interact through an overlay of recursive networks and organizations. These interactions are part of two processes of communication and differentiation: a functional one, between science and markets, and an institutional one, between private and public control at the level of universities, industries and government (Etzkowitz and Leydesdorff, 2000).

The Entrepreneurial University is a central concept to the Triple Helix. It takes a pro-active stance in putting knowledge to use and in creating new knowledge. The academic 'third mission' - involvement in socio-economic development, next to the traditional missions of teaching and research, is most salient in the Entrepreneurial University. Collaborative links with the other innovation actors have enhanced the central presence of universities in the production of scientific research over time. The Entrepreneurial University also has an enhanced capacity to provide students with new ideas, skills and entrepreneurial talent. Students are not only the new generations of professionals in various scientific disciplines, business, culture etc., but they can also be trained and encouraged to become entrepreneurs and firm founders, contributing to economic growth and job creation in a society that needs such outcomes more than ever. Moreover, entrepreneurial universities are also extending their capabilities of educating individuals to educating organizations, through entrepreneurship and incubation programmes and new training modules at venues such as inter-disciplinary centres, science parks, academic spin-offs, incubators and venture capital firms. Entrepreneurial universities also have an enhanced capacity to generate technology that has changed their position, from a traditional source of human resources and knowledge to a new source of technology generation and transfer. Rather than only serving as a source of new ideas for existing firms, universities are combining their research and teaching capabilities in new formats to become a source of new firm formation, especially in advanced areas of science and technology. Universities increasingly become the source of regional economic development and academic institutions are re-oriented or founded for this purpose (The European Commission, 2012).

The Enterprise Concept focuses upon the development of the 'enterprising person and entrepreneurial mindset'. The former constitutes a set of personal skills, attributes, behavioural and motivational capacities (associated with those of the entrepreneur) but which can be used in any context (social, work, leisure etc). Prominent among these are; intuitive decision making, capacity to make things happen autonomously, networking, initiative taking, opportunity identification, creative problem solving, strategic thinking, and self efficacy. The 'Mindset' concept focuses not just upon the notion of 'being your own boss' in a business context but upon the ability of an individual to cope with an unpredictable external environment and the associated entrepreneurial ways of doing, thinking, feeling, communicating, organising and learning (Gibb, 2013).

The university has a place in the main core in collaboration. Science and innovation policy is directly linked with the university and industry. Universities have several functions related with industrial requirements such as to educate qualified staff of growing business, to increase their knowledge and to find solutions for the business world (Hughes, 2003).

University industry collaboration was having problems because of approaches sceptical of the industry and hesitant of academicians initially. Developments in science and also with the participation of state later achieved great progress and have established stronger links (Etzkowitz, 2010).

The basic motivation behind university–industry collaboration in research is to increase development capability and innovative potential of the companies (Geisler et al, 1990). This collaboration leads the way to an increase in country's competition power as well.

According to Carayannis (Carayannis et al, 2000), university–industry relations gained new perspectives especially in the field of research and development in industrialized countries. Today, many countries all over the world are getting benefits of social and technological knowledge and research capabilities of universities in developing their wealth and prosperity in collaboration with their industrial capacity.

3.2. Considerations for the Effective Collaborations:

The gradual, transparent and clear procedures and step by step relationship instead of intertwined relationships have gained importance due to the difficulty in cooperation issues in collaboration.

Each university has a reputation on one or two specific subjects. The industry searches integrated capabilities to support their enhanced and mostly complex research requirements. To meet industrial requirements, universities require to merge their abilities and to achieve that they should establish cooperation to enhance their capabilities for research. Such consolidated universities are more attractive for industry which looks for competent partners for their large scale comprehensive research projects. Therefore, the first step should focus on university-university collaborations. A university which forecasts the future cooperation field

(under a practice, policy and system environment) should estimate of the situation and should be in an effort to fill its gaps in capability by looking for collaboration with an available university.

The large scale projects also require cooperation with the government and society. That means achieving a comprehensive research study additionally needs cooperation with government and society. The best practice is to provide such cooperation in a single platform, if not additional platforms should be established a strong cooperation with all three elements. Three main elements will also provide a link to understand “real life practice, policies, systems and environmental issues” which key elements directly affect research studies (See Figure 2).

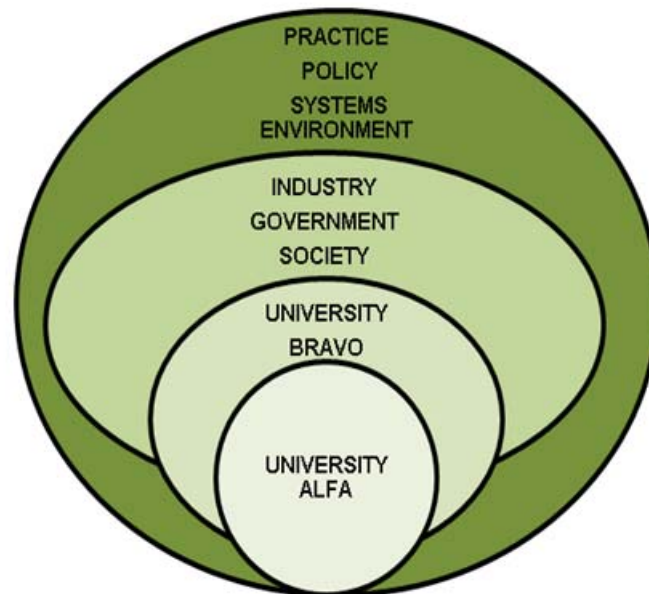


Figure 2: Interlinked Echelon for an effective cooperation

Environmental opportunities provides not only practice, policy and systems but also available and suitable platforms for collaboration issues such as techno parks, technology transfer offices and alike.

University-university collaboration requires coordination and sometime cooperation and collaboration of different units of each university as well. Collaboration efforts of vocational units should be focused on meeting of industrial requirement precisely and effectively.

The cooperation and collaboration is a complex activity and needs to be handled in a strategic perspective and should be led by upper management. David (2011) considers that “Strategic planning is an involved, intricate, and complex process that takes an organization into uncharted territory. It does not provide a ready-to-use prescription for success; instead, it takes the organization through a journey and offers a framework for addressing questions and solving problems”. To achieve such a complex mission strategic management concept should be taken into consideration. So the formation of the upper management (Board of the Trustees, Board of the Managers) should be redesigned under this concept which is based on stakeholders who are from the institutions which has close relations with university. Actually this is already being actualized by the private universities having many trustees form business and industry, but not for the state universities.

3.3. University-Industry Collaboration in Turkey:

The knowledge and technology transfer between universities and companies in Turkey, has recently gained impetus in recent years. Under the conditions of unwillingness of private companies for R&D (research and development) investments and their desire to exploit more intensively external knowledge sources whereas there is only a slight increase in public funds devoted to scientific research, there is an improvement in interaction between universities and industry in Turkey in 2000's due to the rise of knowledge economy which is mainly based on new developments in science-based technologies.

The investigations prove that cooperation between educational institutions and the business world is still insufficient and suggests that more comprehensive measures should be taken to improve existing situation. As an example, we can introduce a comprehensive survey conducted by the World Bank in 2007. The survey proved that of a large segment of the business sector (55%) were not satisfied with the education given in the universities and only half (48%) of the universities is reported to be willing to cooperate with the business sector. The cooperation between the business sector research and development organizations are recognized as less than 10% (World Bank, 2007).

Joint research and developments programs of university and industry have also been supported by

governments with legal regulations. In recent years, important regulations were introduced in this direction are as follows;

The Law numbered 4691 provided important incentives for technology development zones (Official Gazette, 2001).

The law numbered 5746 brought about the support procedures of R&D activities (Official Gazette, 2008).

The programme for the establishment of University-Industry joint Research Centres (USAM) by TUBITAK provided new opportunities. University-industry Joint Research Centre was closed in on the base of TUBITAK Science Board Decision. From that time, Centre for University-Industry Collaboration Platform (USIMP) as a non-governmental organization has taken the role of USAM and the responsibility on coordination of university-industry collaboration issues (USIMP, 2006).

In the recent Development Program of State Planning Organization (SPO-DPT) for the period of 2014-2018, it is emphasized that “structure and functioning of the technology development zones will be made more active and effective in order to maximize the level of innovative entrepreneurship, university-industry collaboration, inter-enterprise collaborative research and development and innovation activities (Para.632)” and “further facilitating and encouraging measures on the university and private sector cooperation will be brought into force. Additionally, R & D and entrepreneurship activities will be encouraged in restructuring of higher education (Para.634)” (Onuncu Kalkinma Planı, 2013).

Despite the incentives mentioned above to build up and improve connections between universities and firms, the interactions are still limited. The main reasons could be the lack of resources at universities as well as the lack of resources and skills on the firm side or insufficient mechanisms to facilitate knowledge and technology transfer between universities and firms. Even if the number of research centres, master and PhD programs, and researchers especially in emerging fields required by the industry’s media has significantly increased in the recent years; the rising awareness of universities, firms and government bodies; but how knowledge and technology transfer between academia and industry be increased still stands as an important issue (Beyhan and Findik, 2010).

3.3.1. Technology Development Zone Practises In Turkey:

The main purpose of “Technology Development Zones” is to contribute to the development of export oriented technology and worldwide competitiveness of the country's industry according to the law numbered 4691. Technology development zones have been given a legal structure in Turkey as in the first time in year 2001 with the Law Numbered 4691.

Government-University-Industry Collaboration Assessment Report, Strategy and Action Plan (2015-2019) (Draft) prepared under coordination of Science, Industry and Technology Ministry and promulgated to public in 2014. According to that document, as of April 2014, 55 technology development zones (TDZ’s) have been established in Turkey. Such technology development zones, as platforms to facilitate the process of public universities and industry collaboration, are among the leading institutions of technological development. Technology transfer offices (TTO’s) in those technological development zones are established to ensure the collaborations between academics and enterprises.

TTO’s carry out many tasks, such as the devise venture capital for the realization of joint projects between the business world and academia, the commercialization of research results to the business requirements and to provide counselling both for university and for industry.

A very wide incentive mechanism exists for the establishment of a public, university and industry cooperation schemes offered by public support. Those incentives are detailed in the Government-University-Industry Collaboration Assessment Report, Strategy and Action Plan (2015-2019).

Technology transfer offices, technological development zones and public, university and industry collaboration issues were analyzed in total and weakness items presented in the aforementioned report. Some of the deficiencies stated in the report are listed herewith.

The communication channels between the public, the university and the industry is not functional,

A common institutional framework and a sustainable dialogue systematic could not be established,

Firms do not know the procedure on how to contact the university will be,

Lack of full-time employment of qualified personnel in technology transfer offices,

Many machines and test equipment obtained by state support cannot be used because of lack of technical staff,

Despite the increase in quantity of universities in Turkey, namely the nature of the quality problem continues,

Local / regional problems and needs of the industry are not to be among priorities of the university's research,

Lack of industry-focused scientific research projects,

Inadequate number of teaching staff does not provide solutions to the problems of industry,

The teaching staff does not have the experience enough to respond to the problems of industry,
The registration number of domestic patent applications remains low,
Cooperation between academic researchers and firms in techno parks are extremely low.

As it is seen, although wide support is provided by many means, the system for public, university and industry collaboration which was created by the state does not work well. The report provides an action plan effective for the period of 2014-2019 to make the deficiencies in the current system corrected as well.

3.3.2. Vocational Education and Training System:

The main aim of the vocational education and training (VET) is to provide qualified people to support industry. In order to achieve this aim the provision of cooperation between business sector and vocational education and training institutions is strictly necessary.

The operating methods and requirements of industry and VET are generally different as a nature of their *modus operandi*. How those requirements are combined is the main question of business and academy collaboration efforts today.

It is clear that we cannot undermine the education philosophy and techniques as well as the requirements of the industry which is the reality of economic life. We may satisfy both sides if we can define over-sections of the requirements of two parties which depend on each other.

A significant evolution has happened in the vocational education system recently. Higher vocational schools / community colleges/polytechnic schools became a part of the universities and universities started an important player in the VET. This change has created a positive transformation in meeting the requirements of industry because university provided a suitable platform for collaboration. Not only the organizations but also programme structures has drastically changed with the inclusion of universities into the VET system.

Industry has started to demand more specific manpower with additional qualifications and many new job descriptions rose in 2000s. Unfortunately education institutions could not fully support these new manpower requirements. To meet these requirements, many new institutions have been established to provide special courses to support the industry. Some companies established their own schools and training departments to meet their specific manpower needs. The countries which realized this problem have formed special platforms consisting of the representatives of the education institutions and industry to improve a suitable system to meet mutual requirements. The role and the mission of such platforms became more significant after vocational qualification systems became an important area of concern in the Western World.

The European Union has established many qualification standards and institution for the VET. The European Quality Assurance Reference Framework (EQAVET) and work based learning are good examples of European Union's effort to make VET coordinated well. Those regulations are designed to meet the industrial requirements in the European Union Areas specifically based on defined lessons learned after the economic crisis of 2008.

The European Quality Assurance Reference Framework (EQAVET) is a reference instrument designed to help EU countries promote and monitor the continuous improvement of their vocational education and training systems on the basis of commonly agreed references. The framework should not only contribute to quality improvement in VET but also, by building mutual trust between the VET systems, make it easier for a country to accept and recognise the skills and competencies acquired by learners in different countries and learning environments.

Work-based learning (WBL) is another tool and a fundamental aspect of vocational training for the European Union. It is directly linked to the mission of VET to help learners acquire knowledge, skills and competences which are essential in working life.

In many countries bilateral links between industry and government have been established to improve the vocational education and training system, but it could not worked as expected because of missing elements for providing inputs for feeding the system better. The regulatory authority, the government is the key element of the system with its respective bodies such as Standardization, Vocational Qualification, Education, and different Industry Departments.

Vocational education in Turkey is carried out at many levels such as apprenticeship practices in industry, common education in society, formal education in schools of different levels and so on. Higher vocational education and training is coordinated and supervised by the Council of Higher Education (CoHE). Associate's programs are executed in post-secondary vocational schools which are institutions of higher education that is aimed at training human capacity in specific profession and provides instruction lasting four semesters. The associate degree programs may require a period of on-the-job training specifically aimed to meet the industry requirements. As of September 2014, there are 176 universities in Turkey. There are also eight independent post-secondary vocational schools not attached to any university. According to statistics of CoHE, total number of students in post secondary vocational schools is 1,750,133 in the education year of 2013-2014 (The Council of Higher Education, 2014).

The project under the name of "Development of Vocational and Technical Education Quality Project

(METEK)” has been underway since 2009. Within this project, vocational education needs are determined and executed under the coordination of a group composed of vocational schools faculty members, industry and civil society organizations.

4. CONCLUSION

Although many supportive and incentive means are provided by states, the current system for public, university and industry collaboration does not meet the today’s industrial requirements. There are a lot of deficiencies in collaboration in many areas from the communication channels to the inadequate cultural infrastructure both in academy and industrial community. Incapability and unavailability of universities on research issues has a special importance in shortages list of the current system.

Both universities and industry need to make coordination, cooperation and collaborations to enhance their scientific and commercial capabilities. Universities need to establish a special board to assess the research capabilities and possible cooperation opportunities taking into account existing and future requirements. Such association also requires establishment of permanent units to handle the planning, execution and controlling all respective activities. In addition to these permanent units, common platforms such as scheduled meetings, regular boards, and research conferences should be arranged. Therefore, a special unit which may be organized as a section or department to assume the responsibility of coordination, cooperation and collaboration activities needs to be established and manned by suitable academic and administrative personnel. Pending upon the size and content of the research project Ad Hoc committees may be activated.

University-university collaboration has also started playing an important role in the core of the university-industry collaboration efforts. The universities may enhance their research capabilities taking benefits from the experiment of each other. The above mentioned special unit should also handle the cooperation and collaboration activities among the universities in all state and private universities.

The cooperation between university and industry is also assist to improve the Vocational Education and Training System which is a vital element for economic development. The higher education institutions need to establish links with industry to improve their education quality in particular post-secondary vocational schools.

Innovation requirements created a “research projects market” which commands great amount of values. All projects need a detailed study on the cost evaluation, feasibility, manpower, budgeting, finance and planning to complete the work on a timely manner. Unfortunately the academicians are not expert on the pricing not being actors of the real economic life. To solve this problem most of the universities which continuously conduct cooperation with industry and business world, should also establish their own office for project evaluation and pricing manned with experts on the procurement, budgeting and finance.

The management boards of the state university generally consist of academicians. The new era enforces the universities for close cooperation with business and industry. To achieve this complex task the state universities should apply strategic management concept and configure their management boards under stakeholder approach which facilitates establishment of close links with business and industry.

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EVALUATION OF THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE READING COMPONENT OF THE NIGERIA CERTIFICATE IN EDUCATION (NCE) ENGLISH LANGUAGE CURRICULUM: IMPLICATION FOR QUALITY TEACHER EDUCATION

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Abstract: The study was aimed at evaluating the implementation of the Reading Component of the Nigeria Certificate in Education (NCE) English Language Curriculum for colleges of Education. This study was carried out using some colleges of Education in Kaduna, Nigeria. Twenty (20) teachers and fifty (50) students i.e (teachers-in-training) were used for the study. A questionnaire tagged "Evaluation of the Implementation of the Reading Component of the Nigeria Certificate in Education English Language Curriculum (EIRCNEELC) was used to collect data from respondents. Data obtained was analysed using frequency counts and percentages. The findings revealed that the reading component of the NCE English Language Curriculum does not seem to be robust enough to train NCE students to become functional readers and effective reading instructors at the primary and secondary school level. The implementation of the curriculum was not efficiently and effectively done. In order to improve the quality of teachers in Teacher Education Programmes in Nigeria, the reading component of the NCE English language curriculum should be reviewed. The content should include topics/activities that will make NCE students become functional, competent, effective and efficient reading instructors at all levels of Education.

Keywords: Evaluation, Implementation, Reading, Curriculum, Teacher Education, Certificate

INTRODUCTION/BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Bright and McGregor (1973) refers to reading as "the core of the syllabus". Reading provides most students with the situations in which learning takes place. Where there is little reading, there will be little language learning. It is only by reading that learners can acquire the speed and skills needed for practical purposes when they leave school. Reading is the key to success in life, both in and out of school. Further education, especially in general knowledge will largely depend on the quantity and quality of reading. The more students read, the more background knowledge they acquire of other ways of life, behaviour and thought; and the more books they also find they can understand.

Besides these values derived from reading and understanding words in print, Bright and McGregor (1973) are of the opinion that reading sharpens sight and insight, widens experience and provides occasions for the exercise of judgment about man and his condition. It helps with the main business of education, the production of men and women capable of appropriate response to life, which includes response to examinations. It does this by making the mind work, re-create, at a level otherwise unattainable.

Reading and comprehension of written passages are essential part of education. They raise the level at which the mind can function, giving form and meaning to the data of experience, widen and deepen experience itself, offer attitudes, set out moral issues and deal with the matters of truth, goodness and beauty.

The Curriculum of the Nigeria Certificate in Education is known as the Minimum Standards for NCE. The extent to which the objectives of the curriculum are attained every year by the graduates of the colleges is in doubt. As Olaofe (2013) noted that the teaching of English is defective in schools (primary and secondary) and teachers are not proficient in the four language skills viz listening, speaking, reading and writing. There has also been a call for the review of the curriculum. Ajayi and Emoruwa (2012) discovered in their study that students' academic performance was poor and there was the need for a review of the curriculum.

One of the important consequences of the vital role of English language (which reading is a part of) in our national life is that it has been learnt consistently at school over a long period of time by every school child more than any other subject. Other subjects have to be taught, learnt and evaluated using the medium of English language. Thus, success at each level of the educational system depends largely on competence in English and this puts additional heavy responsibility on the English teacher who incidentally, is also the Reading

teacher. He/she should not only be interested in the teaching of general 'English' but also reading skills and reading instruction. It is in view of the foregoing that this study sets out to evaluate the implementation of the reading component of the Nigeria Certificate in Education (NCE) English language curriculum.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Teacher education is designed to produce highly motivated, sensitive, conscientious and successful classroom teachers that will handle students academically and professionally for better educational achievement. The objectives of the NCE programme are to:

- a) Develop the four English language skills; listening; speaking, reading, and writing for communicative purposes;
- b) Make students to become confident and competent in the use of spoken and written English for various purposes.
- c) Equip students to teach English effectively at the J.S.S. level; and
- d) Prepare students for further studies in the subject.

In any country, the quality of education cannot surpass the teachers' quality. Teacher quality is an important variable in the achievement of students as research (Bamber and Mourshed, 2007) has shown that the outcome of students' performance is dependent on teacher quality. Teacher quality is an indicator of the importance of teacher training (Mohammed and Yusuf, 2014). The different achievement levels of students are majorly dependent on the quality of teachers as research confirms that a positive difference in the achievement level of students is mainly traceable to teachers (Gbenu, 2012). It has been asserted by the Science and Engineering Indicators that the index of teacher quality are the academic capabilities of the entrants into the teaching workforce, the education and preparation of teachers in teaching, consistency or inconsistency between teachers' schooling and subject content allocated each teacher and the experience level of the teachers.

The prosperity of the economy of a nation is dependent on the quality of the teaching workforce. It has been affirmed that the quality and quantity of education provided is the rationale for the distinctiveness in the economies of developed and undeveloped nations. In addition, Olulobe (2006) contends that "a country can only develop significantly and attain greater heights in the committee of nations through a comprehensive teacher education programme". In some countries, such as Finland, the teaching profession is an enviable one, as one out of every 10 selective candidate is accepted into teacher training programmes after two processes of selection. In Singapore also, potential teachers are chosen from the best students in the secondary schools.

In Nigeria, Nigeria Certificate in Education (NCE) is stated as the minimum entry qualification into teaching. With these laudable objectives, it would be expected that only the intellectually promising and qualified persons should be trained as teachers. Unfortunately, most of the students admitted into our Teacher Education institutions are usually the worst academically. Better qualified youths prefer to seek admission into other departments and faculties different from education. Gbenu (2012) reported that about 23% of the over 400,000 teachers employed to teach in the nation's primary schools do not possess the Teachers' Grade Two Certificate, even when the minimum educational requirement to teach in the nation's primary schools had been upgraded to NCE.

In a study conducted by Akinbote (2007) to investigate the entry qualifications of colleges of education students and their reasons for enrolling in the colleges, it was revealed that most of the students admitted into the colleges were the "dregs of the society". Students admitted usually had no other admission option and it was also reported that just 24% of the sample studied met the requirements of good students (i.e students, who got 5 credits at one sitting) from secondary schools; the colleges had intended at their inception to admit brilliant students of secondary schools and teacher training colleges.

According to Yoloye (1978), the major role of educational evaluation may be to inform the producers about the worth of what they are producing considering the energy, the time and the money invested. Educational Evaluation helps in producing a worthwhile material. It also helps in the selling of a programme to involve the policy makers to produce or improve the quality of the competing programmes initiated by the ministries.

Obanya (1985) suggested that one of the purposes of evaluation in education is to identify some of the problems that the students may need to overcome in order to progress in learning. Evaluation facilitates the

identification of what is left to be learned. It produces feedback on students' achievement and encourages men to learn more and progress faster in the instructional programmes.

At this point, it is important to explain the concepts of Evaluation and Implementation. Evaluation in Education provides adequate and effective feed back on students' achievement not only in the cognitive area, but also in the areas of interest and manipulative skills. It provides feed-back from students to the teacher about the effect of the teacher's teaching method. It also provides feedback from the teachers to the parents about their ward's performance. It provides feed-back from school administrators to the policy makers to determine the success of the programme. Continual educational evaluation provides valuable information about the students' progress and comparison with other students in the class. Adequate educational evaluation also acts as an incentive to students' studies.

Implementation on the other hand is an interaction between those who have created the programme and those who are charged to deliver it. Implementation requires educators to shift from the current programme which they are familiar with to the new or modified programme. Implementation involves changes in the knowledge, actions and attitudes of people (Yusuf, 2012).

Curriculum needs to be implemented with the help of teachers in an actual school setting to find out if the curriculum achieved its goals. Implementation refers to the actual use of the curriculum or syllabus or what it consists of in practice. Implementation is a critical phase in the cycles of planning and teaching a curriculum.

Implementation of the curriculum does not focus on the actual use but also on the attitudes of those who implement it. These attitudinal dispositions are partially important in educational systems where teachers and principals have the opportunity to choose among competing curriculum packages.

According to Oyetunde (2002), curriculum implementation at the classroom level is the responsibility of the teacher. It is the teacher who translates the objectives, concepts and topics in the curriculum into activities that are meaningful to the learners. Oyetunde (2009) holds tenaciously that, the teacher must have a good knowledge of the curriculum and be able to decide the depth to which a subject should be studied at the different levels of education.

Yunusa (2008), states that in particular, it is important that the teacher should know how to reduce the different topics of the curriculum to specific lesson plans. Doing this requires not only a knowledge of the curriculum but also an understanding of what is involved in teaching and learning. Teachers, for example, need to see themselves as both facilitators of knowledge and encouragers of learners. In other words, they are both planners and mediators of learning, who teach not only the content but also the strategies required by the content to make learning meaningful, integrated, and transferable.

There are several components in the curriculum that make implementation easier, simpler and realizable. The teacher who is the implementer of the curriculum must as a matter of fact know what constitutes effective teaching on his own side. The teacher must organize and explain the content in ways appropriate to students' abilities and must as a matter of fact, create a conducive environment for learning. It is against all of the foregoing that this study was undertaken to evaluate the implementation of the reading component of the NCE curriculum in English language.

OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

To evaluate the level of implementation of the reading component of the Nigeria Certificate in Education (NCE) English language curriculum.

RESEARCH QUESTION

What is the level of implementation of the reading component of the Nigeria Certificate in Education (NCE) English language curriculum?

METHODOLOGY

Descriptive survey design was used in this study. The study was carried out using the two Colleges of Education

available in Kaduna state i.e Federal college of Education, Zaria and College of Education, Gidan waya. Twenty (20) teachers and fifty (50) students were used for the study. A questionnaire tagged “ Evaluation of the implementation of the reading component of the Nigeria certificate in Education English language curriculum (EIRCNEELC) was used to collect data from respondents. The study also made use of classroom observation schedule in order to assess the implementation of the curriculum. The instrument was designed to take on the spot record of what happens in the classroom during a typical reading lesson. The method adopted by teachers in teaching reading, activities of both teachers and students during the lesson, as well as the mode or technique adopted by the teachers are also captured in the instrument. Each observation lasted the duration of the lesson. Data obtained was analysed using frequency counts and percentages.

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS

Table 1: categorization of teachers by their highest educational qualification

Highest qualification	Frequency	Percentage
NCE English	NIL	0
NCE (other subjects)	Nil	0
BA Ed/BA	5	25
MA/M.Ed	12	60
PhD	3	15

Table 1 indicates that none of the teachers had NCE as highest qualification. Though some of them had NCE and B.Ed. 25% had BA.Ed/BA, 60% had MA/M.Ed and 15% had PhD. This implies that majority of the teachers are qualified to teach in Colleges of Education in Kaduna State.

Table 2: Categorization of teachers by their years of experience on the job

Years of teaching experience	Frequency	Percentage
0 – 5	10	50
6 – 10	8	40
11 – 15	2	10
16 – 20	NIL	0
Above 20 years	NIL	0

Table 2 shows that majority of the teachers had between 1 – 10 years experience. Only 10% had between 11 – 15 years experience. None of the teachers had above 16 years experience. This implies that majority of teachers had reasonable years of teaching experience to teach effectively in the colleges of Education.

The observed implementation levels of the reading component of the NCE English Language Curriculum were assessed on a four point Likert scale. These were very well implemented (VW), well implemented (W), poorly implemented (P) and very poorly (VP) implemented.

Table 3: Implementation of the reading component of the NCE curriculum in English language as perceived by teachers.

Curriculum contents	VW	W	P	VP
Reading challenges	8(40%)	12(60%)	0(0%)	0(0%)
Eye regression	15(75%)	5(25%)	0(0%)	0(0%)
Training with fingers	7(35%)	10(50%)	3(15%)	0(0%)
Repetition (in oral reading)	9(45%)	9(45%)	2(10%)	0(0%)
Word recognition/analysis	13(65%)	5(25%)	2(10%)	0(0%)
Word comprehension	8(40%)	12(60%)	0(0%)	0(0%)
Sentence comprehension	13(65%)	7(35%)	0(0%)	0(0%)
Paragraph comprehension	5(25%)	15(75%)	0(0%)	0(0%)
Text comprehension for areas such as inferential reading and critical reading	4(20%)	8(40%)	7(35%)	1(5%)
Reading for sequence	5(25%)	10(50%)	5(25%)	0(0%)
Intensive and extensive reading practice including poetry and prose	5(25%)	12(60%)	2(10%)	1(5%)
Drama passages involving narration of real life stories and exposing students to diverse texts.	7(35%)	8(40%)	4(20%)	1(5%)

Table 3 revealed that most teachers (more than 85%) are of the opinion that the reading component of the NCE curriculum in English language is well implemented in their colleges of Education. The only area they have difficulty in implementing is inferential reading and critical reading.

Table 4: Implementation of the reading component of the curriculum as perceived by teachers-in-training.

Curriculum contents	VW	W	P	VP
Reading challenges	0(0%)	5(10%)	35(70%)	10(20%)
Eye regression	0(0%)	10(20%)	23(46%)	17(34%)
Training with fingers	0(0%)	5(10%)	27(54%)	18(36%)
Repetition (in oral reading)	0(0%)	3(6%)	25(50%)	12(24%)
Word recognition / analysis	0(0%)	5(10%)	35(70%)	10(20%)
Word comprehension	0(0%)	8(16%)	33(66%)	9(18%)
Sentence comprehension	0(0%)	10(20%)	29(58%)	11(22%)
Paragraph comprehension	0(0%)	3(6%)	37(74%)	10(20%)

Text comprehension for areas such as inferential reading and critical	0(0%)	5(10%)	30(60%)	15(30%)
Reading for sequence	0(0%)	7(14%)	23(46%)	20(20%)
Intensive and Extensive reading practice to include poetry, prose and	0(0%)	5(10%)	35(70%)	10(20%)
Drama passages involving narration of real life stories expose students to diverse texts	0(0%)	4(8%)	30(60%)	16(32%)

Most teachers as perceived by the students in training have much difficulty in implementing text comprehension such as inferential reading and critical reading. They often tend to ignore such areas rather teach them.

The classroom observation of the actual implementation of the reading component of the English language curriculum is presented in table 5 and 6. The scores in the tables were converted into percentages to enable even comparison of the actual implementation of the curriculum in the selected colleges.

Table 5: Classroom Observation

Curriculum contents	Level of implementation in COE 1 %	Method of teaching	
		Lecture method	Modified lecture method
Reading challenges	50	93	7
Word recognition / analysis	53	95	5
Word comprehension	72	98	0
Sentence comprehension	70	95	5
Paragraph comprehension	65	91	9
Text comprehension for inferential And critical reading	50	100	0
Reading for sequence	55	98	1
Intensive and Extensive Reading	62	99	1
Drama passages	50	97	3

Table 5 indicates that most of the curriculum contents were implemented at the level of 50-70%. Extra effort needs to be put in by teachers to raise the level of implementation. The methods used by most teachers (over 90%) in teaching the reading component of the NCE curriculum is purely lecture method. The implication of this is that it does not make teaching learner based on student centred but rather teacher based or teacher centred. This may not be a favourable trend. Most of the teachers use oral questions for evaluation and students activities.

Table 6: Classroom Observation

Curriculum contents	Level of implementation in COE 2	Method of teaching	
		Lecture method	Modified method
	%		
Reading challenges	50	98	2
Word recognition / analysis	55	96	4
Word comprehension	80	99	1
Sentence comprehension	78	100	0
Paragraph comprehension	75	99	1
Text comprehension for inferential	51	92	8
And critical reading	50	97	3
Reading for sequence	60	99	1
Intensive and Extensive Reading	52	98	2
Drama passages	50	100	0

Table 6 indicates that most of the curriculum contents were implemented at the level of 50-80% Extra effort needs to be put in by the teachers to raise the level of implementation to 100%. More than 90% of teachers use lecture method to teach the curriculum contents and they use oral questions for evaluation and as a technique for students' activities.

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

The study has identified challenges implementation of the reading component of the NCE English language curriculum. The observation carried out revealed poor interpretation of the curriculum and monotonous lecture method as probably the main cause of ineffective implementation. The teacher trainees complained that they are not really taught all of the content of the reading component of the curriculum and the curriculum is inadequate in terms of content. Teacher trainees are not adequately equipped and oriented to prepare teachers meaningfully for reading instruction at the primary or JSS level. Teachers confessed that most often, they tend to ignore or poorly teach reading as a component of the English language curriculum as a matter of fact teachers said they pay more attention to other language skills such as listening, speaking and writing more than reading. Most teachers are however of the opinion that the curriculum is well implemented, whereas, the teacher trainees are of the opinion that teachers have difficulty in implementing the curriculum. Teachers observed demonstrated very limited understanding of the basic principles of reading instruction. This study is in line with Olaofe (2013) Ajayi & Emoruwa (2012) and Ololube (2006) who emphasized the need to improve the quality of teachers in our teacher training colleges in order to improve the quality of Education in Nigeria.

CONCLUSION

The study had revealed the vital role of teachers in curriculum implementation. The implementation of the reading component of the NCE English language curriculum has not been efficiently and effectively done by teachers due to poor interpretation of the, overcrowded classrooms, and monotonous teaching method.

Teachers need to create environment that are conducive for learning for quality teacher education as no nation can rise above the standard or quality of her teachers. The respondents data revealed that both NCE students and teachers want a review of the curriculum from time to time. They also want to be involved in the curriculum development process. Teachers should not be merely implementers of the curriculum alone, they should be partners in the process of development. There is no doubt that promoting teacher quality is a key element in improving primary, secondary and tertiary education in Nigeria.

Recommendations

In order to improve the quality of teachers in Teacher Education Programmes in Nigeria, the reading component of the NCE English language Curriculum should be reviewed to include the basic principles of reading instruction.

The content of the reading component of the English language Curriculum should include topics/activities that will make NCE students (would-be teachers or teacher trainees) become functional, competent, effective and efficient reading instructors at all levels of Education. Such topics could include the concept skills nature and process of reading, how children learn to read, methods of teaching reading, etc. such topics if included in the curriculum will help to make it robust and make NCE would-be teachers to become functional readers and effective reading instructors at the primary and secondary levels of education.

Ineffective implementation of the reading component of the NCE English language Curriculum could be attributed to the lack of some basic facilities such as reading rooms, well-equipped library, large classrooms that can accommodate large group of students, audio visual materials, ICT facilities etc. These basic facilities should be provided to facilitate the smooth implementation of the curriculum.

The methodology of teaching reading should be taught intensively and extensively in all Colleges of Education throughout the 3 years duration of the NCE programme.

Teachers need to present their lessons in ways that are meaningful for learning and in ways that will encourage students to take notes. This will help to arouse their interest and also make them more attentive and alert in class.

Implication for Quality Teacher Education

Colleges of Education and other tertiary institutions should offer courses in Reading in order to produce quality reading specialists.

Teachers of English language should ensure that their activities do not always dominate those of the students in any given lesson because for the teaching/learning to be meaningful and result oriented both teachers and students must be actively involved. Teaching should be learner centred not teacher centred.

It is often said that no country or nation can rise above the standard and quality of its teachers. Therefore, in order to improve the economy of the Nation and to improve the quality of teachers nationwide, teachers should constantly be trained and retrained through workshops, seminars/conferences to improve their teaching methodology for quality curriculum content delivery.

Teachers need to constantly reflect and evaluate their teaching in order to improve on the quality of their teaching.

Teachers who do not have teaching qualification, masters degree or doctorate degrees should be encouraged to enrol for such programmes in order to upgrade their qualification.

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FACULTY SUPPORT FOR QUALITY ENHANCEMENT ACTIVITIES AT HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS IN CAPPADOCIA REGION

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Abstract: In this presentation, we would like to discuss the findings of a research project (NEUBAP13S20) about the faculty support for quality enhancement activities at nine universities around Cappadocia region. 233 questionnaires were gathered from faculty members who are employed at four year faculties. The question form included three seven-point Likert style sub-scales which were used to measure the expected institutional and individual benefits of the quality enhancement activities (12 items), opinions about the establishment and employment of quality and performance indicators (13 items), and the existence of an internal/external assessment culture (11 items). Group comparison tests show that support for quality enhancement activities are significantly different among faculty members according to academic titles, disciplinary differences, gender, and administrative roles. We believe these findings should be considered in efforts to strengthen organizational support for quality enhancement policies.

Key words: Quality enhancement, faculty support, Cappadocia

INTRODUCTION

Since the late 1970s and 1980s, higher education institutions have had to meet the challenges of adapting to the changing environment on a global scale. The multi-faceted challenges brought about by massification, democratization, and decreasing public funding were to be solved by diversifying income sources and efficiency on the one hand, while on the other hand being responsive to the demands of stakeholders including the economic institutions, the students, and the governments of the countries concerned (Altbach et al., 2009; Trow, 1996). All of the stakeholders had their own agendas besides the commonly shared desire for quality. Governments aimed to assert greater control, employers demanded more qualified and skilled employees, national and international institutions such as UNESCO, WTO, WB, IMF, EU and OECD were encouraging global competitiveness, the students wanted to be equipped with the necessary skills to have a chance in an increasingly tough labour market, and the invisible hand of supply side economics demanded further marketization of higher education (ie. Barkholt, 2004; Gayle et al., 2003; OECD, 1999; Johnstone et al., 1998).

The reforms which took place as a response to the above mentioned challenges, to varying degrees, created spaces outside the traditional exchanges between states and universities (as well as between governments and public administration) which had previously not existed in the Humboltian university model. However, the background rhetoric posed problems of accountability, auditability, transparency, quality assurance, efficiency, and governance, all flourishing within this unexplored area, and constructed differently in various higher education systems depending on the power relations both between and within the political, economic, and social structures (Power, 1996; Rose, 1991; Braun, 1999). The outcomes of this interplay among actors were manifested in new higher education laws, new governmental and nongovernmental buffer bodies (Huisman & Currie, 2004), new organizational structures, bylaws, funding mechanisms, guidelines of quality assurance and standardization and not the least, local resistances (Marginson & Considine, 2000: 64; Hansen & Borum, 1999). Throughout the 1980s and 1990s, almost all OECD countries reformed their higher education systems in order to include external actors in university governance, while also strengthening the managerial capacities of leaders.

Some of the Turkish higher education institutions also responded to external pressures by introducing quality assurance systems in early 1990s (Gürüz, 1999). The first significant attempt at establishing a quality system

emerged among the engineering faculties, which was based on external assessment and accreditation of the American ABET (Accreditation Board for Engineering and Technology). During 1994-2004, 33 Engineering programs at three universities have been accredited by this institution. Some medical faculties soon established their own accreditation council and between 2002 and 2014, 33 universities applied for external evaluation within the frame of EUA’s Institutional Evaluation Programme (EUA, 2014). Since 1990s, there have also been efforts to establish quality assurance systems on departmental or faculty level, mainly within the frame of industrial models (e.g. ISO standards, EFQM).

The second important initiative was an attempt to import the British model of higher education in 1997. A pilot project was carried out in 13 departments from 8 universities in collaboration with the British Council with the aim of establishing a national external quality assessment mechanism. The project was funded by a loan from the World Bank, and the emphasis was on ensuring quality in teaching and research in relation to increased accountability. The aim of the project was ‘to raise academic standards in the universities, and to establish a system based on departmental self-evaluations for teaching and submission in agreed formats to expert panels for research’. Furthermore, there were plans to link this system to a ‘demand-driven formula-funding mechanism for higher education’. It was planned to implement the main project, which was to be improved with the help of the results of the pilot, with the help of another loan from the World Bank (Billing & Thomas, 2000). However, this did not happen.

After five years, in 2002, a bylaw prepared by the CHE for Academic Evaluation and Quality Control at Institutions of Higher Education, was put into force. However, these regulations were based on self-evaluation only, and the universities were left to decide their own evaluation procedures. There were no signs of external assessment or peer review. Although there was a super-commission elected by the Inter University Board (IUB) to set minimum requirements, the consequences of negative reports were almost negligible, and were even not mentioned in the section on quality assurance in the draft report of CHE 2006. The bylaw was much weaker than one would anticipate considering the experiences of accreditation and the 1997 project.

Finally, in 2005, the ‘Academic Assessment and Quality Enhancement in Higher Education Institutions’ regulation was enacted, envisioning a quality assurance system required by the Bologna Process by 2007. The Guide Book of the Commission of Academic Assessment and Quality Enhancement in Higher Education Institutions (abbr. CAAQDHE) illustrates the “strategic quality management” scheme which was to be built. According to afore mentioned regulation, the universities have to prepare their strategic plans within the frame of the strategic plan of the Council of Higher Education (abbr. CHE), which in turn should be in line with higher level governmental policy documents. Strategic plans of higher education institutions blend strategies, quality enhancement processes, performance monitoring, and finally budget allocations (CAAQDHE, 2007). These connections can be seen on Figure 1 which shows the main frame of strategic planning and quality enhancement activities at the higher education institutions (CAAQDHE, 2007).

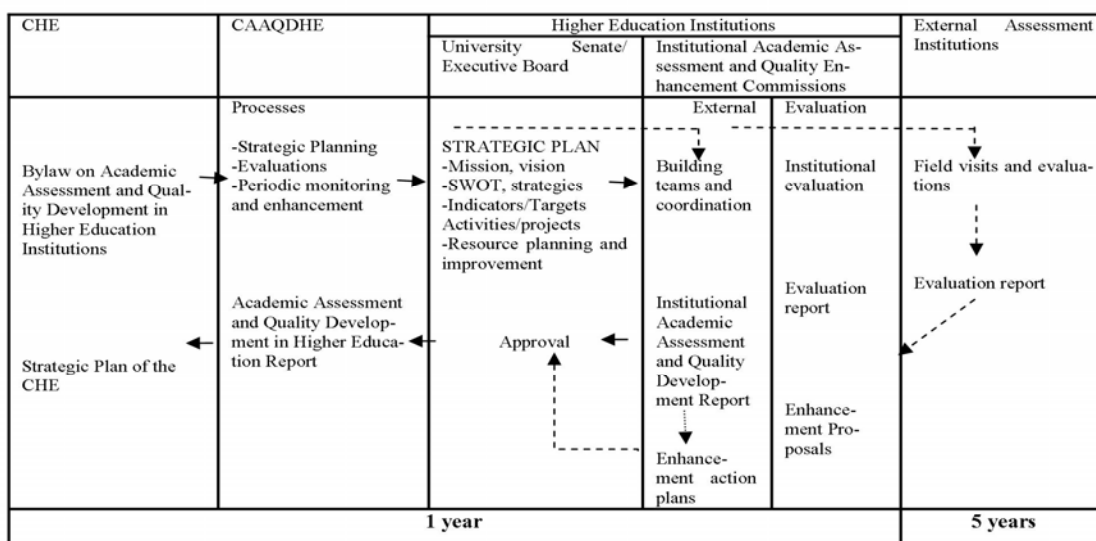


Figure 1 Road Map of Academic Assessment and Quality Enhancement in Higher Education Institutions

The implications of this top-down “strategic quality management” approach remain to be seen, and there seem to be uncertainties and reluctance among the universities about how to establish a quality assurance system which is tightly interwoven in strategic plans. There are also uncertainties at higher levels of higher education system. After our survey was finished, CHE decided to abolish CAAQDHE and to establish a new commission within the CHE called the Qualifications, Quality Assurance and Accreditation Commission. According to the chairman of the CHE, there is need to establish an administrative and functional structure within CHE to summon all activities about quality under a single umbrella (www.aa.com.tr, 2014). This commission is now preparing another bylaw in line with the EU Standards and Guidelines (ESG). Whether the above presented road map will still be effective is not clear yet.

Although legal and institutional design of quality enhancement and assurance is still in the making in Turkey, there is also need to pay attention to other dimensions of establishing a quality culture in higher education institutions. Among other big problems of organizational change, one of the most important problems about embedding a quality assurance system at higher education institutions may be considered as the possible lack of institutional and individual support for quality enhancement/assurance activities.

An overview of literature about quality enhancement and assessment provides clues about institutional and individual resistances against introduction and implementation of quality related processes. In case of Turkey, one can also add country specific problems about establishing a quality assurance system. For instance, David Billing and Harold Thomas (2000), members of the UK consultant group for the project, provided an overview of the main challenges facing the application of a foreign quality system in a very different national setting. They categorized three main groups of practical difficulties. The first group consisted of cultural differences which included, among others, the lack of prior quality culture, and the nature of the relationships among academics. They noted that academics were not used to peer assessment and, in some cases, this was seen as an erosion of academic autonomy. Another cultural restraint was that personal acquaintance played an important role in the processes of assessments and expert panels. Thus critical objectivity was hard to achieve. The second group of problems included structural and political issues. The strict line-item budgeting and non-participatory decision making caused reluctance to internalize quality measures or to put efforts on a staff level and the role of the CHE in the process was met with some degree of resistance. The authors have called the third group technical issues. But the cited problems are more than purely technical, including the suspicions against the CHE, the establishment of a quality system, the definition of standardised objectives which would allow national comparison and restrict diversity, or dependence on performance indicators. In a later study, Tonbul (2008:656) stated that the faculty members were critical of the role of CHE, IUB, and purely administrative boards in determining quality assessment and planning activities.

This paper deals with the faculty members’ support for quality enhancement activities at higher education institutions. We believe there is lack of empirical findings in the literature about the institutional support for quality related activities on faculty level in Turkey, and we hope our study may provide a small contribution to fill this gap. In the following sections we explain the methodology of our study and present the key findings of the analysis.

Methodology

In this paper, we would like to discuss the findings of a research project (NEUBAP13S20) about the faculty support for quality enhancement activities in nine universities around Cappadocia region. Within the frame of this project, 233 questionnaires (out of 1638 faculty members) were gathered from faculty members who are employed at four year faculties around Cappadocia Region. The questionnaire included a Support for Quality Enhancement Activities scale which was developed by the authors. The scale included three seven-point Likert style sub-scales which were used to measure the expected institutional and individual benefits of the quality enhancement activities (12 items), opinions about the establishment and employment of quality and performance indicators (13 items), and the existence of an internal/external assessment culture (11 items). The scale items were derived from the literature about the resistances against quality assurance/enhancement activities, and the findings of the prior studies about quality assurance activities at the Turkish higher education institutions. Data were weighted according to academic titles to better reflect the population. Weighted descriptive statistics of the scales are presented in Table 1, the descriptive statistics of the scale items are provided in Table 3.

Table 1 Descriptive Statistics and Cronbach's Alpha Values of the Scales

	Items	Mean	SD	α
Support for quality enhancement activities(Total)	36	4,86	,70491	,910
Expected institutional and individual benefits of the quality enhancement activities	12	5,29	,91486	,880
Opinions about establishment and employment of quality and performance indicators	13	4,68	,76255	,788
Existence of an internal/external assessment culture	11	4,62	,78282	,737

Mean age of the respondents is 43. Average duration of service in academy is 17 years, while average service length in the affiliated institution is approximately 10 years. Information about the respondents can be seen in Table 2.

Table 2 Properties of the Respondents

GENDER	Frequency	Percent	Weighted Percent
Female	40	17,2	21,9
Male	193	82,8	78,1
TITLE			
Professor	69	29,6	15,4
Assoc. Prof.	69	29,6	16,7
Assist. Prof.	95	40,8	67,9
ADMINISTRATOR			
Yes	108	46,4	42,5
No	125	53,6	57,5
ACTIVE ROLE IN QUALITY ENHANCEMENT			
Yes	51	22,1	19,8
No	180	77,9	80,2

RESULTS

Means, standard deviations and frequency statistics of scale items are provided in Table 3. The findings are discussed in the discussion section. (1=Totally disagree, 2= Disagree to a great extend, 3=Disagree, 4=Neither disagree or disagree, 5=Agree, 6=Agree to a great extend, 7=Totally agree)

Table 3 Descriptive Statistics of the Scale Items

Expected Benefits	Mean	SD	1(%)	2(%)	3(%)	4(%)	5(%)	6(%)	7(%)
Quality enhancement activities increase the motivation of the faculty to develop themselves.	5,1013	1,60015	3,1	4,4	10,1	11,5	27,3	19,8	23,8
Faculty works more productively with the quality enhancement activities.	5,1542	1,43534	1,3	3,1	9,3	15,4	28,2	21,6	21,1
Quality enhancement activities produce positive results for the students.	5,4159	1,39029	2,2	1,8	4,4	12,8	26,5	27,0	25,2
These activities only increase the faculty's administrative work load.	3,7920	1,75528	13,3	12,4	17,3	20,8	18,6	10,6	7,1
Quality enhancement activities develop international relations of my institution.	5,3839	1,24379	,4	1,3	5,4	15,6	27,7	28,6	21,0
Quality enhancement activities increase international student mobility at my institution.	5,4071	1,29366	,9	3,1	4,0	11,5	27,9	32,3	20,4
Quality enhancement activities develop relations with the external share holders.	5,4185	1,29540	1,3	1,3	5,3	12,8	26,4	31,3	21,6

Quality enhancement activities nourish social bonds among the faculty members.	5,2301	1,34996	1,8	2,2	5,3	17,3	26,5	29,2	17,7
The efforts about quality enhancement activities are not worth of the possible benefits.	2,8546	1,80486	31,7	18,9	18,5	9,3	10,1	7,5	4,0
Quality enhancement activities provide important contributions in the long term.	5,6933	1,21347	,4	1,3	3,6	8,4	26,7	28,4	31,1
Quality enhancement activities increase the competitiveness of my institution.	5,4444	1,52882	2,2	2,2	8,4	9,8	24,0	20,0	33,3
These activities cause conflict among faculty members.	3,1013	1,78076	26,9	14,5	19,4	15,4	11,9	8,4	3,5
Indicators			1(%)	2(%)	3(%)	4(%)	5(%)	6(%)	7(%)
Faculty must be evaluated with quality assessment and performance indicators.	4,9912	1,58883	4,0	4,4	7,5	18,1	23,5	23,5	19,0
Faculty should feel responsibility to achieve quality and performance targets.	5,3894	1,39481	,9	3,5	6,2	11,5	25,7	27,4	24,8
It is difficult to develop quality and performance indicators in my discipline.	4,0356	1,73426	7,6	16,4	13,8	20,0	20,4	12,9	8,9
I do not think that quality and performance indicators are fair.	4,3214	1,51355	6,7	4,9	12,5	30,4	23,2	15,6	6,7
Quality and performance indicators guide the studies of the faculty.	5,2054	1,29945	2,7	1,3	4,5	15,2	29,5	34,4	12,5
Quality and performance indicators help to institutional development.	5,3857	1,26426	,4	1,8	6,7	12,6	26,5	32,3	19,7
The administrators arrange activities to explain quality and performance aims to the faculty.	4,4711	1,50899	5,3	5,8	11,6	22,7	31,6	14,7	8,4
The students would not be objective when evaluating education activities.	3,9367	1,50622	8,6	9,0	14,5	33,5	22,2	6,8	5,4
A consensus is sought to develop quality and performance indicators.	4,3991	1,46349	6,7	4,0	9,9	28,3	29,6	16,1	5,4
Faculty members adopt the employment of quality and performance indicators for assessment.	4,4664	1,43868	5,4	4,9	10,8	23,8	31,4	19,3	4,5
It is fair to use quality and performance indicators to distribute resources.	4,4622	1,48494	5,8	4,4	11,6	24,9	29,8	16,4	7,1
I develop proposals in developing quality and performance indicators.	4,6771	1,46852	4,0	4,0	11,7	18,8	33,6	17,5	10,3
Quality and performance indicators may be used to keep the faculty under control.	3,6009	1,76997	16,1	15,2	13,9	22,9	17,0	8,5	6,3
Internal and External Assessment Culture			1(%)	2(%)	3(%)	4(%)	5(%)	6(%)	7(%)
Monitoring faculty members may provide positive results.	4,8705	1,57224	4,0	4,5	8,9	20,1	24,6	21,4	16,5
Internal and external assessments damages academic autonomy.	3,1429	1,61193	21,4	13,8	24,6	21,0	10,3	6,3	2,7
The faculties in my institutions are used to being evaluated.	3,7768	1,58304	10,3	12,9	16,1	28,6	17,4	11,2	3,6
Quality assurance activities harm the privacy between the faculty and the students.	3,1467	1,63685	21,3	15,6	20,4	26,2	6,2	6,7	3,6
Evaluation of the faculty members by external agents is important to provide objectiveness.	4,8978	1,44952	1,8	5,3	8,0	21,8	27,1	21,3	14,7
I would not like being assessed by a colleague.	3,8259	1,80459	15,6	8,5	16,5	24,1	16,5	9,8	8,9
I would not be bothered to have my activities evaluated.	5,2800	1,61101	2,7	3,6	9,3	13,3	19,6	21,8	29,8
Uncertainties about how the results of internal and external assessments are wide spread.	4,4711	1,45783	2,7	8,0	8,4	36,0	20,4	14,2	10,2
Academic profession is not suitable for constant monitoring.	3,5893	1,68376	13,4	16,5	17,0	22,8	16,1	9,8	4,5
It is natural that the activities of the faculty to be monitored.	5,0578	1,41776	1,3	3,1	10,7	16,0	28,4	23,1	17,3
Evaluation by international agencies is not appropriate.	3,5938	1,62109	17,4	7,6	14,7	33,5	14,7	9,4	2,7

In the second step of analysis, the data acquired from the questionnaires were analyzed with independent t tests and ANOVA tests to identify significant differences among respondent groups. Tests results are presented in the following sub-sections.

Academic Titles

The findings of the one way ANOVA test which was used to examine differences among respondents based on academic titles suggest that there is significant effect of academic title on support for quality enhancement activities [F (2,1695)= 16.65, p=.00]. Dunnett T3 test was used for post hoc comparison of support for quality assurance activities. It was found that the assistant professors (M=4.87, SD=0.63) supported quality assurance activities more than professors (M=4.68, SD=0.70) and associate professors (M=4.66, SD=0.73).

Disciplinary Differences

Differences among academics who worked at different faculties were also examined with one way ANOVA test. Six types of faculties were included in this analysis: faculty of economics and administrative sciences, faculty of education, faculty of science and letters, faculty of architecture and engineering, medical sciences (medicine, pharmacy, and dentistry were combined), and faculty of theology. Medicine faculty of Erciyes University was excluded due to administrative reasons. Approximately 90% of the respondents were employed at these faculties. Results showed that the type of faculty has a significant effect on the responses of the faculty members about support for quality enhancement activities [F (5, 1520)= 22.87, p=.00]. Results revealed that the academics who were employed at the medical sciences faculties (M=5, SD=0.62) supported quality assurance activities more than those at the other faculties while the members of theology faculties (M=4.26, SD=0.59) had the lowest scores in support for quality assurance activities.

Gender

Independent samples t-test results showed that there were significant differences between female and male respondents about support for quality assurance activities. Females (M=4.73, SD= 0.50) reported lower level of support for quality assurance activities than males (M=4.82, SD= 0.70); t (1697)= -2.30, p= .022.

Administrators versus non-administrators

The independent samples t-tests which aimed to compare the answers of the administrators and non-administrators showed that the administrators differed significantly from non-administrator faculty members. They had more support for quality assurance activities (M=4.92, SD= 0.68) than non-administrators (M=4.72, SD= 0.64).

Active Role in Determining Quality Enhancement Policies

The test result revealed that those who play an active role in determining quality enhancement policies differed significantly from those who do not. Their support is higher (M=5,07, SD=0,80) than faculty members who are not part of quality enhancement activities (M=4,73, SD=0,61).

DISCUSSION

The findings of the study show that faculty members have positive views about quality enhancement activities at their institutions. This is most evident in the responds about expected individual and institutional benefits. For example 86% of the respondents agreed with the expression “Quality enhancement activities provide important contributions in the long term”. Almost 81% of the respondents thought that quality enhancement activities may increase international student mobility, while 79% agreed that these activities may improve relations with external shareholders. In addition to students and the institution, the respondents also believed that quality enhancement activities may support individual development. 71% of the respondents agreed that quality enhancement activities may increase motivation and productivity. However, it should also be emphasized that, when neutral responses are included, 57% on the respondents also believe that these activities only increase administrative workload.

The responses to the items on the scale about development and employment of quality and/or performance indicators require closer attention. Actually, a great number of the faculty members agree that the faculty should feel responsibility to achieve quality and performance targets (78%). They also think that the quality/performance indicators may act as a guide for academic studies (76%), and may contribute institutional development (78%). However, there seem to be problems associated with development and employment of quality and/or performance indicators. 42% of the respondents think that it is difficult to develop these indicators in their own discipline. When combined with neutral answers, this percentage increases to 62%. More importantly, there seem to be largely shared concern about the fairness of indicators. 45% of the respondents did not think that indicators are fair, while this percentage is 76% when combined with neutral answers. Student evaluations also seem to lack confidence. When combined with neutral answers 66% does not agree that the students may be objective in evaluating faculty members.

An examination of the sub-scale on internal and external assessment culture reveals important issues. The items on this scale produced higher numbers of neutral answers than the other two sub-scale items. On the hand the majority of the respondents (71%) do not feel uncomfortable about being evaluated, and they think it is natural to have their activities be monitored (69%). 62% of the respondents also agreed that monitoring faculty members activities may provide positive outcomes. External evaluation agents are considered beneficial in providing objective assessments (63%), although international agencies seem to suffer a lower degree of acceptance with 40% of the respondents. These findings suggest that the faculty members are not hostile about internal / external assessments. But there also seem to be widespread uncertainties about how the results of internal and external assessments will be used. 45% of the respondents agreed that there are uncertainties about the employment of assessment, while this percentage increases to 81% with neutral answers. It seems there is need to better communicate with the faculty members on quality enhancement activities. With neutral answers included, 45% does not feel they are well informed about quality and performance targets, while 49% of the respondents do not agree that quality enhancement activities were based on mutual consensus.

The statistical analysis of the data revealed significant differences based on academic titles, disciplinary differences, gender, role in determining quality enhancement policies, and administrative role among the faculty members. According to the test results, it could be claimed that the assistant professors support quality enhancement activities more than their senior colleagues. We believe that this is an important finding, since assistant professors make up almost %65 of the study's population. One could argue that the attitudes of assistant professors may facilitate quality enhancement activities. But, it should be reminded that senior faculty members, and especially the professors, are more powerful and influential in administrative and academic boards of higher education institutions. From this perspective, we believe that it is important to involve senior faculty members in identifying quality enhancement policies.

Disciplinary differences should also be considered in building institutional support for quality enhancement activities. The findings of this study indicate that faculties of medical sciences, architecture and engineering are more supportive about quality enhancement activities. It could be recommended to introduce new or revised quality enhancement activities at these faculties first.

The differences between the administrators and non-administrators are significant. It is evident that the faculty members who have administrative roles have more positive views about their institutions. This could simply be the result of the bias of the administrators who believe it is a part of their role to support quality assurance activities. Although one could argue that the high ratio of administrators (46%) may be considered as favorable for building institutional support, the discrepancy between the administrators and non-administrators may also indicate an adverse effect of the top-down approach. This top-down approach is also evident in the ratio of those who have active roles (22%) in determining quality enhancement policies.

Although the findings of this study provide clues which could be beneficial in determining institutional strategies to foster support for quality enhancement activities, it must be reminded that this study was limited to nine universities and only included professors, associate professors, and assistant professors who are employed at four year faculties. Higher education institutions in Turkey vary to a great extent with older and younger universities which have different priorities, budget sizes, number of students, legal status, and numbers of academic and administrative staff. So, there is need to increase the number of empirical studies about the factors effecting the attitudes of the faculty members to achieve informed progress in building institutional support for quality enhancement activities.

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IMPACT APPRAISAL OF ACADEMIC STAFF UNION OF UNIVERSITIES (ASUU) STRIKE ON QUALITY OF UNIVERSITY EDUCATION IN NIGERIA

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Abstract: This paper examined the effect of ASUU strike on quality of education in Nigeria. The study has five objectives and five null hypotheses. Descriptive survey design was adopted for the study. The researchers targeted 450 undergraduate students from three federal universities in the North-West Geo-political zone in the country. Four rating scale structured questionnaire titled, ASUU Strike and Quality of Education in Nigeria (ASQEN) was used for data collection. The researchers assisted by two research assistants distributed the instruments. Three hundred and eighty four copies of questionnaire were properly completed. Data collected were coded in to SPSS; the package was used to run multiple regression models to determine the five null hypotheses. In all the tests of the hypotheses, the .05 confidence level was used for determining statistical significance. The result revealed that, ASUU strike has negative effect on the quality of university graduates that the country produces. In view of this, it was recommended among others that, government should develop actions that will help to check incessant industrial action in Nigerian educational sector.

Keywords: Effects, Academic Staff Union of Universities, Strike, Quality, University, Education, Nigeria

Introduction

Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU) was formed in 1978. It is an offspring of Nigerian Association of University Teachers formed in 1965. The union aim at assisting: - the stake holders in achieving its high profile in education and in development and promoting sustainable management of education by providing high-quality services in Education. In addition the union also supports the struggle for the improvement of the social, economic professional situation of the members, safeguard their interests and work for their success. In Nigeria as in other countries, trade unions do use various strategies to achieve their goals. Tahir (2014), reported that, trade union such as ASUU, usually embark on various actions over agitations for improvement of their welfare, teaching and research facilities and university autonomy.

Since the formation of the Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU) in 1978, the union is generally considered strike as the last option to influence government decision. The action involves one of the followings: - (i) suspension of work; (ii) refusal to work; (iii) continue to work under certain conditions; or (iv) slow down of work. The first strike action reported by Olusegun (2014), was organised in 1988 during General Ibrahim Badamasi Babangida for fair wages and university autonomy. The situation worsened during late General Sani Abacha when the union embarked on strike in 1994 and 1996 protesting against the dismissal of their members. During President Olusegun Obasanjo, the struggle for improvement of salary, teaching and research facilities, university autonomy and reinstatement of forty-nine lecturers from university of Ilorin led to another strike in 2007, 2008 and 2009. The strike was suspended when late President Umaru Musa Yar'Adua came to power. With the coming of an academician as the president of the country (Dr. Goodluck Jonathan), it was hoped that the regime will bring lasting solution to ASUU problem. Unfortunately, failure of the Federal Government to implement the 2009 agreement led to another strike action which disrupted the activities of universities for another six months. The persistent strikes have definitely affected the stability of university calendar in Nigeria. Suleiman (2013), reported in his research that the perennial disputes between ASUU and the government over the last fourteen years had made universities to loose three years of academic study.

Despite the importance of stability on school calendar on education, the incessant ASUU strikes action in the country has become worrisome and destabilized the programme of educational sector. It is on record that, from 1988 to 2013, the national body of the union had embarked on 16 strike actions. Abdulsalam (2013) reported that ASUU organised strike in 1988, 1992, 1994 and 1996. Aghatise (2013) reported that in the present dispensation ASUU had organised strikes in 1999, 2001, 2002, 2003, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008, 2009, 2010, 2011-2012 and 2013. Beside these, local chapters also do organise their branch strike actions from time to time.

The persistent ASUU strikes in Nigeria have disrupting school academic, left academic activities of universities disjointed, and distract the normal learning process. According to Kazeem and Ige (2010), disruption in academic program resulting from strike led to closure of universities for a period of time thereby affecting the academic activity of universities. Edinyang & Ubi (2013), and Olusegun (2014), maintained that instability in school calendar through strike elongate study period and hamper their academic activities. Considering the impact of strike actions on school calendar and academic activities, the researchers examined the impact of ASUU strike on:- (i) implementation of school curricula in Nigeria; (ii) quality of teaching in universities in Nigeria; (iii) acquisition of requisite skills in Nigeria; and (iv) students learning habit in Nigeria

Null hypotheses

1. ASUU strike has no significant impact on implementation of curricula in Nigeria.
2. ASUU strike has no significant impact on quality of teaching in universities in Nigeria
3. ASUU strike has no significant impact on students acquisition of requisite skills in Nigeria
4. ASUU strike has no significant impact on students learning habit in Nigeria

METHODOLOGY

Research design

The design used for this study was descriptive design method. The design was considered the most convenient way to obtain facts from respondents in which the results of the analyses were used for decision-taking and generalization. Amechi (2003) stated that, when a study involves a population or a sample of respondents from whom information is obtained either verbally or through questionnaire, the ideal design method to be adopted is the descriptive survey design.

Population of the study

The total population was 450 undergraduate students from three federal universities in Nigeria, namely:- Ahmadu Bello University Zaria, Bayero University Kano and Usman Danfodio University, Sokoto located in the in North-west geo-political zone in the country. The researchers randomly selected 150 students from each university.

Research instrument

The instrument used for this study was a self-constructed structured questionnaire titled, ASUU Strike and Quality of Education in Nigeria (ASQEN). The instrument has section A and B. Section A elicits bio-data information of respondents. Section B contains 20 items that generate data used for test of the null hypotheses raised. The researchers used the idea of Likert to construct in a four (4) rating scale structured questionnaire of Strongly Agree 4 points, Agree 3 points, Disagree 2 points and Strongly Disagree 1 point.

The instrument was validated by experts in education and research methodology who were of the ranks of senior lecturers and above in Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria. The suggestions and criticisms were put into consideration in the final copy of the instrument. Twenty copies of questionnaire were distributed to undergraduate students in Kaduna state university, Kaduna for pilot study. Data collected were subjected to statistical analysis using Cronbach's alpha, the analysis gave a correlation-coefficient of 0.75. A reliability coefficient of this value is high enough for studies of this nature as reported by Uzosike (2008), who stated that, the average value of correlation co-efficient should not be less than 0.50 .

Data collection

The data was personally administered by the researchers, assisted by two research assistants. The questionnaire were administered to students during the general courses in their respective institutions. Face to face method of data administration was used. This method enabled a high retrieve rate of the data. The respondents were required to indicate their relative agreement with each item based on the scale.

Result of the Study

All the data collected were analyzed using multiple regression analysis. In the analysis, when calculated value was greater than table value or ($P \geq \alpha$), the null hypothesis was retained and on the other hand when the

calculated value of null hypotheses was less than the table value or the ($P \leq \alpha$), the null hypothesis was not retained. In all the tests of the hypotheses, the .05 confidence level was used for determining statistical significance.

Table 3: Summary of Multiple regression result used to test the null hypotheses

Variables	Coefficient		
	B	B	t-value
Implementation of curricula	0.58	0.387	2.266*
Quality of teaching	0.56	0.381	2.251*
Students Acquisition of Requisite skills	0.64	0.413	4.146*
Learning habit	0.68	0.444	4.217*
Test results			
F- value	3.112*		
R	0.805		
R ²	0.648		
Constant	0.779		2.764*
DF	3/178		

Result of data analysis is as presented in the Table showed that there was high association (0.805) between independent variables and quality of university education in Nigeria. The coefficient of R² value shows that ASUU strike has 65 percent negative effect on quality of university graduates in the country. This further revealed in the result of ANOVA which revealed F value was 3.112, $p < 0.05$ indicates that implementation of curricula, quality of teaching, students acquisition of requisite skills and students learning habit significantly affect the quality of education in Nigerian Universities. The significance effect of the variables indicates that the four sets of independent variables with “t” values of 2.251 & 4.146, $p < 0.05$) have high effect on quality of universities graduates in Nigeria.

Discussion of the findings

The study revealed that ASUU strike had negative impact on implementation of universities curricula. The finding agreed with that of Bello (2008), who reported that, during strike action, universities curriculums were not fully implemented. As a result, students struggled to acquire certificates at all cost without actually fulfilling the required educative process. Kazeem and Ige (2010), earlier noted that, during strike action no academic activity takes place at the institutions and upon resumption students at most times are not given the opportunity to make up for lost times. Similarly, Edinyang and Ubi (2013) stressed that, effective learning was always hampered by inability to successful implementation of curriculum and or of syllabus timely before the examination. In supporting this, Adesulu (2014), maintained that ASUU strike has affect the quality of graduates from Nigerian universities since time lost due to strikes that should be used for delivering the curriculum was not gained after the strike. Similarly, Olusegun (2014) reported that one of the negative impacts of ASUU strike was the lowering of quality of graduates from Nigerian universities since time that should have been used for teaching the curriculum was lost during the strikes. He added that, the typical scenario was to condense content that should have been taught by rushing students to examinations thereafter. This scenario led to half-baked products of university graduates in Nigeria.

The second finding of the study showed that, strike action affected the quality of teaching in Universities. This results agreed with most of the findings regarding the relationship between job satisfaction, need satisfaction, motivation and job performance (Ifinedo, 2003, 2004; Ladebo, 2005; Ubom & Joshua, 2004; Ubom, 2001), who all stated that job performance of teachers depended on job satisfaction. Nwachukwu (2006) reported that physiological needs, security needs, social needs, self-esteem needs and self-actualization needs are significant predictors of the job performance of Nigerian teachers. Asuquo (2010), who reported that good human relations are important to teachers and students’ well being as well as effective teaching and learning in universities. Sommer (2014) stressed that, when a group of employees voluntarily joins a labor union or other formal organizations, and this group goes on strike, the overall employee performance will suffer.

The study also revealed that ASUU strike affected the learning habit of students. The outcome of the study was similar with that of Iheanacho (2002) and Isangedighi (2007), who reported that effective learning was achieved when students were emotionally and psychologically stable. They stressed that during strike action, students become emotionally and psychologically unstable especially on the perception that it would cause them to stay at the institution longer than expected, hence affecting their learning habit. Edinyang and Ubi (2013) also reported that, disruption in academic programme from strike action affect the quality and quantity of students’ learning habit. They added that such disruption affected their concentration, interaction with fellow students and teachers. Isangedighi (2011), believed strike action had negative effect on students’ learning ability. He added

that, students lost preparedness and readiness to learn at time of strike hence their educational attainment becomes adversely affected. Similarly, Edinyang and Ubi (2013) reported that disruptions in academic programmes served as non-motivational factor to the students as it discouraged their learning habit. The view of Gabriel (2014), also showed that, during strike, the enthusiasm of reading habit of students would be lost.

Conclusion

Based on the findings of the study, it was concluded that:-

ASUU strike action destabilized calendar of universities education in Nigeria. The disruption affects the followings, curriculum implementation, quality of lesson delivery, period of graduation, hampered students' performance and quality of education in the country. The National Policy on Education specified standard and goals of higher education in Nigeria as enunciated will not be easily achieved. As a result, graduates will not be adequately prepared to face the challenges of labour market and this would increase the rate of graduate youth unemployment in the country. In addition, the pass glory and enviable standard of Nigeria universities locally and globally would be lost.

Recommendations

Based on the findings, it was recommended that:-

1. government should develop actions such as organizing meetings and interaction; this will help to check incessant industrial action in educational sector in Nigeria.
2. there should be reduction of bureaucracies to enhance effective personal communication between ASUU officials and government bodies.
3. ASUU officials also should be calm in any of their decisions that will lead to strike actions which will hamper the academics activities of schools
4. students should cultivate the habit of studying at home during strike, this will help to improve their performance when strike is called off.

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IMPROVING THE TEACHING EFFECTIVENESS: AN EXPERIENCE IN AN ITALIAN MECHANICAL ENGINEERING DEGREE

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Abstract: The implementation in Italy of the so called "3+2" system, in adoption of the Bologna process, led to an initial increase of the efficiency of the overall results, in terms of the ratio of the number of students who completed the degree over the number of the students enrolled. These findings are measured in the first cycle (BS level) in a mechanical engineering University degree. After a several years tendency to increase, the data show a relevant change of the slope, that became negative. In this poster the actions implemented to face this situation and revert the tendency to a positive behaviour are described.

THE NEED FOR A CHANGE

At the end of the 20th century, the overall results of the Italian universities, in terms of the number of graduate with respect to the number of enrolled students, and of the duration of their academic careers, were dramatically unsatisfactory. The problem of dropouts is of course worldwide present; as is reported, for example, by Meyer M. and Marx S. (2014), notwithstanding this, in Italy it reached a particular high level of severity. If the data were integrated over all the universities and all the branches of knowledge, about only one third of the total number of students enrolled concluded the studies, furthermore in a greater time with respect to the regular duration of the course. This, together with the need of complying to the statements of the Bologna process to harmonize "the architecture of the European Higher Education system", led to the adoption of the so-called "3+2" system.

The main characteristic of the reform is the organization of the courses in three cycles: first degree (similar to a BS) that lasts three years, and degree, that lasts two years, even if particular courses are planned as single-cycle five or six years degree courses. The course of first degree aims to provide students with an adequate command of general scientific methods and contents as well as the acquisition of specific professional skills, while degree program aims to provide students with an advanced level of education for the exercise of highly qualified activity in specific areas. The third cycle is provided as a 3-year doctoral research (after obtaining the degree). Other possibilities that are offered consist in 1 year university masters of first and second level (which you can sign up with the title, respectively, of the first degree and master's degree).

Another reason for the reform was to allow individual universities to have to some extent a teaching autonomy: the reform aimed to ensure the freedom to each university to build curricula tailored to the needs of the local economic and social reality. In any case, the courses of study designed by each university must meet certain general criteria in terms of objectives and of the general aspects of the training activities, defined at the national level. This autonomy regarded:

- the name and training objectives that characterize the courses of study;
- the criteria of access (free access, limited number of students, assessment of initial competencies);
- the type of educational activities and the corresponding number of Credits (complying with "ECTS" European Credit Transfer System);
- the identification of alternative forms of teaching, such as those at a distance;
- the mode of conducting curricular activities of professionalizing;
- the characteristics of the final test to achieve the qualification.

THE OUTCOMES

The data that show the time evolution of the number of freshmen enrolled at the mechanical engineering degree, the total number of students and the number of graduate, are reported in the table. The ratio of the number of students graduated in the prescribed time with respect to the number of the students that had enrolled, is assumed in the first instance as a measure of the efficiency of the course of study. At a glance, it is evident that the total number of graduate, ranging from 40% to 60%, greatly exceeds the 1/3 ratio found before the reform, thus it can be stated that the adoption of the 3+2 system had a positive effect.

Similar results have been obtained by Chiandotto B. and Giusti C. (2006) on a national scale; defining a *duration index* as

$$\text{duration index} = 1 + \text{delay} / \text{legal duration}$$

where the delay is the number of days elapsed between the end of the last academic year "in progress" and graduation, while the legal duration of the course refers to the one where the student has enrolled. The index therefore allows to compare the graduates in different courses and is also easy to interpret since it increases with

the delay and takes values greater than or equal to one. It has been found that the duration index, which was equal to 1.62 for the pre-reform graduates, decreased to 1.59 (thus showing an increased efficiency of the system) in the years immediately after the reform (when students that had enrolled before the reform switched to the new organization), with a further slight decrease in the successive years.

Academic year	Freshmen	Total enrolled	Graduate	Ratio
2003-2004	179	552	39	
2004-2005	184	625	82	
2005-2006	125	580	72	0,40
2006-2007	131	584	73	0,40
2007-2008	134	597	70	0,56
2008-2009	159	610	65	0,50
2009-2010	157	632	82	0,61
2010-2011	185	659	76	0,48
2011-2012	160	677	88	0,56
2012-2013	139	639	99	0,54
2013-2014	104	567		

Table: Number of freshmen, of all the students enrolled in the first level degree and of the graduate for the academic years from 2003-2004 to 2013-2014. The number of graduate for the current academic year is not reported as the exams will terminate next February. The ratio is the number of graduate with respect to the students which enrolled two years before.

Returning to the local data, reporting them on a graph, it results that the ratio has two different temporal behaviors: from the academic year 2005/2006, till the a.y. 2009-2010, the slope of the regression line is positive, showing an increasing efficiency of the system (as long as the above mentioned ratio can be assumed as a measure of it), whilst in the following years the same slope becomes negative. Similar data were obtained in other courses. The data must be analyzed more critically, because they could be affected by other factors. but in any case they warn about the need of improving the efficiency of teaching.

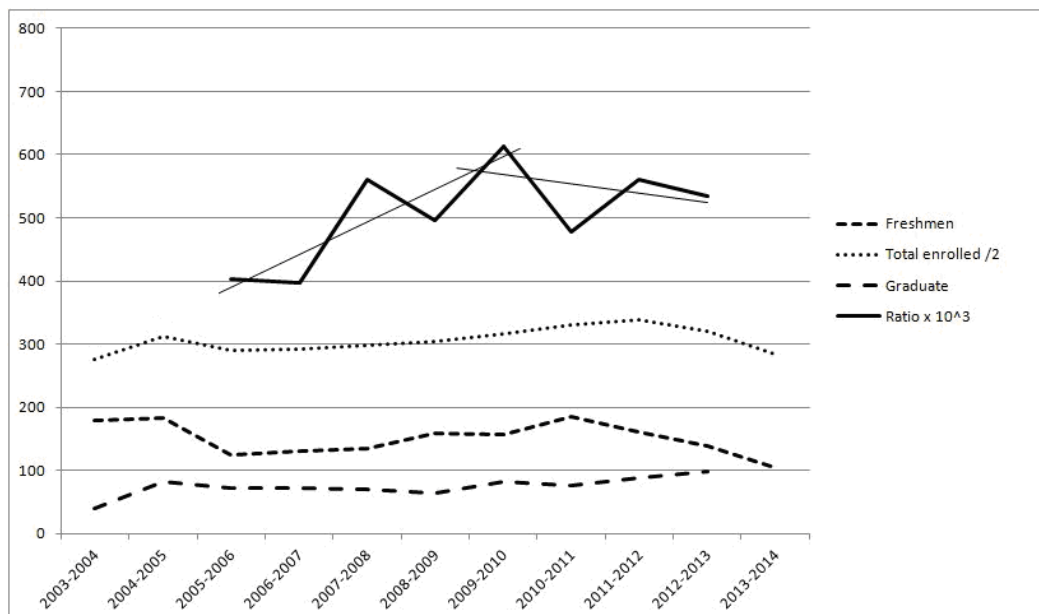


Figure: the graphs represent the data reported in the table. The ratio (above) is defined as in the table caption. Two regression lines are drawn for the periods 2005-2010 and 2010-2013 respectively, showing two different tendencies.

THE ACTION

The quality of teaching, the efficiency of the organization and the satisfaction of the students is a constant concern at the University of Perugia. As data similar to the ones shown above were observed in various courses, some actions were devised and implemented to face what could possibly be a decrease in the performance of the system.

- The number of monitored courses raised to nearly 90% in the a.y. 2011/2012, a 5% higher than in the previous year. The monitoring concerns indicators which measure the degree of achievement of the objectives of teaching at the level of individual structures.
- The University decided to appoint the Joint Teachers/Student Committees, that are established in every course, to perform an analysis of the issues / observations / considerations more directly related to the experience of students, who are the first recipients of the services of the University. This was performed examining the data relating to the recognition of students' opinions.

From this analysis, some particular actions were performed in the BS degree in mechanical engineering:

- A first measure consists of a careful analysis and evaluation, in particular, of the classes that are the most critical. This work has already been started during the academic year. 2012-2013, and will be further developed.
- A second proposal seeks to address the other most critical element found from the students' evaluation: their consideration that the workload is too heavy. This examination goes hand in hand with the need for a better organization of the classes.
- To address these two aspects of the proposal a process of examination and re-definition of the overall degree programs and classes has been started. This review should aim at the optimization of the various programs to a better synchronization, in order to reduce the workload for the student without compromising the quality and quantity of teaching.

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New Management Approaches in Higher Education

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Abstract: Today's universities may want to consider strengthening their customer oriented approaches in interactions with students. Institutions of higher education are grappling with difficult fiscal realities, a new emphasis on students as consumers, faculty challenges in balancing rigor and student course ratings, as well complex human performance processes. Student expectations, faculty pressures, and competitive markets all contribute to an environment where it's now commonplace to negotiate critical standards in higher education. This paper examines various influences on institutions of higher education as they move toward a customer-oriented focus. It presents relevant aspects of the marketing approach of the universities' activities in the current market conditions of higher education institutions. It also stresses the importance of balancing the needs of various customer groups while continuing to serve as purveyors of educated human resources in a global economy. The result showed that higher education managers must be more open and flexible, to help them explore "new angles" for addressing some of the many difficult problems of HE management through the use of new approaches.

Key Words: Management Approaches, Higher Education, Change Management, Marketing Approach

1- INTRODUCTION

Higher Education (HE) is currently operating within an environment of continuous change and uncertainty. Vice-Chancellors, Executive Managers, Deans, Departmental Heads and Administrative Managers are encountering an acceleration of varied and difficult managerial problems. Morgan (2006) asserts that successful managers are "open and flexible", suspending decisions whenever possible, until a better understanding of the problem is attained. He believes that modeling insights may lead to a range of informed decision scenarios that may solve the identified problem. Furthermore, Morgan goes on to suggest that less effective managers are seen to explain and interpret from a "fixed angle", and to continually hammer at persistent problems using the same old methods – which can facilitate disillusionment and conflict amongst academic, administrative and technical staff (Bell et al, 2012). A paper by the Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE) asserts "Higher Education changes lives. It is enriching and inspiring for students and it is vital to social mobility, future economic growth and our international standing". This succinctly captures the need (or "the why") for Higher Education. In the past, HE organizations were considered to have a relatively stable and certain future (Kennedy 2003). However, HE has to evolve to meet the now rapidly changing demands of society and government. Over the last two decades employment patterns have changed significantly, and there is a need for a more highly trained and educated workforce. This workforce must continuously update its skills to meet the changing requirements of the labour market. Recognition of employment changes that affected HE initiated, in the United Kingdom, the Dearing Report (Dearing 1997) which was highly influential in shaping UK HE in the early part of this century. Subsequently, the debt crisis in various European countries has begun to impact on HE. In the UK, a new strategy is being implemented (Lawrence, 2001) to fund HE institutions more directly through student tuition fees and this has essentially "privatized" certain subject areas as government funding for some disciplines such as the humanities is removed. This will have a significant impact upon departmental, faculty and institution budgets, as income becomes directly related to student numbers. In the last decade or so the Government has demanded greater university accountability for the public funds they spend, which has in turn placed an emphasis on management practices and the measurement of education quality. Trow (1994) coined the terms "hard" and "soft" managerialism which characterize the different government and university management approaches respectively (Kekale, 2000). Higher education goes worldwide through a process characterized by significant changes both in educational demand and in the educational offer. Higher education institutions are put in a position to find solutions to problems arising from internal and external customer characteristics.

2-COMPLEXITY AND UNCERTAINTY

Higher Education management must address both the problem-setting process and the problem-solving process (Clare, 2005). Whilst we believe the former process requires greater attention, both need consideration for effective management. The problem setting process should consider issues of complexity and of uncertainty.

Academics researchers and practitioners associated with various management related disciplines such as Operational Research, Organizational Behavior or Project Management (Brown, 2013) are exploring these important concepts, and three reasons are identified as to why there is a need to provide an overview of complexity and uncertainty. First, to facilitate awareness of these important notions. Second, to assist with the problem boundary setting. Third, to guide selection of appropriate organizational research approaches leading to informative management decision-making. The notion of complexity is one which has generated new paradigms for decision making within the OR domain. Rosenhead and Mingers (2001) briefly address complexity suggesting that organizations and individuals operate in “densely interconnected networks” in which the ramifications of decisions should not be ignored. Moreover, they argue that there is a dichotomy of problem situations that need to be considered in the selection of decision modeling approaches (Marshall, 2010). Checkland considers decision making from a systems perspective and highlights the distinction between “Soft” and “Hard” systems thinking. Hard systems thinking is associated with methodologies and techniques that are connected with systems analysis and systems engineering. It assumes the world consists of systems that can be objectively modelled, there are agreed goals, and the aim is to determine the most effective and efficient way to attain the goals. Soft systems thinking, on the other hand, accepts the rich complexity of the world and systems concepts are applied to assist with structuring thinking and learning about a problematic situation (Means et al, 2009). Describing problem situations highlights the tension between the objectivist stance, which considers problems as independent of an individual stakeholder’s perspective, and the subjectivist stance which acknowledges the impact of a stakeholder’s perspective in defining or constituting the problems. Related to complexity is uncertainty (especially with respect to social phenomena) and Rosenhead and Mingers (2001) offer three reasons why uncertainty needs to be considered. Firstly, not knowing the impact of other decision-makers, whose choices may affect our decision choices, may seriously undermine the efficacy of decisions made. Secondly the dynamics of network within an organization may not be fully understood and can be turbulent. Hence, forecasting the consequences of actions become problematic. Thirdly, organizations are continually evolving in their mission and this can be very unsettling for staff. Hence problem setting can be extremely fluid (Marshall, 2010).

3-CHANGE MANAGEMENT IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Universities are peculiarly resistant to change (Marshall, 2010) and managing change in universities is perhaps the most daunting challenge facing senior managers in organizations today. A key feature that distinguishes successful change management is effective "stakeholder engagement" (Brown, 2013). Stakeholder engagement can mean different things to different people and can range from the most superficial (telling people what is going to be done to them, i.e., top-down) to inviting them to define the problem in their own terms and encouraging them to develop and implement their own solutions (bottom-up). Top-down approaches tend to work best where outcomes can be predicted with confidence and there is consensus about what those outcomes should be (Brown, 2012). The benefits of top-down include efficient time and resource management and tight control over project outputs. However top-down management does not necessarily guarantee adequate control over outcomes. Outcomes differ from outputs in that outputs are what the project produces (reports, IT systems, procedures, etc), whereas outcomes are how people use those outputs and how they feel about them. A tightly controlled project that produces a technically workable solution on time and to budget is likely to run into implementation and sustainability problems if key stakeholders feel aggrieved about lack of involvement and do not believe the solution meets their needs. While there are many different types of universities, they nevertheless tend to share a culture within which managing works by consent and incrementalism and high value is placed on dialogue and the legitimacy of critique.¹ These are not ideal conditions for top-down methods. At the other end of the spectrum, project outputs that are generated by localized bottom-up initiatives are likely to be enthusiastically supported by their progenitors but largely ignored by the rest of the institution (Brown, 2002; Marshall, 2010). A third possibility is “distributive” leadership in which the change process is a joint enterprise between stakeholders. Distributive approaches entail development of an open sharing culture that values dissemination of information and building of trust between participants, and that therefore is better suited to the organizational culture of universities.

4-MARKETING APPROACH IN THE MANAGEMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION

Higher education goes worldwide through a process characterized by significant changes both in educational demand and in the educational offer. Higher education institutions are put in a position to find solutions to problems arising from internal and external customer characteristics. The need for universities in the public and private sectors to address this market of higher education in terms of marketing was due to the expansion of the private sector and the emergence of performant universities, which led to increased competition in the educational market (Rogers, 2010). Maringe and Gibbs (2009) found that in Europe, higher education specific to knowledge - based society has become a good and therefore it recourse to the use of marketing tools (Diaconu et

al, 2012). Levy (2006) believes that competition features differ from region to region and from country to country as marketing tools implementation is different compared with the acquired market experience. Marketing application in the field of educational services is known as educational marketing, component of social marketing. On the general, the higher education market is characterized by exchanges, transactions between units providing educational services and organizations within the national economy that benefits of human resource prepared in a specific area based on a curriculum and between schools and consumers of educational services to acquire knowledge, form their skills and abilities to fill a job. Today, this concept of change has generated a broader concept that educational institutions have begun to develop, the concept of relationship (Sharpe et al, 2006). Considering the importance that goes to the educational market, is making it necessary to adopt the concept of market-oriented strategic change defined by Piercy (2002) as the organization's effort to pursue more customer requirements, to identify those factors that determine the customer neglect, to adapt the functional structure so that the employees know very well the requirements of customers that they try to satisfy at the highest level, better than the competition, creating a competitive advantage. Market orientation has been one of the most interesting research fields in the recent 20 years. Recently, some authors believe that marketing orientation should be developed as a business model. In higher education institutions, the ultimate goal of business should be external customer satisfaction (students, employers, society, etc.) and internal customers (teaching and nonteaching staff) as a guarantee of sustainability of a market institution constantly changing (Diaconu et al, 2012). The approach of marketing educational services envisages the orientation to satisfying the customers' needs and using the marketing strategies to the level of university institutions which the education consumers will identify, who are interested in the educational offer for which they have capabilities and will allow adaptation to make it more attractive. The aim of higher education institutions must be the determination of needs, wishes, the education consumers' interests, the adaptation of educational and research approach to offer programmes that maintain or improve long-term satisfaction of their and the society's interests. The process of education, the special needs of supplier services and those of the consumers should be carefully explored as fundamental elements of the education system. The supplier services are directly represented in the relationship with the students by the teachers who are responsible for the generation and transmission of knowledge. The educational process is also maintained by the necessary infrastructure, by the cultural organization, by management that does not always accept quickly a change and for this reason the expectations of educational service consumers are secondary (Diaconu et al, 2012).

5-BALANCING CUSTOMER NEEDS AND STANDARDS IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Colleges and universities are facing major changes as they navigate the 21st century and make decisions that will not only impact higher education but will also contribute to our country's future competitiveness in the global marketplace. While change is unavoidable and higher learning faces difficult choices, we can choose to make proactive decisions and become agents of change. The financial obligations of running an institution today are a major concern. While not a new concept, there is a trend for public institutions to redefine their identity as service organizations and businesses (Cathy et al, 2011). Due to increased financial demands, there has also been a dramatic rise in the cost of attending post-secondary schools. The Delta Project, which focuses on postsecondary costs, productivity, and accountability, points out that while students are paying more of the total costs associated with higher education, less of the tuition-generated revenue is actually going into the classroom. In the 1990s, student tuition paid for approximately 24% of the operating costs at public colleges and universities, in 1998 that percentage rose to 37%, and in 2005 it was nearly 50% (Sharpe, 2006). Today, institutions rely on increasingly large numbers of students to help balance expenditures. As institutions face growing financial constraints due to recent economic events, there is even greater concern that institutions will defer to the value of the monetary benefits of increased enrollments, especially in the face of fewer state resources. Given the importance of enrollment monies, it is not surprising that universities have become very savvy in marketing their institutions to the student customer (Brown, 2002). If the focus is directed at attracting larger numbers of potential students even when it is necessary to modify admission standards, there is an associated risk of also negotiating academic standards to create easier courses and modify academic requirements.¹ The reputation of the institution becomes the most costly casualty of all when academic standards that underlie scholarly integrity are compromised.

6- QUALITY HUMAN PERFORMANCE IN HIGHER EDUCATION

A key component of quality in teaching and learning involves quality human performance by the learner. Substantial financial outlays by companies and the government for training are made in attempts to address problems in the quality of human performance. These efforts have met with minimal success, and major gaps in the standards to which humans have been trained and their resulting performance remain. Swart and Duncan(2005) note that the expected performance in a work setting is generally dictated by a set of valid and appropriate expectations and is attained through proper education and training. When performance consistently

adheres to the appropriate expectations, then quality human performance is achieved. If there is a discrepancy in performance and appropriate expectations, then it must be investigated, causes identified, and appropriate corrective action taken (Bell et al, 2012).

To achieve quality human performance, we posit that three components must be present:

- A clearly defined set of tasks to perform.
- An individual that has the capacity/ability to perform the required task.
- A clear set of standards that define successful performance.

Training and education provide the skills, knowledge, abilities, and attitudes to perform the tasks to standard. In Figure 1 all three variables are conceptually displayed inside a circle of quality human performance.



Figure1. The Components of Quality Human Performance (Cathy et al, 2010)

The link that ties these three components together is training and education. If a person can learn the job and the job tasks are performed to a quality standard, then it is posited that quality human performance will ensue. In contrast, Figure 2 displays what happens when the standards are negotiated. Negotiating standards creates wasted performance capacity, which is depicted as the variance from quality human performance.

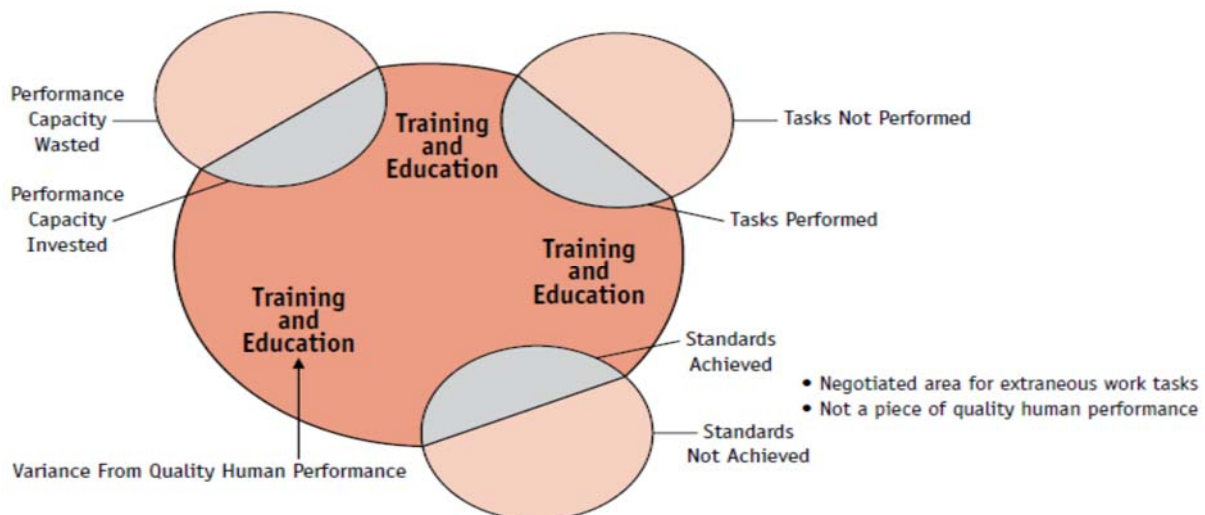


Figure2. Degraded Human Performance (Cathy et al, 2010)

The components are in constant motion: the work to perform (either academic or workplace/tasks), the rules of behavior (what it takes to be successful), and the performer. The key to this process is the underlying self-regulation factor. Quality human performance can be seen as a complex process of balances where several factors have to work together to ensure success with one of the main factors as self-regulation. When the model of quality human performance was applied to college students, they were fully cognizant of the behaviors necessary for academic success, but they often chose not to engage in these behaviors. They fully recognized the discrepancy in their behaviors (what they should do versus what they are doing), but they also did not choose to engage in self correction. Instead they expressed the expectancy that the standards of performance would, and should, be negotiated in their favor. This very act of renegotiating the standards of quality human performance

suggests that business and industry will not necessarily find future employees who possess the skills expected based on their college academic experience.

7- CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Most of the discussion in the literature of performance indicators in higher education has been largely restricted to measuring the effectiveness or efficiency of institutional management. For example, staff-student ratios, liquidity ratios and so on, are all measures of various aspects of running the institution rather than directly of the quality of the student experience. The issue of the acceptability of performance indicators in higher education has long been controversial and there have been a number of occasions, indicated in the literature, where performance indicators have been proposed but not widely adopted. Many authors express doubts as to whether performance indicators have a legitimate role in quality assessment of the learning and teaching experience of students. In a small number of instances, there have been attempts to forge links between performance indicators and their possible use in teaching quality simply not applicable. In many instances, the discussion of performance indicators concentrates on the assessment of the efficiency and effectiveness of the operation of the institution. If they are to be applied, there is an understanding of the need for all parties using performance indicators to understand fully their purpose and context and the need for consultation and ownership of any metrics system. The higher education environment appears to differ significantly from other industries and sectors on these issues because links between performance indicators and “product” or “service” quality are often a significant feature of those other industries and sectors, widely understood and embedded in the culture. It may be the case that higher education is so specialized that forging such links is more difficult or that the appropriate tools have not been available. Managers can be thought of as having the ability to operate the “levers” of the institution in order to aim for a particular target. The performance indicator signifies how close to that target the manager is but it does not help them control the lever (Clare, 2005). There are difficulties in finding the message from within large amounts of data and managers continually rely on a process of intuition to solve complex problems when logical (that is number based) methods fail. Other commentators put forward the view that decision making is not an event (where direct measures can be employed), but a process that takes place over time and is therefore subject to other forces beyond the control of the manager (Bell et al., 2012). These views point to the limitations of performance indicators as a management tool. There are parallels to be drawn with higher education. A widely accepted interpretation is that teaching and learning are processes. The fact that they operate in socio-technical environments results in some similarities with management processes. Teachers, like managers, lead, plan, monitor, control and undertake many of the functions required of managers. Consequently, the performance indicators are likely to have the same limitations as those used in other environments. As a consequence, they would have to carry similar “health warnings”. If colleges and universities focus on satisfying students as their primary customers, they may negatively affect another customer group—employers—because the two customer groups have significantly different ways of defining and measuring expectations. There are no easy solutions to addressing the negotiation of standards that undermine quality human performance. All customers of higher education deserve the best we can offer, as higher education, business/industry, and the economic success of the United States are intricately connected and are dependent upon one another. Institutions of higher education, faculty, students, and businesses can serve as contributing architects in ensuring education establishes quality standards. They are all consumers, and they all have a vested interest in maintaining standards. The following remarks can be derived from the paper:

- The marketing approach is a necessity for the success of the management of higher education institutions determined by changes both in terms of the demand of global product offered by the university and the educational supply existent on the market of higher education institutions
- The university marketing strategy is in relationship with the strategy of higher education institution and forms that step by which are identified the target groups and their needs, followed by designing and implementing a balanced marketing mix.
- A competitive advantage can be obtained by considering the variables: quality, material and human support used in teaching and research process, price level and facilities in price policy
- Identifying direct and indirect customer needs and desires determines the need to implement all actions seen as relational marketing which develop and maintain long term relationships with customers and other interested parts as a guarantee of competitiveness of the university.
- So far, most universities were not concerned enough about knowing the dimensions of their own images in the minds of their stakeholders. It is important to build a brand image because the intangible component of the product offered by the university has a considerable weight and reduces the risks posed to a future student placed in a position to choose higher education institution. The brand image of the university is built successfully if the university raises the questions of developing also a brand of human resource in developing and maintaining a sustainable and effective relationship with stakeholders.

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Presenting a Model for Promoting Quality Of Life among Dormitory Students

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Abstract: Goal of the present research is to give a model for promoting quality of life of the dormitory students in district 12 of Islamic Azad University.

The population of this research included all students of different educational levels in dormitories of District 12 of Islamic Azad University in academic year of 2013-2014. The sample included 350 students in dormitories who were selected with multistage cluster sampling method. The research method was applied in terms of goal and fact-finding method was used. Information collection instruments in this research was researcher-made questionnaire which measured factors affecting quality of life of the dormitory students in the present and ideal situation. Frequency distribution tables, bar chart, mean and standard deviation were used to describe data and Kolmogorov–Smirnov test was used to answer the research questions and exploratory factor analysis was used to identify components with principle component analysis method and structural equation modeling method was used to present the model. The obtained results included technology, sociocultural, psychological, human force, physical and hygienic factors as the principle components of quality of life among the dormitory students. Technology is effective on quality of life directly and through sociocultural components and human force is also effective on quality of life directly or through sociocultural component. Psychological factor is also effective directly on quality of life and also plays intermediary role and hygienic, technology and physical factors are also related to quality of life. Sociocultural factor is also effective directly on quality of life and plays intermediary role and relates all components to quality of life. Hygienic factor is not directly effective on quality of life and is effective on quality of life through sociocultural and psychological components. Physical factor is not directly effective on quality of life but is effective on quality of life through sociocultural and psychological components.

Key words: quality of dormitory life, students, Islamic Azad University.

Introduction

No comprehensive framework has been presented for studying quality of life coherently and holistically based on physical, spatial and social indices (Kamp et al., 2009). Today, quality of life is a complex concept and many scientists cannot give a comprehensive definition for it because understanding of this concept by different classes of society clarifies different meaning (George & Bearon, 1980). The obtained scientific results in the field of quality of life indicate that its terms are hardly definable showing disagreement in this field (Morris and Kamanho, 2010). Some factors such as health, physical environment, individual growth and safety have been mentioned in some methods such as the method proposed by Michel et al and even researchers have regarded economy as one of the three main elements of quality (Kamp et al., 2003) but efforts to reach a common definition indicate that the absence of general framework for quality of life prevents from progress in this field (Pacione, 2003). The above facts led some researchers to regard quality of life as subjective concept, for example, the definition given by who-qol group in 1993 which regards quality of life as person's perception of his/her situation in the cultural fields and evaluation systems which depend on goals, expectations, standards etc. (Kamp et al., 2003). Some other researchers define quality of life as satisfaction with life as the degree to which a person enjoys the provided facilities (Kamp et al. 2003 and Seifoddini, 2010). Quality of life is defined as a concept which has multiple dimensions and included different fields in two micro level (individual level as objective –subjective) and macro level (social, objective and semantic) (aesthetic). Micro level includes some indices such as perceptions of individual quality of life which is directly dependent on person and his/her minds and macro level includes income, employment, house, education and other living conditions and environment. In the practical approach, quality of life is defined as a general concept which encompasses all biological dimensions including material satisfaction, vital needs in addition to transitional aspects of life such as individual development, self-knowledge and ecosystem health (Baldwin et al., 1994).

In fact, quality of life is a personal feeling which originates from personal values or is the cause of objective conditions. It means economic –social-political-cultural situation of the society in which person lives or both of them. Therefore, the models and techniques which measure objective and subjective aspects of quality of life should be used. In recent years, some studies have been conducted on quality of life of the dormitories and each one of them has studied different dimensions of student life, for example, anxiety and quality of life (Salehi and Nayeri, 2010), stress and quality of life (Nayeri and Haj Bagheri, 2006), stress with hopelessness in students of dormitory, Mesbah and Abedian(2004), mental health condition of the students in overcrowded and under-crowded rooms (Rahimi, 2006), deviant behaviors in dormitories (Mathnavi et al., 2005), physical activities, resistance against stress, smoking , nutrition (Bakhtiari et al., 2007), economic and social factors of students in

dormitory (Navabi Nejad, 2006), emotional issues (Karimi, 2008), physical and environmental issues of dormitory (Tavangar, 2010), health issues and inattention to health and cleaning standards of the kitchens, toilets, type of drinking water (Hashemi, 2009), behavioral problems, cursing, short messages and long Bluetooth playing (Red et al., 2007; Abedi et al., 2008), safety, mental and emotional issues and the absence of recreational and cultural facilities (Saber, 2004), comparison of depression, anxiety, stress and quality of life of male and female students of dormitories (Rezaei and Azadi (2007), studying relationship between welfare and educational performance of native and nonnative students of Dehdasht and Ahankoob Nejad (2010), studying attitude of dormitory students toward deviant behaviors (Mathnavi and Sam Aram) (2005), studying stress and compatibility in students of girls dormitories (Yavarian and Golshan, 2006), effect of settlement conditions of the students on problem solving skills (Osella and Gorgin, 2010).

Rostami in charge of consultation center of Tehran University of Medical Sciences has regarded the absence of recreational and sport facilities, the absence of enough facilities for study by the students etc. as the major problems of dormitory students and mentions that mobility and happiness in dormitory students, increase of responsibility, activation and responsibility for the student gatherings, promotion of public sports and expansion of student consultation services in dormitories can reduce problems of students in student's dormitories. On the other hand, student dormitory is the living place of students who have gathered with cultural differences, social class, culture, tradition and different beliefs, high income to low income and the people who are highly interested in science and knowledge and research and self-training or the indifferent people who only want to receive degree have gathered. Naturally, these differences can cause growth, excellence and dynamism and also lead to friction and unreasonable behavior in dormitory environment (Hakimia, 2002; Mathnavi, 2004; Vakili Zadeh, 2001). Therefore, loss of happy, exultant, sensitive and responsible force will result in large damage for the country in future. Considering the mentioned cases and failure to identify main components of promotion of quality of dormitory life, this research intends to identify dormitory lifestyle of students in dormitories and present a model for promoting quality of life of students in dormitory. Considering goals of the research, Frequency distribution tables, bar chart, mean and standard deviation were used to describe data and Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used to study normality of the variables and exploratory factor analysis was used to identify components with principle component analysis method and structural equation modeling method was used to present the model.

Method

The research method was applied in terms of goal and fact-finding method was used. The population of this research included all students of different educational levels in dormitories of District 12 of Islamic Azad University in academic year of 2013-2014. The sample size was specified 350 students considering KREJCIE and MORGAN Table who were selected with multistage cluster sampling method among the students studying the technical fields, basic sciences, management, accounting, biomedical engineering, physical education, agronomy and food industries. After participation of the students, the researcher-made questionnaire which measured factors affecting quality of dormitory life in the present and ideal situation was performed in the group. The researcher-made questionnaire considered quality of life in human resources, psychological, physical, sociocultural, technology and health dimensions. Cronbach's alpha coefficient obtained reliability of components as 0.788 for hygienic dimension to 0.935 for the entire questionnaire in the present situation and 0.775 for the human resources to 0.842 for the entire questionnaire in the ideal situation. All coefficients are acceptable and significant. To study validity of the questionnaire, content validity was used. Agreement of 5 professors on the question that if six components mentioned above encompass quality of life and how the mentioned items for each component reflect that component was measured from very high to very low. The professors agreed that firstly, six mentioned components encompass quality of life and secondly, the mentioned items for each component can be effective in measurement of that component. Validity coefficient was 0.81 for cultural and social dimension to 0.89 for psychological dimension.

Findings

- 1- Mean age of the students in this research was 23.01 years with standard deviation of 3.42, the minimum age was 18 years and the maximum age was 38 years. Mean term of residence of dormitory is 3.1 terms with standard deviation of 2.40, the minimum term of residence in dormitory is 1 term and the maximum term was 10 terms. 32% were men and 68% were women.
- 2- 44.85% of the respondents studied technical fields, 22.85% studied basic sciences and 32.86% studied biomedical engineering, physical education and food industries.
- 3- What are the main dimensions of quality of life of dormitories? To answer this question, Principle component (pc) analysis was used. To recognize the factors which form infrastructure of 31 items of the researcher for quality of life and also its simple structure, varimax rotation method with the minimum factor loading of 0.40 was used. The performed calculations showed that Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of

Sampling Adequacy is equal to 0.918 and significance level of Bartlett's Test of Sphericity is also lower than 0.001. Therefore, based on both criteria, it can be concluded that execution of factor analysis was justifiable based on the resulting correlation matrix in the studied sample group. To determine that quality of life was studied from some saturated factors, three indices of special value, variance explanation percent and screen special values rotated diagram. Based on three indices, 6 factors which had special value of above 1 and explained 66.35% of total variance were extracted from the data relating to quality of life. The first factor with special value of 11.57 explains 37.31% of total variance and sixth factor explains 1.13% of total variance of quality of life. Table 1 shows factor loading of items on factor 1 to 6 after varimax rotation.

Table 1: factor loading of items on factor 1 to 6 after varimax rotation

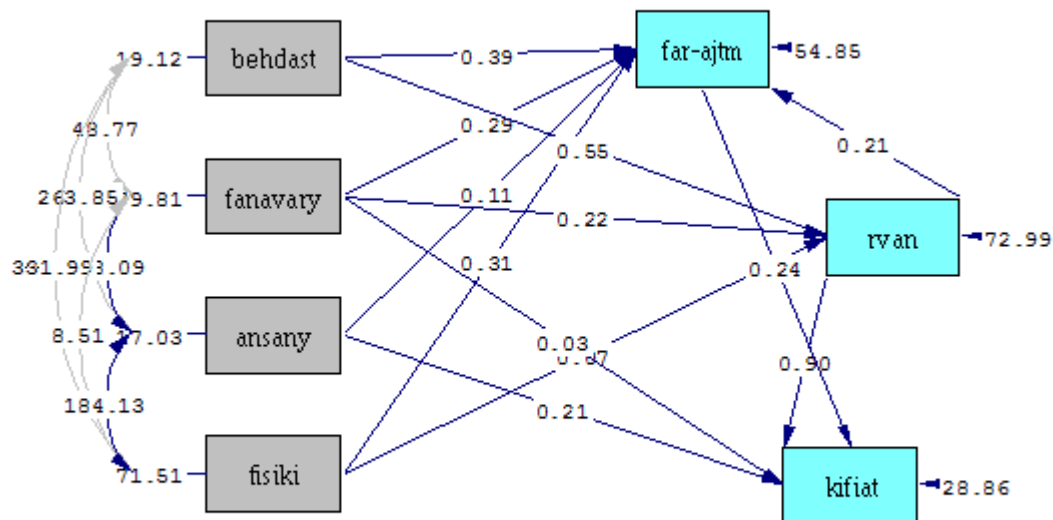
Alpha	Factor loading	Factors and items
0.918		First factor: technology
	.824	1- Conditions of free access to reliable scientific sites
	.820	2- Supplying enough number of computer in dormitory
	.817	3- Increasing bandwidth and wireless equipment
	.546	4- Considering leisure time space inside dormitory (coffee net, Cafeteria, Café game etc.)
	.511	5- Educational presentation of sound sexual relations skills (pathology of unsound sexual relations)
	.465	6- Holding student sessions in dormitory for studying political , social and economic issues
	.416	7- Holding gatherings by supervisor of dormitory for interaction of the people from different tribes and groups in dormitory
	.406	8- Procurement of food(breakfast, lunch and dinner)
		Second factor: sociocultural
0.905	.703	1- Considering suitable green space for recreation and study
	.687	2- Considering sport space (football field , pool, sport club)
	.640	3- Considering parking space for each person
	.594	4- Creating conditions for broadcasting film and criticism sessions
	.508	4- Holding sport , scientific –cultural competitions among dormitory students
		Third factor: psychological
0.830	.746	1- The presence of consultant for solving personal problems of the student
	.609	2- The presence of medical-therapeutic team

	.600	3- Forming dormitory supervision group comprising of students in dormitory for self-regulation of dormitory
	.481	4- Presenting brochures and trainings for learning independent life far from family
	.466	5- Collecting and recording important and special experiences of students in dormitory life and presenting it to others
	.449	6- Training social life skills(such as group interaction, forgiveness , cooperation ,collective life skills)
	.433	7- Formulation of formal manual and bylaw of order in dormitory life(entrance and exist, sleep and eating hours)
		Fourth factor: human force
0.758	.762	11- Continual attendance of the dormitory supervisor
	.755	2- Sincere and respectful communication of the supervisor and personnel of the dormitory
	.590	3- the presence of cleaner and service force
	.565	5- Supervision on transportation and accurate record of the presence and absence of the dormitory students
		fifth factor: physical
0.747	.608	1- Creation of conditions for right of selecting roommates by the students (field , level, tribe)
	.578	2- Possibility of selecting space of rooms with different expenses (private , 2-bed, 4-bed rooms etc.)
	.570	33- Considering study saloon without time limitation
	.529	3- Prevention of sound pollution ((noise, transportation of cars , installations etc.)
		fifth factor: hygienic
0.691	.843	1- cleaning the dormitory by students (to strengthen personal responsibility feeling)
	.551	2- providing hygiene and refinement quality standard (color, ceramic, cleaning)
	.402	4- Providing quantitative standards (number of kitchen, stove, refrigerator , bathroom , WC)

Results of the above Table show that technology, sociocultural, psychological, human force, physical and hygienic factors were the main factors of quality of life of dormitory students and effect of technology on quality of life of students was 37.31%, sociocultural effect was 10.78%, psychological factor was 6.20%, human force effect was 4.38% , physical effect was 4.10% and hygienic factor was 3.6%.

5- Presenting a model for promotion of quality of life level among dormitory students:

To study the model, Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was used. To fit the said model, LISREL, version 8/7 was used. The obtained conceptual model plus path coefficients are shown in Figure 1.



Chi-Square=13.89, df=7, P-value=0.05309, RMSEA=0.053

Figure 1: Conceptual model plus path coefficients

Fitting indices are shown in Table 2 where chi square is equal to 13.89 and significance level is more than 0.05 indicating good fitness of the model with data. Normalized chi square for the measurement model in this research is 1.98 and most theorists believe that the normalized chi square smaller than 3 indicates good fitness of the model (Giles, 2002). Comparative fitting index (CFI) was above 0.9 and fitting index (GFI) was equal to 0.99 and the adjusted fitting index (AGFI) was also 0.98 and also RMSEA was equal to 0.053. Based on the obtained values, it can be said that the present study model has good fitting with data.

Table 2- Model fitting indices

CFI	AGFI	GFI	RMSEA	χ^2/df	sig	χ^2	Fitting indices
0.96	0.98	0.99	0.053	1.98	0.053	13.89	Value of indices

Coefficients in all paths were positive and significant. The results obtained from the model include:

- Technology is effective on quality of life directly and through sociocultural and Psychological components.
- Human force is also effective on quality of life directly or through sociocultural component.
- Psychological factor is also effective directly on quality of life and also plays intermediary role and hygienic, technology and physical factors are also related to quality of life.
- Sociocultural factor is also effective directly on quality of life and plays intermediary role and relates all components to quality of life.
- Hygienic factor is not directly effective on quality of life but is effective on quality of life through sociocultural and psychological components.
- Physical factor is not directly effective on quality of life but is effective on quality of life through sociocultural and psychological components.
- Hygienic, technology, human force, physical and psychological factors explain 70% of variance of the sociocultural component of quality of life in students.
- Hygienic, technology and physical factors explain 56% of variance of the psychological component of quality of life in students.
- Sociocultural, technology, human force and psychological factors explain 93% of variance of quality of life in students.

Discussion and conclusion

Considering that limited and dispersed researches have been conducted on quality of life of dormitory students in Iran, goal of the present study is to identify main components of quality of life of dormitory students and present a model for promotion of quality of life of students in dormitory. Results of exploratory factor with principle component analysis method (Table 1) showed that quality of life of dormitory students was multi-factor. On this basis, six technology, sociocultural, psychological, human force, physical and hygienic factors were extracted.

The obtained results were in line with findings of Abedi et al. (2008), Hashemi(2009), Red et al. (2007), Nohi(2004), Rahimi(2006), Mesbah and Abedian(2004), Dehghani and Khodapanahi(2009), Omidian and Sayad(2010), Rastgar Khaled(2010), Khozaei(2010), Ghoorchain and Tansaz(1995), Valizadeh(2004), Mathnavi et al.(2005), Mahmoudi Rad (2004), Moradian(2012) and Bakers (2007).

Baldwin et al. mention that quality of life is regarded as a concept with multiple dimensions which included different fields.

In the practical approaches, quality of life is defined as a general concept which encompasses all biological dimensions including material satisfaction, vital needs in addition to transitional aspects of life such as individual development, self-knowledge and ecosystem health. In fact, quality of life is a personal feeling which originates from personal values and objective conditions i.e. economic –social-political-cultural situation of the society in which person lives.

Researches show that farness from house and family and loss of support by the family, friends and relatives for the students who are in special age condition and developmental and growth changes cause emotional problems. Relatively different conditions of the dormitory and native students are effective on their evaluation.

The students who live with their family not only have more proper condition and feel few limitations in terms of fulfilling financial needs and living expenses but also they are supported more and separation from family, separation from friends and social communication network and coming from university to home, access to faculty, university, self-service and public library and important city centers, compatibility with sociocultural condition of new city and effort to manage an independent living are of the factors which have negative effect on nonnative students. On the other hand, unawareness with collective living conditions in dormitories at the beginning of separation from family and long-term residence in dormitory cause emergence or acceptance of deviant behaviors contradictory with social norms. Osella and Gorgin (2010) also showed that settlement conditions of students are effective on their problem solving skills and if the conditions are suitable, the effort which the students make to cook, clean, heat their living place and their social life helps them promote their problem solving skills and may have positive effect on them.

Lee et al. (2007) also showed that students want a dormitory which are suitable in terms of strategic position, nearness of classrooms to dormitory and suitable access to internet, dormitory expense, distance to facilities of the university, safety of rooms, safety of dormitory size of rooms and other main facilities in camp. In fact, not only goal of establishing dormitory is to accommodate nonnative students but also provision of dormitory is the state's commitment to provide house to people. In fact, it aims to train human resources.

Since major training activities such as living training, loving training etc. are performed in a space which is out of the conventional educational spaces and the most suitable locations of these spaces are adjacent to spaces for leisure time of students and naturally adjacent to the dormitories in which students spend their leisure time, space planning of a dormitory is not possible without considering general goals and educational policies and manpower training in the country is not possible without clarifying functional and applied functions or recognizing behavioral and social behaviors of the young.

To conclude the question that what model can be presented for promoting quality of life of the students in dormitories of the university, Table 2 and Figure 1 show that sociocultural technology, human force and psychological factors are effective on quality of life and explain 93% of the variance of quality of life of the dormitory students. Sociocultural component is affected by hygienic, technology, human force, physical and psychological factors by 70%. Psychological component is affected by hygienic, technology and physical factors by 56%. Technology is effective on quality of life directly and through sociocultural components and sociocultural and psychological component. Attention to extensive and deep effect of digital revolution on all individual and collective living fields such as leisure time, education, social relations, research and learning and all social activities, it can be said that there is no condition for dormitory life in the present era which is based on dignity of the student without gifts of information society. In other words, quality of life cannot be promoted without utilizing scientific –technological gifts. It is not possible for the students to feel enjoyment of life without concordance with these scientific and technological progresses. Therefore, it is natural that students prefer to have computer in dormitory in suitable number, create conditions for free access to scientific reliable sites, increase bandwidth and wireless equipment, consider leisure time space inside dormitory (net cafe, Cafeteria, game Café etc.), organize student meetings in dormitory to study political, social and economic issues. There should be condition in the dormitory which students feel that they live in a safe and secure place while enjoying gifts of scientific and technological progresses and feel comfortable. It is right of the dormitory

students to make comment and participate in economic, social, political, cultural processes, human development, continual progress, assume responsibility which is sensitive to cultural, attitudinal and behavioral variety of student and regard it as capital. Vaez et al. (2004) also mention in a study that quality of life of the students is lower than their non-student peers with significant difference.

Bakers (2007) also mentions that the conducted studies have shown that condition of the good dormitories and its equipment in university camps have positive effect on role of students. Therefore, higher education should make serious effort in this field. To design the ideal dormitory environment and spaces, training planning should be done based on the curriculum actions.

Performance of the students training efforts requires training of knowledgeable team which has proper knowledge and understanding of the duty while it requires construction of suitable spaces. This team may be more vital and crucial than educational team. If a homogenous condition cannot be considered for residents of a room, a privacy can be selected for each student. Design and organization of spaces can be done considering functions and general determining indices of each person's privacy so that the student feels that he/she can find him/her to some extent and feel more comfortable in small social environments and this will not be possible unless all theorists, planners and authorities of dormitory affairs make continual efforts.

Vakil Zadeh(2001) also mentions that planners and managers of student dormitories can play effective role through proper planning in coordination of student coexistence environments. Eskandari (2007) mentions that one of the major frustration of living in dormitories and crowded situations is that the person is not able to regulate or control time and type of communication under such conditions. This hypothesis is rooted in Learned Helplessness theory. According to this theory, ability of person to control his/her environment leads to feeling of hopelessness and feeling of hopelessness causes the person to give up and regard effort useless even in other situations.

Applied recommendations of this research

Results of the present research indicate that current situation of dormitories is lower than the medium level in most cases and reaching ideal situation requires serious effort of the universities' authorities. Therefore, the following recommendations are given to improve the current situation level in all components until reaching the ideal situation:

Applied recommendations of this research

Results of the present research indicate that current situation of dormitories is lower than the medium level in most cases and reaching ideal situation requires serious effort of the universities' authorities. Therefore, the following recommendations are given to improve the current situation level in all components until reaching the ideal situation:

Human dimension:

To increase quality of life level in human dimension, the following cases are recommended: Human dimension

- 1- The dormitory authorities should be constantly present to respond to needs of students in their working fields and are ready to provide services.
- 2- There should be sincere and respectful relation between students and dormitory authorities.
- 3- Employing and increasing the number of obliged consultants and physicians in dormitory to solve problems of students.
- 4- Observing proportion between the number of servicing personnel and students in dormitories

Psychological dimension

To increase quality of life level in psychological dimension, the following recommendations are mentioned:

- 1- Establishing dormitory supervision self-regulating groups comprised of resident students
- 2- Organizing classes, workshops and presenting book and written and verbal guides to increase independent living skills far from family
- 3- Recording storage and sharing dormitory life experiences among the students
- 4- Providing opportunity for selection of roommates optionally and based on field and level of education
- 5- Organizing workshop, classes and meetings for training of living skills in collective communication skills

Physical dimension

To increase quality of life level in physical dimension, the following recommendations are mentioned:

- 1- Preparing and procuring special rooms (private , suite etc.) with different payments at option of the student
- 2- Creating suitable green space for recreation and study
- 3- Providing suitable sport equipment for filling leisure time in dormitory
- 4- Establishing study saloons without time limitation

- 5- Reducing sound pollution in dormitory by constructing dormitory in non-crowded environments , standardizing installations , insulating wall and windows
- 6- Creating suitable space for parking students' cars

Sociocultural

To increase quality of life level in sociocultural dimension, the following recommendations are mentioned:

- 1- Creating necessary conditions for holding sessions and meetings for broadcasting and criticizing film
- 2- Organizing sport and scientific-cultural competitions inside dormitory
- 3- Sociability of students by organizing dormitory meetings to increase interaction and get familiar with traditions of different tribes
- 4- Organizing different exhibits and festivals about familiarity with tribal-local achievements inside dormitory
- 5- Creating suitable space such as net café, Cafeteria, game Café etc.)
- 6- Organizing political and social meetings by inviting political and social theorists and authorities inside student dormitories

Technology

To improve quality of life in technology dimension, the following cases are suggested:

- 1- Increasing the number of computer to accelerate use of computer services
- 2- Creating user accounts for access to electronic sources and digital library
- 3- Increasing and providing suitable bandwidth and access to wireless internet with suitable speed

Hygiene

To improve quality of life in hygienic dimension, the following cases are suggested:

- 1- Encouraging the authorities to make students interfere and participate in cleaning of dormitory
- 2- Formulating manual , regulations and instructions relating to hygiene and cleanness of dormitory space and supervising on their good performance
- 3- Observing the proportion between number of students and number of WC services and kitchen
- 4- Creating and providing suitable dining saloons in student dormitories
- 5- Presenting educational workshop and speeches for making students familiar with sound sexual relations skills and aware with damages resulting from failure to observe it

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SKILLS PERCEIVED NEEDED AND CONFIDENCE LEVEL AMONG THE ELDERLY IN THE KLANG VALLEY, MALAYSIA

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Abstract: This study aims to identify the skills that exist in the elderly and also the level of confidence that exists among the elderly to share their expertise with students in schools. Data collection was conducted through a survey questionnaire to 618 senior citizens around Petaling Jaya and Kuala Lumpur. The findings showed that the elderly were willing to share their skills and time with pupils at schools. The skill elderly are confident in training students. They also have the confidence to accept the comments from the students and join academic visit. However, the elderly seem to be less confident to speak in front of an audience of students. While seniors have skills in the academic subjects, in handyman skills, music, art and crafts, they are less proficient in computer. Result showed that they want to learn new skills, mainly in using the computer. There is a need for a module to meet the needs of the elderly and as well as for the elderly to contribute to the intergenerational program

Keywords: Skills, Confidence level, elderly, intergenerational programs.

INTRODUCTION

In Malaysia, the percentage of senior citizens above the age of 65 and over has increased dramatically in recent years. The percentage of elderly in total population in Malaysia has increased from 3.2% (1970) to 5.0% in 2010 and is expected to reach 11.4% by 2040. This phenomenon will continue to increase with increasing life expectancy in this country. The life expectancy of Malaysia in 2000 was 70.0 years for men and 74.7 years for females. However, this figure had increased to 71.7 years for men and 76.6 years for females in 2010 (Malaysian Quality Of Life, 2011).

Intergenerational program can increase cooperation, interaction or partnership between different generations. This form of program involves the sharing of skills, knowledge and experience between two, or more generations. Elderly who are still healthy, experienced and knowledgeable can still actively contribute to society through their participation in the intergenerational program. Therefore intergenerational program which aims to address the generation gap may promote positive interaction between different generations (Chorn Dunham & Casadonte, 2009; Powers, Gray, & Garver, 2013).

LITERATURE REVIEW

The Studies of the Intergenerational Program

There are many studies of intergenerational program. The researches carried out by many foreign researchers on intergenerational program has focus on four shown various findings. The first focus involves the interest, needs and risk of the intergenerational program for the elderly and young children (Ames, 2006; Beynon et al, 2013; Bostrom, 2011; Escolar Chua & Guzman, 2014; Holmes, 2009; Goff, 2004; Goodman, 2013; Jarrott & Bruno, 2007; MacCallum, 2010; Mannion, 2012; Marx et al, 2005; Middlemiss & Meyer, 2004; Peacock, Flythe & Jones, 2006; Perry & Weather, 2011; Whiteland, 2013; Zucchero, 2011).

The second focus on perceptions and attitudes of the childrens towards the elderly and the elderly's negative perception of young people (Casadonte Dunham & Casadonte, 2009; Dorfman et al., 2004; Hernandez & Gonzalez 2008; Holmes, 2009; Gilbert & Ricketts, 2008, Knapp and Stubblefield, 2000; Lynott & Merola, 2007; Middlemiss & Meyer, 2004; Schwalbach & Kiernan, 2002; Shedletsky, 2012; Stubblefield, 2000; ; Zucchero, 2011).

The third focus is on the reciprocal mutual learning between elderly and young people (Bostrom, 2011; Breytspraak, Arnold & Hogan, 2008; Chung, 2009; Knight, Skouteris, Townsend & Hooley, 2014, Mannion, 2012; MacCallum et al, 2010; Savishinsky, 2011; Weaver, 2014).

The fourth focus is on the profile of the managers of the intergenerational program (Kakuma & Kusanoo, 2009; Sanchez, Diaz, & Pinazo Saez, 2014).

Similarly, there seems to be a lack of research about the intergenerational program in Malaysia. The main focus of the local studies involving facilities that can be enjoyed by the elderly (Ahmad

Syahrin, 2001; Lim, 2005; Sanmargaraja, 2012). The second focus is on the study of social and emotional support to the elderly (Ma'rof, Zahid, Abdul, & Wan Ahmad, 2009). The third focus is on the welfare and quality of life of seniors (Eshah & Rostam, 2012; Maria Justine, 2010; Sidiah Ak John Siop, 2008). The fourth focus is on elderly health (Cheng & Suzana Shahar, 2012; Lee, 2008; Subramaniam, 2009) and the last focus is on knowledge and perception towards the elderly (Husna & Roaiyah & Tanti, 2009).

So far, there is very little local and abroad focusing on the skills and confidence level of the elderly necessary for the implementation of the intergenerations program. Thus, this study aims to determine the types of skills and confidence levels when elders involved in intergenerational program later.

PURPOSE

This paper aims to look at and identify the types of skills and confidence levels seniors to contribute to intergenerational program. This study aims to answer the following research questions.

- 1: Are the elders are willing to share their expertise and time with the pupils in the school?
- 2: What are the skills that existed in the elders that can contribute to the intergenerational program?
- 3: What are the level of confidence that existed in the elders that can contribute to the intergenerational program?
4. What are the new skills that elders want to learn?

METHODOLOGY

Study Site and Selection

To address the question of this inquiry, the survey design was employed. The study was conducted in a large metropolitan city in Malaysia. A total of 618 elderly, 318 females and 300 males, who were 60 years old and above, retired, without any cognitive impairment or terminal illness, without any physical disability, and who had the ability to understand English and Malay, were invited to participate in the study. Data collection was done from Jun 2013 to May 2014.

INSTRUMENTATION

The instrument has been used for this study was developed by Husaina Banu Kenayathula, Norlidah Alias and Saedah Siraj (2014). The questionnaire was tested for validity and reliability by researchers on 80 elderly volunteers in the same area. This questionnaire has the Cronbach alpha .697. The questionnaire consists of 30 items covering two dimensions: the level of confidence and the skill. The purpose of the questionnaire was to obtain data on the level of confidence in the elderly and different types of skills in the elderly.

FINDINGS

Willingness of the elders to share skills and time with childrens.

The willingness of the elders in sharing their skills and time with the school childrens was surveyed and analysed (see Table 4.1). The findings showed that 68.44% of 423 senior citizens are willing to share their expertise and time with the pupils in the school. 31.56% senior citizens do not agree and are not willing to share their skills and time with pupils at the school

Table 4.1

Willingness of the elders to share skills and time with childrens

Willingness of the elders to share skills and time with childrens	Frequency	Percentage(%)
Agree	423	68.44
Not Agree	195	31.56
Total	618	100

Skilled perceived needed by elders to contribute to the intergenerational Program

The skills of the elderly were surveyed and analysed as in Table 4.2. Table 4.2 indicates that the elderly master academic skills subjects which is 32.7% (202 people). It is followed by the handyman skills with 20.2% (125 people), indoor sports activities skill with 16.2% (100 people), music skills with 11.7% (72 persons), craft skills with 11.4% (71 people), arts skills with 10.0% (62 people), computer skills with 9.7% (60 people), and ends with outdoor sports activities skills by 8.6% (53 people) as in table 4.2.

Table 4.2

Skilled perceived needed by elders to contribute to the intergenerational Program

Types of Skills	Frequency	Percentage(%)
Academic(subject)	202	32.7
Handyman Skills	125	20.2
Indoor Games	100	16.2
Music	72	11.7
Craf	71	11.4
Arts	62	10.0
Computers	60	9.7
Outdoor Games	53	8.6
Total	618	100

The Confidence level of the elders

(I) Confidence level of elders to speak in front of students

Table 4.3

Confidence level of elders to speak

Confidence Level	Frequency	%
Strongly disagree	73	12.2
Disagree	171	28.5
Neutral	80	12.9
Agree	153	25.5
Strongly agree	141	23.5
Total	618	100

The findings(Table 4.3) show that only 294 people at 49% only agreed to speak in front of students. 51% of 305 elderly people are not confident to speak in front of a crowd.

(II) Confidence level of elders to join students in an educational day trip

Table 4.4

Confidence level of elders to join students in an educational day trip

Confidence Level	Frequency	%
Strongly disagree	45	7.5
Disagree	158	26.4
Neutral	70	11.3
Agree	218	36.4
Strongly agree	127	21.2
Total	618	100

The findings(Table 4.4) indicate that 345 elderly(57.6%) have the confidence to participate in academic visits with students. Only 254 elderly people (42.4%) are not sure about participating in academic visits with students.

(III) Confidence Level of elders to coach students

Table 4.5
Confidence Level of elders to coach students

Confidence Level	Frequency	%
Strongly disagree	50	8.4
Disagree	155	25.9
Neutral	76	12.1
Agree	195	32.6
Strongly agree	142	23.7
Total	618	100

The findings (Table 4.5) indicate that 337 elderly (57.3%) have the confidence to coach students. Only 261 elderly people (43.7%) are not sure about coaching students.

(IV) Confidence Levels of elders to accept comments and Feedbacks

Table 4.6

Confidence Levels of elders to accept comments and Feedbacks

Confidence Level	Frequency	%
Strongly disagree	11	1.8
Disagree	50	8.4
Neutral	58	9.4
Agree	314	52.8
Strongly agree	184	30.9
Total	618	100

The findings (Table 4.6) indicate that the elderly who have the confidence to receive comments and feedback is a total of 498 patients (83.7%). Only 97 elderly people (16.3%) are not sure about receiving comments and feedback from students.

Willingness of the elders to learn new skills

Table 4.7

Willingness of the elders to learn new skills

Willingness of the elders to learn the new skills	Frequency	Percentage(%)
Not Agree	299	48.4
Agree	319	51.6
Total	618	100

The willingness of the elders to learn new skills was surveyed and analysed. 51.6% (319 elders) wishing to learn the new skills (Table 4.7)

New Skilled perceived needed by elders to contribute to the intergenerational Program

Table 4.8

New skills perceived needed by elders to contribute to the intergenerational program .

The findings showed that most of the elderly perceived needed of the ict skills to perform the intergenerational program (see Table 4.7).

Types of Skills	Frequency	Percentage(%)
Computers	188	30.4
Academic(subject)	92	14.9
Craf	70	11.3
Music	67	10.8
Arts	63	10.2
Handyman Skills	59	9.5
Outdoor Games	32	5.2
Indoor Games	27	4.4
Total	618	100

DISCUSSION

The findings showed that the elderly have the confidence to coach students with the skills that they have. They also have the confidence to accept comments from the students and to participate in student academic visits. In contrast, the elderly are less confident to speak in front of an audience of students. These findings are consistent with a study by Hutchison & Beynon (2014) that the elderly have the confidence to teach students to sing, but their physical condition has caused them to lack the confidence to sing solo in a crowd.

This study found that senior citizen have skills in academic subjects, sports skills, crafts, music and crafts but they are less proficient in computer field. This finding is consistent with a study by Parisi et al (2009) that the ability of seniors to teach students to use the knowledge and skills available through intergenerational community-based program to meet social and academic needs of students. It also supports the theory of Erikson (1962) on generativity requirements that must be met when the elderly can contribute to society (Sanders, Sullivan, DeBurra & Fedner, 2013).

The study also found that seniors want to learn new skills and computer skills are the skills they most want to learn. These findings are congruent with those of other studies done by various authors (Boulton-Lewis, 2010; Erisen, 2010; Erisen, Sahin, & Kapicioglu, 2008; Escolar Chua & Guzman,2014) that the desire to learn by the seniors are diverse and cover the areas of health, language, hobbies, and learning opportunities in the field of technology . This shows that even in their later life, they still have the urge to learn and want to take advantage of the educational opportunities that can help them to adapt in a rapidly changing world. This finding is contrary to the study by Purdie & Boulton-Lewis (2003) that the elderly do not like to learn technological skills.

CONCLUSION

The main objective of this study was to determine the types of skills and confidence levels that exist in the elderly so that they can contribute meaningfully to the intergenerational program. The findings generated in this study provides some implications for educators. Firstly, educational programmes for intergenerational fail because of improper planning, which led to the failure of the implementation of the programme. Although there are a lot of literatures that emphasize the importance of involving seniors in intergenerational education programme planning, previous research results indicate it is still an important issue that must be addressed (Escolar Chua & Guzman, 2014). Intergenerational education programmes should be designed for seniors to help them become more productive. Intergenerational education programmes should take into account the needs of senior citizens not only in terms of their satisfaction, but must take into account the seniors' requirement for personal growth and serving the community (Villar & Celdran, 2012).

Secondly, the strategy to encourage the elderly and young people in intergenerational education programmes should also be arranged so that both generations benefit from each other and also encourage mutual learning (Breytspraak,Arnold & Hogan,2008; Chung,2009; Mannion,2012; Savishinsky,2011; Weaver,2014). This study reviewed the population around Klang Valley,future studies

should include rural population with experimental methods for reviewing the effectiveness of intergenerational education programme on the quality of life of the elders.

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Teaching Performance of Novice Teachers: Its Relationship with Academic Achievement and Teacher Testing

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Abstract: This study discusses the relationship of Teaching Performance with Academic Performance and Teacher Testing Scores of the novice teachers who graduated from a sampled institution in the years 2007-2010. The respondents are novice teachers or those who have 0-5 years of teaching experience. Their teaching performance has been gauged using a common tool adopted from the Philippine Association of State Universities and Colleges (PASUC) accomplished by their Immediate Supervisor in private and public academic institutions from regions where they teach. The teacher test scores were obtained from the Professional Regulation Commission (PRC). The results indicate that there is a negligible link between the Teaching Performance and Academic Achievement; and between Teaching Performance and Teacher Testing Scores of the respondents. The “Very Satisfactory” or “Outstanding” teaching performance evaluation rating earned by the respondents indicates the knowledge, skills and philosophies learned during the pre-service training. Finally, this research posits that an emerging paradigm of teaching performance must be progressively developed.

Keywords: academic performance, teaching performance, teacher testing, novice teachers

Introduction

Studies on novice teachers, who they are and what they can do, abound. Research looked into their teaching styles, pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) and their teaching efficacy, to name a few (NCCTQ issue no. 3, 2008). Some efforts on documenting training programs and mentoring sessions to aid them in their teaching practices are also available (http://www.nola.com/news/index.ssf/2009/01/novice_teachers_trained_under). Over all, literatures talk about the level of preparedness of novice teachers to manage classroom teaching-learning experience, which include their knowledge of the pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) (Villani, 2009; Williamson, McDiarmid & Clevenger-Bright, 2008). This paper adds to the growing discussion on how selected novice teachers conduct classroom learning experiences and which specific component of their training as preservice teachers aided them in their becoming ‘good’ teachers. Descriptions and connections of teaching performance with quality is also underscored.

Teacher Quality and Teaching Performance

Many studies point to teacher quality as the most important gauge in determining success of educational policies. To Darling Hammond (2006), the quality of teachers remains to be the most important determiner of student outcome. In fact, teachers have more impact on student learning than any other factor controlled by the school system (Rivkin, Hanushek and Kain, 2005). While it cannot be denied that there are other important factors such as curriculum, assessment, congested classrooms, high student teacher ratios, poor infrastructure, availability and quality of teaching and learning materials, student nutrition, and student home and community environment influence quality of learning (Berliner, 2014; Fantuzzo, LeBoeuf, & Rouse, 2014), instructional quality is widely recognized as a strong determinant. To put simply, students learn because their teachers want them to learn. Thus, it is important to begin discussions with a reminder of the reality of what teaching and learning looks like inside the different classrooms. Such clarification points to the teacher as not only the main source of learning but also the only point by which the ‘control’ for the learning process takes into force.

When teachers are better prepared, they are more effective teachers (Ball & Bass, 2000). In fact, Ball & Cohen (1999), and Hill, Rowan and Ball (2005) all agree that better prepared teachers are more effective. As summarized by Baturo and Nason (1994), effective teaching emerges from extensive repertoire of three core areas of knowledge: content knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge and lesson structure knowledge. Teacher quality and teacher performance, therefore, are interrelated. Understanding one may possibly lead to a clear comprehension of the other. The variable of teacher quality, in this study, is a reflection of the teaching performance, which is influenced by academic achievement and teacher testing.

The relationship of three variables in determining quality: academic achievement, teacher testing and teaching performance is anchored on this framework:

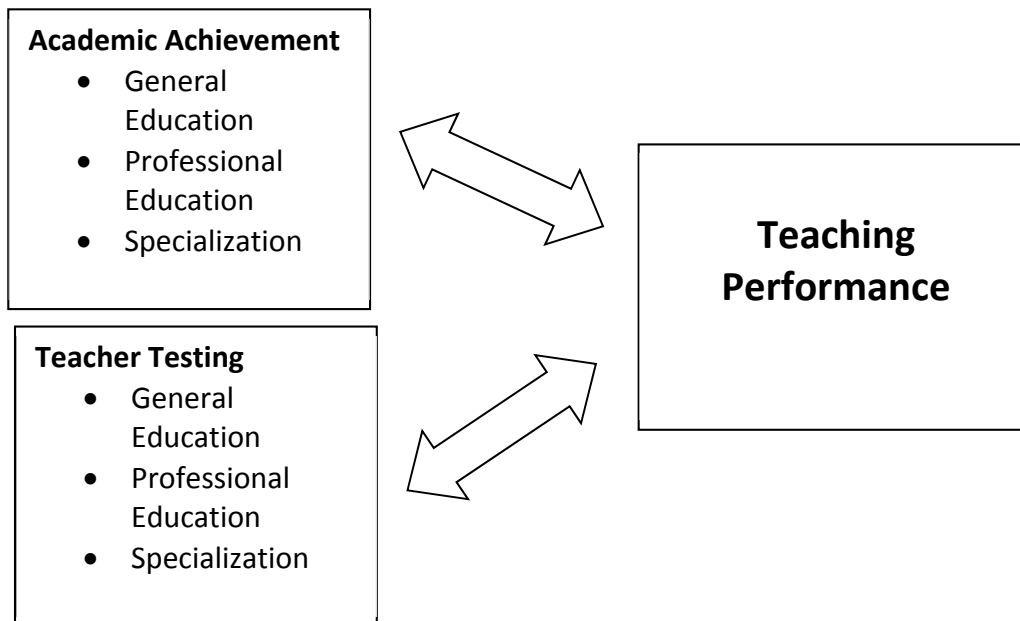


Figure 1

The framework shows the relatedness of the two variables: academic performance and teacher testing with the teaching performance. This study gives emphasis on the specific roles each variable has on the overall description of the teaching performance of novice teachers.

Novice Teachers and the K to 12 reform

Several factors may prod the need to assess novice teachers in relation to their teaching processes. In the Philippines, one of the important factors is the enactment into law of the K to 12 curricular reform. More than ever, there is a great need to revisit all factors that affect teacher quality and teaching performance because teachers are considered as the most vital part of the delivery of the new curriculum. The importance of the government's K to 12 agenda to the economic development and the social and cultural life of the Philippines is as enormous as the challenge it represents. Schools and teachers are confronted with the need to understand and be able to implement well the curriculum reform.

Novice teachers, as defined in this study, are those who have 0-5 years of teaching experience. They are expected to enter the teaching profession with knowledge of the new curriculum. This study looked into the possible variables which may help understand who they are and what they can offer in the classroom.

Methodology

This study was intended to underscore the relationship of academic achievement and teacher testing with teaching performance of the respondents. Specifically, the study sought answers to the following questions:

1. What is the teaching performance of the respondents?
2. Is there a relationship between the teaching performance evaluation results and academic performance of the novice teacher-respondents?
3. Is there a relationship between the teaching performance evaluation results and teacher testing scores of the novice teacher-respondents?
4. Are academic achievement and teacher testing scores predictors of success of teaching performance of the respondents?

The respondents of this study were 405 novice teachers who graduated from a sampled institution in the years 2007-2010. Their academic achievement, as shown by their average grades in the courses taken in the pre-service training, was computed. The academic courses are classified under General Education (GE) courses, Professional Education (PE) courses, and Specialization courses.

The Teacher Testing Score, on the other hand, was derived from the scores in the three sub-components of the Licensure Examination for Teachers (LET) mandated by the Philippine government through the

Professional Regulation Commission (PRC). The sub components are General Education Professional Education and Specialization.

The Teaching Performance Evaluation Result was derived from the evaluation ratings given by the Immediate Supervisors of the respondents. A common tool prescribed by the Philippine Association of State Universities and Colleges (PASUC) was used for the purpose.

A team of field researchers traced the 405 novice teachers to 256 private and public schools in Regions 3,4,5 and NCR, and obtained the consent of the said novice teachers to be participants of this study. Then, a novice teacher, together with a field researcher requested the novice teacher's Immediate Supervisor to rate him/her using a Teaching Performance Evaluation Tool. In some cases, the Immediate Supervisor rated the novice teacher and gave the filled up rating sheet right away to the Field researcher. In some cases, the immediate supervisor requested that the filled up instrument, in a sealed envelope, be picked up on an agreed time.

To describe the teaching performance of the novice teachers, the mean score of their teaching performance evaluation results, as rated by their immediate supervisors, were computed and interpreted using the following continuum:

Table 1. Continuum of Teaching Performance

Mean Rating	Interpretation
4.51 – 5.00	Outstanding
3.51 – 4.50	Very Satisfactory
2.51 – 3.50	Satisfactory
1.51 – 2.50	Fair
1.00 – 1.50	Poor

To determine the coefficients of correlations of teaching performance with academic achievement and with teaching testing, Pearson r was used. While in determining if academic achievement and teacher testing are good predictors of success of teaching performance, linear regression is used. All computations were done using SPSS software.

Results and Discussions

The Teaching Performance of the respondents

This section presents the results of the immediate supervisors' evaluation of the respondents' teaching performance.

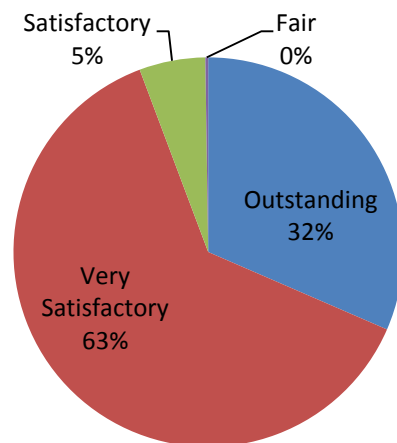


Figure 2. Teaching performance

Figure 2 shows that just less than one-third of the respondents were evaluated as “Outstanding” while about 63% were evaluated as “Very Satisfactory (VS).” This implies that the Immediate Supervisors of the 256 private and public schools where the respondents were employed, are generally satisfied with the performance of the novice teachers, all graduates of a sampled institution. This further implies that despite being new in the profession, almost all of the respondents are performing well as teachers in their respective schools. Their competence maybe attributed on the kind of training that they received during their pre service training.

Relationship of Teaching Performance (TP) and Academic Achievement

Coefficients of correlation between Teaching Performance (TP) and the average grades in General Education (GE), Professional Education (PE), Specialization, and General Weighted Average (GWA) were computed.

Table 2. Correlation between Teaching Performance and Average Grades

Respondents	Scores	r	p-value
Novice teachers (N = 405)	TP and Average in GE	0.083	0.096
	TP and Average in PE	0.082	0.099
	TP and Average in Specialization	0.059	0.234
	Teaching Performance and Average Grade	0.134	0.007**

** correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (two-tailed)

Legend: TP – teaching performance

Average GE – average grade in General Education courses

Average PE – average grade in Professional Education courses

Average Spec – average grade in Specialization courses

Average Grade – average grade in all academic courses

It can be inferred from Table 2 that for all 405 respondents, there is negligible correlation between the Teaching Performance and any of the Average Grades in either General Education (GE), Professional Education (PE) and Specialization. However, there is a weak but significant positive correlation between the Teaching Performance and General Weighted Average ($r = 0.134, p = 0.007$). This means that only about 1.8% of the Teaching Performance Evaluation score of the respondents can be explained by their Academic Achievement.

The positive significant correlation, although weak, between the Teaching Performance and GWA, which is not found when the TP is correlated with any of the sub-component of Academic Achievement, seems to suggest that teaching should be taken holistically and not as a compartmentalized combination of GE, PE and specialization.

Relationship of Teaching Performance and Teacher Testing Scores

Coefficients of correlation between Teaching Performance (TP) and the Teacher Testing (TT) score in General Education (GE), Professional Education (PE), Specialization, and Over all TT scores (TTS) were computed.

Table 3. Correlation between Teaching Performance and Teacher Testing scores

	Scores	r	p-value
Novice teachers (N = 405)	TP and TT Gen. Ed.	0.070	0.160
	TP and TT Prof. Ed.	0.074	0.136
	TP and TT Specialization	0.029	0.578
	Teaching Performance and Over-all TTS	0.067	0.176

Legend: TP – teaching performance

TT GE – Teacher Testing score in General Education component

TT PE – Teacher Testing score in Professional Education component

TT Spec – Teacher Testing score in Specialization component

TTS – over all Teacher Testing score

The results reveal that there is negligible correlation between the Teaching Performance and any of the TT components. This could be attributed to the homogeneity of this group of respondents where almost all have very satisfactory rating in their teaching performance as revealed in the previous discussion.

Academic Achievement and Teacher Testing as Predictors of Teaching Performance

To determine if academic achievement and teacher testing are good predictors of success of teaching performance, linear regression was used. The linear regression equation is $y = 0.022 x_1 - 0.001 x_2 + 2.444$

where y – teaching performance, x_1 – academic performance and x_2 – teacher testing. It can be inferred from the equation that the very small coefficients of the variables representing academic performance and teacher testing suggest very small contributions from the said variables. This is further supported by the table below.

Table 4. **Model Summary**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.116(a)	.013	.008	.35561

a Predictors: (Constant), Teaching Testing Score, Grade Weighted Average

It can be inferred from Table 4, that only 1.3% of the Teaching Performance can be attributed to the Academic Performance and Teacher Testing and around 99% can be explained by other variables which are not included in this study. That is, in the case of Filipino novice teachers, their Undergraduate Academic Achievement and Teacher Testing Scores are not significant predictors of their Teaching Performance.

Implications

In the growing discussion of what predicts or what contributes for good teaching performance, this study found out that among the Filipino novice teacher-respondents, academic performance and teacher testing are not the main “contributors” of their good teaching performance. This result supports Shulman’s (1986) observation that “there is a possibility that teachers’ knowledge is not necessarily translated into teaching practices.”

As a way of recommendation, further studies be conducted that may probe the added contribution of in-service or induction programs over the knowledge and skills that beginning teachers bring with them; and how do these programs contribute to the quality of teaching performance. Other factors need to be considered to really examine what really contributes to good teaching performance of novice teachers.

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TEACHING READING FLUENCY TO HAUSA ADULT LEARNERS USING GRADUAL RELEASE OF RESPONSIBILITY MODEL

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INTRODUCTION

Effective instruction for struggling adolescent readers is currently at the forefront of literacy. Teaching reading is a complex undertaking, especially when the learner is an adult. Unlike children, adult learners cannot spend several hours in a classroom every day. Most adults learning to read find it difficult to attend classes at all; those who enroll in a basic education program can spend, at most, a few hours a week working on their reading.

When adult students arrive in the classroom, they can be at just about any level in their reading development, from beginning readers working on the fundamentals to more advanced readers ready to begin study for a high school level equivalency diploma. Emotional factors such as motivation, engagement, and fear of failure play a major role in reading success. These feelings can be especially intense for adults, particularly for learners who have spent years struggling with reading and hiding their inability to read from family members, friends, coworkers, and employers. Given the complexity of the task, what methods should educators use to help adult learners make substantial gains in their reading skill?

READING FLUENCY

Fluency is the ability to read with efficiency and ease. Fluent readers can read quickly and accurately and with appropriate rhythm, intonation, and expression. Individuals who are learning to read often are not fluent. Their reading is choppy and filled with hesitations. They make false starts and mistakes in pronunciation. But even mature readers may read less fluently if they try to read texts that contain many unfamiliar words. Their reading may slow down and be characterized by more hesitations and mispronunciations than usual.

Without fluency, readers attend more to decoding than to understanding the meaning of what they are reading. Fluency promotes comprehension by freeing cognitive resources for interpretation. Fluent reading also signals that readers are pausing at appropriate points to make sense of the text. When a reader can reproduce the rhythm intended by the author, he or she can grasp the meaning more easily.

There are activities that a teacher can use to improve fluency such as: Choral reading, learners read a portion of text together. Tape reading, in this activity, the teacher tapes the learners reading individually. This can be done with the microphone on an interactive whiteboard or a tape recorder. The learners then listen back to what they have read, self-assess their own reading. The teacher may work with a small group or the whole class to model fluent reading and the learners repeat the reading back to the teacher. They echo the teacher's expressions and intonation. Fluency is an issue for adult beginning readers, intermediate readers, and for some who read at more advanced Adult Basic Education levels. In a large-scale assessment of over one thousand young adults, those with poor fluency had a silent reading rate of about 145 or fewer words per minute almost 100 words per minute slower than the fluent readers. The oral reading rate and accuracy of adult beginning readers closely resembles those of children who are beginning to read (Curtis and Kruidenier, 2005). In Nigeria the situation is more than that, some adults read not more than ten words per minute even in their first language. This is the rationale for the study to see how literacy rate can be enhanced.

Reading fluency can be measured formally with standardized tests, or informally with reading inventories, miscue analyses, pausing indices, or measures of rate. Typically, a student reads aloud while the teacher observes and records reading accuracy and reading rate. Reading accuracy is the number or percentage of words read correctly in a text. Reading rate or speed is the number of words read in a given amount of time, such as the number of words read in a minute, or the average number of words read per minute. Sometimes measures of oral reading accuracy and rate are combined, as in determining the average number of words read correctly in a minute. Fluency can also be estimated by timing how long it takes to read a passage of text silently.

Another way to assess fluency is by the rhythm a reader has while reading. Some researchers developed a four-point fluency scale based on pauses. Level one on the scale represents readers who read word by word, while level four represents those who pause only at the boundaries of meaningful phrases and clauses.

Although most researchers consider prosody important, the subjectivity of judging students' prosody makes it a difficult component of fluency to study. Many researchers have focused on the more easily quantifiable components of fluency (rate and accuracy) and, therefore, some basic questions about prosody — like what should be expected in second grade versus sixth grade — have not been answered. Nevertheless, students'

prosody is an extra piece of information for making instructional decisions. When students' speed and accuracy are at appropriate levels, reading with proper phrasing, expression, and intonation should be the next goal.

To measure students' oral reading speed and accuracy, researchers have developed a simple and very brief procedure that uses regular classroom texts to determine the number of words that students can read correctly in one minute. To obtain a words-correct-per-minute (WCPM) score, students are assessed individually as they read aloud for one minute from an unpracticed passage of text.

To calculate the WCPM score, the examiner subtracts the total number of errors from the total number of words read in one minute. An error includes any word that is omitted, mispronounced, or substituted for another word. Words transposed in a phrase count as two errors (e.g., reading "laughed and played" instead of "played and laughed"). Each time a word is read incorrectly it is counted as an error. Words read correctly that are repeated more than once, errors self-corrected by the student, words inserted by the student that do not appear in the text, and words mispronounced due to dialect or speech impairments are not counted as errors. They do, however, impact the final score since they slow the student down and, therefore, reduce the number of words that are read correctly in one minute.

If the passage is randomly selected from a text or trade book, an average score should be taken from readings of two or three different passages to account for any text-based differences. If standardized passages are used (in which the text has been carefully controlled for difficulty), a score from a single passage may be sufficient.

GRADUAL RELEASE OF RESPONSIBILITY MODEL

Research on what motivates and engages less-effective readers is accumulating rapidly. It is expected that struggling learners need purposeful instruction in reading skills and strategies, access to a wide variety of texts, motivation to read, and authentic opportunities to read and write both inside and outside of school (Alvermann, 2001; Ivey, 1999; Paterson & Elliott, 2006; Williams, 2001). One way teachers can provide more targeted, individualized instruction is to use the Gradual Release of Responsibility Model (GRR) (Pearson & Gallagher, 1983). This instructional model requires that the teacher, by design, transition from assuming all the responsibility for performing a task to a situation in which the students assume all of the responsibility (Duke & Pearson, 2002). The gradual release may occur over a day, a week, or months. The gradual release of responsibility emphasizes instruction that mentors students into becoming capable thinkers and learners when handling the tasks with which they have not yet developed expertise" (Buehl, 2005).

One element which is crucial to the success of the GRR model is the notion related to instructional scaffolding which is broadly recognized as a successful approach for moving classroom instruction from teacher-centered, wholegroup delivery to student-centered collaboration and independent practice. The model is grounded in Vygotsky's (1978) concept of the "Zone of Proximal Development." This is described as the distance between the actual developmental level of a learner as determined by their independent problem solving abilities and the level of potential development through problem-solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers. That is, the distance between what the learners can do without assistance and what they can accomplish with the assistance of more capable peers. The Zone of Proximal Development can be applied as an umbrella over the Gradual Release of Responsibility Model (GRR). Learners are given support in the form of scaffolding and differentiate instruction throughout all four phases of the process. Teachers can offer more challenging material to high-achieving learners, and assist lower-achieving learners in needs-based groups. Teachers support students as needed throughout the four steps and finally allowing for the eventual independence of each student. The GRR model, assumes that the learners will need some guidance in reaching that stage of independence and that it is precisely the teacher's role to provide such guidance.

Although the GRR model is based on the work of Piaget (1952), the influence of Vygotsky's constructivist theory and learning in the classroom has become more popular because it considers the influence of group processes and social contexts that are, in themselves, influenced by such constructs as cultural diversity and stages of development. The GRR model emphasizes instruction that supports and mentors students into becoming capable thinkers and learners when handling tasks with which they have yet to develop expertise in. It is a successful model and has been documented as an effective approach in teaching many subject areas and a variety of content, from writing achievement, reading comprehension, and literacy outcomes for English language learners (Kong & Pearson, 2003) The present study tested the model by teaching reading fluency in Hausa language to adult learners.

The GRR model has four steps. The focus Lessons component allows teachers to model their own metacognitive processes as active readers. This is usually brief in nature; focus lessons establish purposes for reading and clue students into important learning objectives. The next stage is the guided instruction stage where teachers prompt, question, facilitate, or lead students through tasks that increase understanding of a particular text.

The collaborative learning component in the gradual release of responsibility model, students consolidate their understanding of the content and explore opportunities to solve problems, discuss the content negotiate meaning, and think with their peers. Independent learning addresses the most important goal of instruction which provides students with practice in applying skills and information in new ways. As students transfer their learning to subsequent tasks, they synthesize information, transform ideas, and solidify their understanding. They become active readers and capable learners. The gradual release of responsibility instructional framework purposefully shifts the cognitive load from teacher-as-model, to joint responsibility of teacher and learner, to independent practice and application by the learner (Pearson & Gallagher, 1983).

The model stipulates that the teacher moves from assuming "all the responsibility for performing a task to a situation in which the students assume all of the responsibility" (Duke & Pearson, 2002, p. 211). Graves and Fitzgerald (2003) note that "effective instruction often follows a progression in which teachers gradually do less of the work and students gradually assume increased responsibility for their learning. It is through this process of gradually assuming more and more responsibility for their learning that students become competent, independent learners. The gradual release of responsibility framework, the model from the onset was developed for reading instruction, reflects the intersection of several theories, it is now being used for teaching writing and mathematics.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The ultimate goal of instruction is that students be able to independently apply information, ideas, content, skills, and strategies in unique situations. We want to create learners who are not dependent on others for information and ideas. As such, learners need practice completing independent tasks and learning from those tasks. Among the Hausa speakers especially adults, there is difficulty in teaching them to read. This may be due to lack of motivation on the part of the learners. Therefore the research set out to teach reading fluency to adult learners of reading in Hausa using the gradual release of responsibility model in order to see if it could motivate them to read with fluency.

THE OBJECTIVES

The objectives of the research are to:

- a) Determine the usefulness of gradual release of responsibility model in teaching reading fluency among adult learners
- b) Find out if the gradual release of responsibility model can motivate adult learners to read.

INSTRUMENT

The instruments for the research were a collection of Hausa folktales titled Hikayoyin Kaifafa Zukata written by Malam Aminu Kano and Ingantattun Magungunan Zuma by Muhammad Khamis Kibiya which is a book on the benefits of honey. These books were chosen to vary the reading content. All the books have other volumes. Only the first volumes were used for the research.

THE PARTICIPANTS

The participants were 30 adults who scored between the third and fifth grade levels on the Letter-Word Identification. The participants attend the Ahmadu Bello University adult literacy programs which I am a volunteer teacher. Majority of the participants were between 25- 30 years and possessing an average educational attainment level of primary six equivalent to Hasbrouck and Tindal's grade level seven (7). Twenty-five percent of the sample were full-time house-wives, with the 5% working as casual workers.

PROCEDURE

The teacher introduces the lesson by setting the goals of the lesson, telling the learners the intention of making them become fluent readers within eight weeks. The books selected were of the level the students have reached. They could combine the letters of the alphabets to form words and combine the words into simple sentences. At the focus level, the teacher reads two of the stories from the book to capture the interests of the learners. The teacher reads and the learners read after her. This she did three times during each lesson. The learners were told what is meant by fluency and its components. They were told to look out for any that is lacking in their reading. During guided lesson the learners were asked to write some of the words that the teacher felt would be difficult for the learners to read on their own on the board. The teacher demonstrates reading the words using the phonic method. Then were instructed to read the words as the teacher listens, and corrected those that could not produce the words correctly. Each of the participants about 10-15 were asked to write a word from a text and read in a

day. Those that did not read were allowed to do the same with different words the next day. This approach was followed for three weeks. During the fourth week, the teacher read one passage fluently while the learners listen, then were each required to read the sentences in the stories, or one of the benefits of honey while the other learners listened. After reading the passage, the reader was asked to stay in front of the class where the rest of the class pointed out what she did wrong in relation to accuracy, rate and prosody.

The next step is the collaborative stage. This was done by allowing the learners to open any page they liked to read one of stories or the texts on benefits of honey one after the other. The learners were instructed to read while others listen to correct any mistake by the reader at the level of accuracy, rate and prosody. Then the teacher asked the learners to discuss the story to find out its purpose and meaning.

The last stage of the research consisted of the respondents reading the passage among themselves with the teacher going round to observe what they are doing. Eventually the teacher asked each of the students to read the full stories individually as the teacher assessed them. It was discovered that the subsequently the respondents were able to read the passages on their own. They even wanted to get the other volumes to read.

ANALYSIS

The analysis was done using a modified National Assessment of Educational Progress Fluency scale. The level one the non-fluent reader is one that read 5- 7 words per minute (WCPM) which do not preserve meaningful syntax. By the second phase the non-fluent respondents have improved their level of of reading by getting more than 12- 15 (WCPM) word groupings were awkward and unrelated to larger contexts of the passages.

Level three and four are classified as the fluent levels were the phrasings were accurate and preserved the syntax of the authors with prosody present. Level four was the stage that majority of the respondents were able to read the texts with accurate fluency. The respondents were able to bring out the meanings of the stories and the lessons they were supposed to teach. The respondents used some proverbs to show their understanding of the stories.

The texts on the benefits of honey were seen as more interesting because most of them wanted to know the other uses than the ones they already know. The uses also included the step by step procedures of using honey for the treatment of simple ailments.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion the paper feels that the gradual release of responsibility model is a very good way to teach adults to read due to its simplicity of use. Also the gradual withdrawal of the teacher makes the learners more reliant on collaborative learning which breeds learning independence. The model is flexible because it does not have a set time of stopping, it can be used continuously.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The paper recommends that the gradual release of responsibility should be used by teachers for teaching all aspects of language such as, listening, speaking, reading and writing.

The model should not be used for teaching English language only other Nigerian languages could be taught using the model.

The collaborative aspect of the model should be emphasized for learners to draw strength and be able to work in groups. This would enable the strong learners to draw the weaker ones.

The constructivist approach to learning is being emphasized this can help especially the Nigerian teacher to relax a little from the rigours of large classes.

The Scales Used for Assessing the Readers Fluency

Hasbrouck and Tindal's Oral Reading Fluency Norms for Grades 1-8									
PERCENTILE	FALL	WINTER	SPRING	AWI	PERCENTILE	FALL	WINTER	SPRING	AWI
	WCPM	WCPM	WCPM			WCPM	WCPM	WCPM	
GRADE 1					GRADE 5				
90	—	81	111	1.9	90	166	182	194	0.9
75	—	47	82	2.2	75	139	156	168	0.9
50	—	23	53	1.9	50	110	127	139	0.9
25	—	12	28	1.0	25	85	99	109	0.8
10	—	6	15	0.6	10	61	74	83	0.7
GRADE 2					GRADE 6				
90	106	125	142	1.1	90	177	195	204	0.8
75	79	100	117	1.2	75	153	167	177	0.8
50	51	72	89	1.2	50	127	140	150	0.7
25	25	42	61	1.1	25	98	111	122	0.8
10	11	18	31	0.6	10	68	82	93	0.8
GRADE 3					GRADE 7				
90	128	146	162	1.1	90	180	192	202	0.7
75	99	120	137	1.2	75	156	165	177	0.7
50	71	92	107	1.1	50	128	136	150	0.7
25	44	62	78	1.1	25	102	109	123	0.7
10	21	36	48	0.8	10	79	88	98	0.6
GRADE 4					GRADE 8				
90	145	166	180	1.1	90	185	199	199	0.4
75	119	139	152	1.0	75	161	173	177	0.5
50	94	112	123	0.9	50	133	146	151	0.6
25	68	87	98	0.9	25	106	115	127	0.6
10	45	61	72	0.8	10	77	84	97	0.6
WCPM: Words Correct Per Minute					AWI: Average Weekly Improvement				

Hasbrouck and Tindal, 2008

National Assessment of Educational Progress Fluency Scale

Fluent	Level 4	Reads primarily in larger, meaningful phrase groups. Although some regressions, repetitions, and deviations from text may be present, these do not appear to detract from the overall structure of the story. Preservation of the author's syntax is consistent. some or most of the story is read with expressive interpretation.
Fluent	Level 3	Reads primarily in three- or four-word phrase groups. Some small groupings may be present. however, the majority of phrasing seems appropriate and preserves the syntax of the author. Little or no expressive interpretation is present.
Non-Fluent	Level 2	Reads primarily in two-word phrases with some three- or four-word groupings. Some word-by-word reading may be present. Word groupings may seem awkward and unrelated to larger context of sentence or passage
Non-Fluent	Level 1	Reads primarily word-by-word. Occasional two-word or three-word phrases may occur but these are infrequent and/or they do not preserve meaningful syntax.

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THE COOPERATIVE LEARNING IN THE INTERCULTURAL CONTEXT

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Abstract: Within the multi-ethnic society in which we live the interaction and cohabitation between different people for ethnic and cultural aspects is an important key driver to exchange and share behaviours, values and rules for mutual enrichment as well as for individual and collective growth. So the “intercultural education” is an important way to drive and strengthen the process of teaching/learning. In this context research, knowledge and experience are the main pillars that attribute to the cooperative learning the meaning of “intercultural context”, allowing at the same time to validate this approach by means of criteria related to academic success, personal well-being and the quality of relationships in the classroom. The aim of the paper is to discuss about the birth, structure and development of the Cooperative Learning (CL) in order to analyze methodologies able to improve the learning outcomes of the members of a working group by using the effective teaching method.

INTRODUCTION

The multi-ethnicity which characterizes the present historical-cultural scenery, invites us to reflect on the possible bases on which to found a life in common of mutual respect and of reciprocal identity recognition.

In a multi-ethnic society as the one in which at present we actually live, the identity concept is, in fact, so strongly felt as to form a sort of blockhouse into which one can take refuge to defend one-self from the others. It seems that the identity concept refers to the protection of one own's individuality, as if in the relationship with the others, this should assure one own's survival, by representing the place where the world of values, denoting the belonging to own's place of origin, traditions and way of being, is contained this way of express.

This concept of identity, however, includes a great misunderstanding. The identity is, in fact, not a sign of isolation, but of relation. You cannot speak about identity without referring actually to something which is other in regard to which the definition of the identity of something is determined. (A. Fabbris, 2011).

It is a question of reconsider the terms with which this relation is established. In order to do that it is necessary for us to recover the sense of man's condition as constitutionally relational (A. Harendt, 1964), and to be able to found this relationality on a concept of “open identity”.

This consists in the conviction that we are what we are only since, we are connected with the others. In other terms, we are not isolated and monolithic individual that only secondly relate to others, as much isolated and monolithic. Instead we are already part of a precise relational dynamics, which connects us to the others from the beginnings. Otherwise, we would be mere things, not human beings. So, we are structurally open to the other people and our identity develops through the relation with the others (A. Fabbris, 2011).

In order to acquire this awareness, one need simply to be educated. In this direction, education has had and still has a crucial role, since it is the institutional sphere in charge of granting the effectiveness of the socialization processes the future citizen's formation, the production of the official knowledge and the cultural heritage of the groups forming the society, and the construction of the cultural picture within which a peaceful way of living together must occur.

Nevertheless, the task of such education, from the point of view of a peaceful coexistence among culturally and ethnically different people, and of the consequent enlargement of knowledge horizons and of the construction of the basis for a critical reflection on one own's and others identities and life styles, needs to the develop towards the facing up of new pedagogical challenges.

The introduction of the intercultural logic into schools, is among these, since it requires:

- The curricula replanning;
- A trans-curricular pedagogical practice, particularly careful for the global aspects of single disciplines and a specific utilization of projects or extra-curricular programmes;
- Methodologies which combine emotion, thinking and doing and at the same time, balance the learning process, living the learner the status of an actor who learns and operates by beginning from processes of construction and sharing of the knowledge.

The intercultural logic must not be meant as a new chapter of pedagogy, or a branch of a special pedagogy, but must be considered an innovative perspective for general pedagogy. This as a consequence, should mean an innovative way of everybody's education, above all for that concerns the formation of personal identity and socio-cultural identity. It should be meant as qualifying in the innovative sense the general pedagogy in its entirety (Nanni, 1998).

This way of thinking of intercultural, can develop only when the intercultural does not take place at school or on the textbooks, but it becomes an event in the subjects cognitive system, in the subjects' cognitive experience when they carry out a synthetic experience, which re-interprets various cultures.

In this sense, "the intercultural as an experience takes place when one perceives that in the other culture narration there is a divergent thought which can be accepted or refused" (Nanni, 1998, pp. 47-48).

In this sphere, the following principles are identified:

- To express recognition;
- To promote the confidence;
- To develop the communicative competence;
- The didactic principle of concreteness.

To them, one must add the aims that on the cognitive plan consist on activating the didactic paths which encourage the decentralized dimension of knowledge and on the affective-relational plan recall the ability to engage the conflict and to get over the fear of the different. In this sense, the most effective and appropriate indications of the intercultural logic need to permeate the reflection within the single disciplines (Portera, 2000).

The affirmation of an intercultural perspective implies the interpretation of the multicultural as a by now structural and distinctive fact of contemporary society and, in consequence, it aims to a rethinking of educational processes on the basis of the principles of recognition and enhancement of diversity, and aims to the construction of an educational system which favours a peaceful and democratic living together.

The concept of intercultural which derives from this perspective, is not satisfied with formative results which concern only the cognitive sphere, but it refers to the entirety of the possible educational results: awareness, knowledge, empathy, attitudes and abilities.

This implies that, by the assumption of an educational principle like that, one arrives to a connotation of intercultural education which, founding its methods on reinterpreting experience of subjects different cultures, can be defined a multi-dimensional process of interaction between individual of different cultural identities, who, through the intercultural meeting, experience something deep and complex a conflict/reception which is a precious opportunity of growth for everybody's personal culture, in the perspective to remove all obstacles from the construction of a new civil living together, also through the changing of school system (the same opportunities, remaking of textbooks, adoption of active techniques and multimedial instruments) and the requalification of the educationists.

In this terms, school, as an educational community can and must perform the task to generate a propulsion to the relationship shaped with affective and emotional languages, and the task to promote the sharing of those values which enable all the pupils to feel as members of an only and real society.

In this sense, school can be the place the task of teaching can be placed side by side with the one of teaching to be (N. Lupoli, 2010.), on the basis of the principle that every kind of education derives from the participation of the individual to the civil conscience of human species, without any distinction of culture and ethnicity, by considering the act of growing a socialization, process which begins unawares from his/her birth and goes on as a constant experience through the social life, and so, with the other individuals (J. Dewey, 1954).

A perspective like that, open to social dimension, enables to project positive effects not only into learning how to live with the others but even into learning the learning processes, into learning through the direct experience of doing, and into learning to be subjects ethically inspired (J. Delors, 1997).

From this it derives that one needs to conceive the class as a group of people, to pay attention to its relational dynamics, promoting the cooperative bonds among its members and to be able to conduct the inevitable conflicts caused by socialization.

The concept of school as a life community, by assuming the concept of intercultural education, must aim to respect of everybody's natural and active involvement, and must develop into pupils the processes of real reflection able to give foundation to the gradual achievements into the various fields of knowledge and social life; assuming the core of socio-cultural constructivism, which means the learning as an active process of knowledge construction.

According to this paradigm, pupils construct their knowledge and through this construction they learn as well as they construct, in the same time, their competences and their attitudes, that is: to know, to know how to do, to know how to be.

In this perspective, knowledge as a construction of meanings is characterized by the interaction of three polarities which refers to the context within which the relations with the learning area are formed; to the collaboration which instead concerns then relation with the other members of the community of learning; to the construction which, in the end, consist into activating the modalities of reflection and negotiations.

DISCUSSION ABOUT METHOD

The Cooperative Learning (CL) moves in this direction, since it can be defined a teaching/learning methodology which involves the structuring and restructuring of the class into cooperative groups.

After spread throughout American schools, in the sixties of last century, it has been part of the Italian school context since the end of the eighties.

In didactical terms, the CL is above all a method opposing to the traditional view of teaching to pupils and is concretely a set of techniques of conducting the class in which pupils work in small groups of learning activities and get assessment on the basis of the achieved results. Secondly, the CL express itself within a precise orientation choose in favour of the activity promoted by pupils, therefore it can be defined a strategy with a social mediation, opposed to the others aiming to the teacher's mediation (Felisatti, 2006, p. 117).

The conceptual fabric on which the CL is rooted can be traced in some guidance-ideas common to arious educational-psychology theories, which, re-examined from a socio-constructivist point of view, assert that learning is influenced in a manner that cannot be disregarded, by the context within which it takes place and by the interactions which are carried out in it.

One of the first perspective which indicates the centrality of the social interaction role in learning is linked to the Piaget's concept according to which the interaction among equals, by promoting turbulent socio-cognitive situations, simulates into the subjects the attempt to construct new interpretations of reality, able to get over the conflicts and the contrasts (Piaget 1974). As Dewey asserts " implicitly in the class and at school, as in the society, the permitted or forbidden actions, the possibility of discovery, the beliefs of who conducts or manages the context through resources and restrictions, influence the formation of mental and emotional dispositions, of attitudes such as the participation and the democracy, the creativity and the (J. Dewey, 1922).

In learning, the central role of social interaction is also present in the concept of proximate development zone proposed by Vyigotskij according to: the social interaction can have a function of which its own since a more expert subject, through an action defined "scaffolding", can be as a guide, for beginner, in facing a problem (Vyigotskij, 1974).

The concept of a guided participation to the community practices, as a privileged path for the development and the learning of the individual is present in the point of view of Rogoff, who asserts that an educational modality like that is rooted in all cultural contexts within which adults take care of children (B. Rogoff, 1990).

From a contextual point of view, the social interaction becomes a support for learning, when the context where it takes place is structured by following the condition of positive inter-dependence defined by Lewin and Deutsch's research (1948-1949).

On the base of these conceptual knots, the CL is already to be considered a context where the perspective of intercultural pedagogy are expressed.

The features which distinguish it are, in fact, already able to narrate the principles which by analogy are at the basis of the intercultural education. In this sense, the intercultural pedagogy aims to delineate the best strategies from the organizational point of view as well as the purposes, in order that the subjects who refer to different origins and cultures may learn how to communicate among them leaving language, behaviours, cultures and beliefs apart (E. Pellerani, 2007).

From this point of view it is possible to cannot the term CL as a "mantle" term used to provide a twofold meaning used for beliefs: on the one hand a pedagogical meaning, which concerns the philosophy of cooperation and the appreciation of individual differences; on the other hand a didactic one, which considers a whole of methodologies of knowledges achieved cooperatively and pluralistically constructed around the work of pupils organized in groups. These pupils, in fact, work together in sufficiently small and etherogeneous groups so that everyone can take actively part into the carrying out of the tasks assigned by the teacher (E. Cohen, 2/1992, p.4).

On this subject, we'd better highlight that the CL is above all a whole of educational principles which proposes a richer complexity than a simple utilization of groups in the daily school practice, and, as we have said in advance, it is not a learning theory or a teaching theory, but a method and a theory which originates a formative pattern and a whole of working techniques.

The CL is a whole of educative perspective, define the way the students can adopt in order to learn reciprocally while working together in the carrying out of school works (Hijzen, Boekaerts, Vedder, 2006).

On the basis of these principles, the CL has carried out a whole of class organization techniques by which situations are generated in which groups of students work together as a team, in order to face a task, solve a problem or develop a common competence (Artz, Newman, 1990).

In this way, that is by inviting the students to work in group and as a group, the CL simulated a cognitive and social development. From this point of view, of reciprocal sharing of their knowledge and working for a common objective, the students benefit from the knowledge distributed in the group, where the competence of a student compensates for the deficit of the other and everyone improves his/her preparation (Hargraves,1994; Kagan, 2000).

The CL gives to the interpersonal relation a strategic function which is so intense that it becomes the fulcrum around which all other learning variables, as the motivation, cognitive processes, class organization and evaluation revolve.

In order that the CL may represent a successful experience, it's necessary that:

- The students think that the cooperation is efficacious and they feel, as a consequence, responsible of their work within the group, and aware of the competences to be used, as well as the necessity of developing them;
- the teachers share with the students, the responsibility of development of these competences, in the learning context.

With regard to that, the teacher's role, in the CL, finds expression into four main actions such as: the activities project, the learning context management, the competences and the work group assessment, the consolidation and the individual assessment of the specific competences through opportune formative paths which have to occur in different phases of the teachers' professional lives.

In the field, the point of reference which are important in the organization of this formation refer to the cognitive apprenticeship (Collins, Brown, Newman, 1995) on the basis of which, teachers can personally experiment with modalities of CL under the supervision of expert, and then reflect on their utilization at school; and on the institution of a research community on the basis of which teachers are included to rethink of themselves as a community of researchers, oriented into the development of new patterns of CL and new techniques for the class activities organization.

Working according this modality implies a remarkable change in the way teacher operate in the class. They, in fact, do not play anymore, thanks to this methodology, the main guidance role during the lesson, insofar as the guidance carries out in various learning and self-regulated work centres corresponding to single groups where collective planning are created, derived from a multidirectional communication and mutual help forms.

In spite of all that, the teacher does not lose his/her leading role, according to Lewin (1948) or rather he is an essential point of reference for the group's objectives realization, as well as the promoter of the positive interdependence. In this sense, the author defines the teacher as a democratic and directorial leader since she/he discusses the decision referend to the activities with the groups. Encourages the communication, the members participation to the school life, and more over creates the conditions in order that the pupils' tasks may be qualitatively effective.

The conflict are regulated by the teacher her/himself, negotiated by pupils and capable to promote the development of social knowledge and abilities.

The teacher is not only ready to help, he also fixes the fundamental rules, controls and evaluates the carrying out of the task and the learning levels.

The teacher's role is therefore essential for the promotion of the individual and social dynamics and a positive learning atmosphere.

In other terms a work group can be successful not only when its members are bond together by an interdependent relationship, but even when they manifest their pleasure to work together, by knowing the others' and their own qualities and flaws, by the reciprocal appreciation and by bringing out own's abilities, encouraging one another in the moments of difficulty; these are the behaviours which promote the achievement of common aims. Following these directions, the difference between group work and cooperative work can be identified in the modality by which the condition for activating the cooperation are constructed.

In the most ordinary organization of group work with the class is generally associated to the behaviours of positive interaction between pupils, founded on the basis of mutual help concept, of collaboration, of respect that the teacher encourages. In the cooperative organization of the lesson, pupils are stimulated by an opportune work planning concerning the groups and in other circumstances explicitly indicated through specific formative paths. As a consequence, in order to carry out a CL activity and not simple group works, one needs to create specific organizing condition, that have been described by Johnson and Johnson, in five planning criteria, and are still considered particularly effective in order to create a context of cooperative learning. They are:

- Positive interdependence;
- Individual and collective responsibility;
- Promotional interaction face-to-face;
- Teaching and use of social competences;
- Group assessment.

The positive interdependence is one of the main elements at the basis of the cooperative didactics.

M. Deutsch and K. Lewin define this concept as follows: the group is a dynamic whole with a structure of its own, peculiar aims and particular relations; that means that a changing in one of its parts concerns the other parts. The group interdependence is every member's consciousness to be related to the others, and to depend on them to achieve a common objective.

This relationship is positive when there is cooperation and bond connecting the individuals, become a factor which encourages everyone's development. From this point of view, the inefficacious actions promote a compensation action into the others, which reduces the negative effects and prevents their repetition.

On the other hand, the effective actions cause a positive psychological involvement and stimulate motivation and participation. The success of the single individuals becomes the success of all individuals, whereas the failure of one member contributes to the everybody's failure. That's why "the positive interdependences promotes communication, help, information exchange, acceptance, since everyone can offer one own's resources and is fully aware that his contribution is important for the common success" (M. Comoglio, A.M. Cardoso, 1996).

From this point of view, the group members predispose, create and promote the conditions which allow the individual to achieve abilities which are hard to achieve on one's own. The individual and group responsibility relates to the danger, often present in traditional groups, to take responsibility away from single members. In cooperative work, the group is responsible of the achievement of its objectives but each member must be responsible as far as he/she is concerned and for the whole group.

It would be deleterious, in fact, as well as counter-productive for the group's activity and for the individual themselves if the group dimension became the place where somebody hides her/himself or exploits other people's work to cover his/her inactivity. It is visual, in fact, that in a group-work organization, some dynamics characterized by delegation mechanisms are generate by some students.

They are usually delegation workings operated by less and motivate students in favour of other and more clever students. In this way, however, the group, exploiting the students who dedicate themselves to work and crushing the ones who are successful, is transformed from a resources to an instrument which damages both the most gifted pupils, who will commit themselves less, and the least gifted ones, that, on turns, will not catch the opportunity of learning.

To avoid this eventuality, Kagan (1986) sets out the two principles which are to be applied to the group work organization and which correspond to the highest level of participation possible by everyone and to an equal level of participation by everyone. If the first principle insist on the importance of the highest level of commitment and involvement, and of participation of the members, to avoid undesirable phenomena such as the loss of resources, the slowness of work.

The second insist on the importance of everybody's participation with the same vigour in the common work.

The CL can foresee, therefore, a crucial variable for this accomplishment. Represented by development of students' sense of responsibility in the carrying out of group objectives, it is realized by the individual assignment of a different and precise role. Thanks to this assignment, it is possible to promote the assumption of responsibilities facing the task. Not with standing, it is not a question of being responsible only of one own's role but also of stimulating one own's mates to assume the responsibility of their own's tasks.

It is right to tell that the choose to introduce the roles into the group can have a double value. On one hand, it allows an evaluation of the single member's work and of his responsibility, on the other hand it allows a group assessment for the work outcome and therefore the achievement of the foreseen objective.

The aim of the cooperative learning groups is, in fact, that of reinforcing the individual competence of every member too, insofar as the students learn together and then singly provide better performances.

When the sense of responsibility develops the cooperative situation turns into an experience which is an occasion for personal growing, for expressing one own's originality. A possibility to unite one own's efforts with those of the other people to achieve better result than the ones one could achieve acting on his own.

The promotional interaction face-to-face, also defined direct constructive interaction, develops "vis-à-vis" and aims to increase the reciprocal knowledge among the members of group and favour a pleasant atmosphere. One which allows everybody to feel at ease and comfortable in that group.

Since it is right that the groups work in a learning community, the creation of a pleasant class atmosphere is the first objective which a teacher must have at heart when she/he wants to introduce a cooperative learning experience with her/his students. A good atmosphere is realized by the assistance, the openness and the reciprocal knowledge, the recognition of the others' competences and qualities, the sense of confidence and dependence towards the partners and is fostered by behaviours through which the group's members express deep feeling of esteem, respect and reciprocal acceptance.

Therefore, it requires a long time for its construction, but it can be distributed with little: it is a very frail and precarious condition which can be easily altered even by the slightest reactions of defense, lacking of communication antagonism and rivalry. The atmosphere can be thought as a condition which is distributed on various organizing levels in which different levels of attention are established in order to facilitate the common commitment promoting attitudes and condition of encouragement esteem, confidence, acceptance, communication and collaboration.

We can adopt a distinction among a school atmosphere, a class atmosphere and a group atmosphere. They enjoy a certain autonomy but there are some connections among them which assure support and development.

To promote a condition of constructive direct interaction implies that the teacher aims to favour the development into students of the awareness of the importance of the mutual help for achieving the objective, through various levels of helpfulness: to help and to be helped, to support one other, to encourage and improve one other, to accept constructive criticism, supply feedback on the procedure (Felisatti, 2006, p.131).

In this sense, we can affirm that the promotional interaction face-to-face, in the introductory phases of the CL, is to be promoted before starting the work on the objective to achieve and before introducing the utilizable structures of positive interdependence.

The teaching and the use of the social competence are fundamental for an effective and a positive interaction in groups, since they meet the working requirements of the group. In this perspective, they have been defined as an integrated system of cognitive function and verbal and non verbal behaviours activated by an individual when he interacts with the other people (Cacciamani, 2008).

Johnson, Johnson and Holubec divide them into two groups: those aiming to conduct an effective interpersonal relationship, and the ones linked to the cooperative group work.

The first ones can be defined relational basic competences. They concern:

- The reciprocal knowledge and confidence;
- The clear and accurate communication;
- The mutual acceptance and support;
- The solution of the conflicts.

To know and to trust the other people are the basic elements which favour the emerging of the students' willingness to cooperate and avoid the risk that the least gifted students are excluded, they are just represented by a reciprocal knowledge and by the development of a climate of confidence. To communicate clearly and accurately instead, implies the capability to express one's own thought effectively, and to be able to listen to the other's thought is a fundamental aspect for arriving to a shared comprehension of the themes which are to be faced, and for getting ready for the adoption of new and negotiated work strategies (Cacciamani, 2008). To accept and to support one another are the crucial elements which create a good climate, a context culture at the basis of the direct constructive interaction principle. They are represented by the capacity to recognize the problematic aspects of the relation and to accept them, to ask for help without embarrassment and to help without taking the other's place. To solve the conflicts refers to the datum of group activity, since in it some conflicts of a socio-cognitive or relational nature can require opportune listening modalities, from the point of view of the other and negotiation of the solutions. The competences of group cooperation instead are divided into:

- Competences for the formation and the starting off of the group;
- Competences of functioning;
- Competences of learning;
- Competences of stimulus for the meta-cognitive reflection.

The competences for the group's formation and starting off are "necessary for the starting off of the CL group's formation, in the most effective way, as, for example, to move noiselessly to form the group or to speak softly, or to avoid waste of time" (Cacciamani, 2008, p. 40).

The competences for the functioning of the group are those which allow the organization and the carrying out of the task and the maintenance of efficacious work relations among the members, such as the recapitulation of the assigned tasks, the common strategy planning, the group work guidance, at a given point, the recording of the decision taken. The learning competences allow a shared comprehension of the contents which are the object of study, the promotion of strategies, the strengthening of content's mastery and memorization, objects of the common work.

The competences of stimulus to the meta-cognitive reflection concern the promotion of the reflection on the work strategies effectiveness used by the group, the critical discussion, the search for further solutions to problems and the transfer of strategies to new context (Cacciamani, 2008).

In the cooperative learning groups, students have to learn the contents of school subjects as well as the interpersonal abilities and those of a small group to operate profitably, everyone as part of the group.

The CL is in itself complex, since students have to look after their task, and the same time, the group work. The group's members must be able to play efficacious-a-guidance role, to make decision, to create a climate of confidence, to communicate, to control the conflicts and to be motivated in using the requested skills. These social abilities, moreover, are to be taught with the same consciousness and accuracy than school abilities.

In effect, at school, the cooperative interaction requires a specific learning training, to be united to activities of utilization of the formative contents, and cognitive strategies useful for the organization of the knowledge which has been dealt with. For this reason, the social competences can be also defined capacities to organizing cognition and behavior in action, whose social effects are recognized on the cultural and interpersonal level.

The research in this field has identified some constitutive elements of social competences:

- A cognitive component concerning one's own knowledge and its utilization as regards to the objective to achieve;
- A verbal and non-verbal behavior component, linked to the modalities of communication;
- A motivational, pro-social component in view of the objective to achieve;
- A meta-cognitive component which is able to activate the reflection on the processes "in fieri" or those which have been achieved (Felisatti, 2006, p.133).

The CL does not suppose that the members of a cooperative group have already these competences; it starts from the idea that the group work encourages their acquisition, above all after a careful examination (Comoglio, Cardoso, 1996).

That is why the social competences are gradually acquired, and require positive models of reference as well as their accomplishment. In this sense, the inclusion of students who have not any social competences into a group and the request of their cooperation, is not a guarantee in itself of their ability in doing that effectively. On this purpose, the teacher not only must promote into students the development of basic relational competences and of cooperative competences aiming to an effective collaboration, but she/his must also motivate them to their utilization.

The group assessment (or evaluation) can be considered, in the field of the CL, a co-evaluation since spaces of confrontation between the student's self-assessment and the teacher's assessment are forecast.

In these terms, the cognitive responsibility of the students carries out firstly by the engagement in the development of the evaluation criteria; this is an important element, since students generally do not know the elements which characterize their performances (Cacciamani, 2008). Moreover, students take part in the decision-making process about the validity of a product or its efficacy, rather than to depend exclusively and passively from the expert adult's judgement.

The confrontation between the assessment of the students and the assessment of the teacher is therefore fundamental since it allows the pupils to learn the more refined way for the evaluation of their product and their strategies. Thanks to the awareness of the necessity of their engagement students can use the formative role of evaluation in order to construct paths of progressive improvement of their learning. Finally, as regards to the work modality evaluation, the CL provides for spaces and modality for the revision of work, in order to allow a continue improvement of the strategie used by the group and the social competences which are put into practice. Given the complexity of the factors which come into play in the cooperative activity, two effective modalities of group revision must be taken into account: the monitoring and the processing (Cacciamani, 2008).

The former is used in the progress of work; the latter is used at the conclusion of the process.

Monitoring is based on the collection of information through the observation which takes place during the group work. In this phase, the teacher must determine the aim of the observation and the person who will be the observer, who might be the teacher her/himself or a student from the group, or a person outside the group. Moreover, the most suitable modality of observation must be chosen, either free or structured. The free observation is orientated into the recognition of the most significant elements of the group without resorting to grids: the observer's attention is guided by elements which emerge spontaneously from the context. The structured observation, instead, provides for the utilization of observation grids which have pre-defined categories of behavior to observe.

The processing, instead, indicates the feedback, attributed to the class after a work session, therefore it indicates a revision or a work reflection assigned to a group. In order to give efficacy to this form of revision, the focus of attention must not be put on the subjects but on the concrete objects such as the behavior and the way of working.

In this phase, students and teachers must linger on the description of what has been done concretely, without judgements and interpretations.

The objective of this phase is that of improving the work of the group's members and support their engagement; therefore the discussion must arrive at concrete decisions, shared with all the group.

It is useful to find a form of recording of the progress achieved in regard to the previous meeting. To be effective, the duration of the revision phase must be limited to short times. The processing, moreover, can develop by utilizing the observations in the monitoring, in a group discussion, or just through the group discussion (Cacciamani, 2006, p.44).

The work scheme of processing provides for three more phases:

- A feedback on the evaluation object, concerning strategies or social competences;
- A reflection on this feedback;
- The recognition of the aims for improvement which are to be pursued in the immediate future.

We think it right to remember that evaluation carried out at the end of a work-group depends notably from the quality of monitoring realized in "itinere". Moreover, the interdependence between the two forms of evaluation, the individual evaluation and the group evaluation, promotes a greater collaboration among the students and supports the helping process toward those who are most in troubles; on the whole the evaluation cannot be

exempted from the consideration of the development levels of the single individual or of the group at the synchronic and diachronic level.

In the group evaluation, the members discuss and verify their progress towards the achievement of the objectives and the efficacy of their work relationship. The groups must identify and describe what actions of the members have been positive or negative and decide what kinds a behavior must be maintained or modified. In order to improve progressively the learning process, the modalities of the collective group work and the possibility of improving its efficacy, must be carefully analyzed.

The contribution of all subjects must converge:

The pupil, the peers the teacher, who all have contributed to the learning progress; in conclusion, it is useful to remember that the realization of a CL gains efficacy through the disciplined action.

The five base-elements are not only the features of a good group of CL, they are also the principles to be applied rigorously to obtain an efficacious collaborative action.

In these terms, the CL techniques put the students of different ethnic groups into cooperative groups, in which each member is given a role on equal terms to help the group itself to achieve its aims. In this way, through the utilization of the CL the recovery of the ethical dimension of education is attained. In the cooperative work, it is easy to recognize categories which are traditionally absent from the frontal didactic process such as: the participation of the student in his learning process; the responsibility towards it own student work and also towards his mates; the reflection on his acting endowed with sense and on his student role, the sharing of his ideas, information, data, materials, his taking care of the others.

These categories tend to the reinforcement the didactic models founded on the structured work-group and on the team. Their application, in fact, strengthens the productivity of work, the student's identity and self esteem, as well as the altruism and the recognition of the other and the different. The elaboration of cognitive objectives in team produces cognitive abilities of a superior nature and, which is much more important at the beginning of the 3rd millennium, some social abilities which are more and more appreciated in social and work context.

These abilities, defined "social skills" concern; communication; problem-solving; decision; confidence; conflict resolution; leadership; group learning and inter-ethnic relations. The last skill constitutes an interesting point in favour of the cooperative group work, since it allow to lend oneself ideally to the process of acceptance and integration of the foreign pupils in the class group. With regard to that, a number of researcher, has highlighted that the students educated in cooperative learning context, have achieved not only an improvement in the strictly academic field, but they have changed their attitude towards the various ethnic groups, they have become more "pro-social".

Moreover, these researches have put in evidence another important result attainable by using the cooperative work and refer to the improvement into the proficiency of the minorities' pupils, in the cooperative classes. The researches led by John Hopkins group, in Baltimore, still unsurpassed, state the superiority of the group learning for the overcoming of racial prejudices in school setting (Chiari, 2011).

The reasons for this superiority, in particular as concerns the pupils of social disadvantaged minorities, ethnic and linguistic, are to be attributed to the differences existing in the academic task nature, in the structure of the recompense given to students, in the teacher's role, and in the cultural compatibility encouraged by the cooperative climate to which everybody contributes most of the researches which have studied the relations in the class open to the various groups as a function of the interaction and help towards the group-mates have recorded a general positive evaluation, recognizing that the CL promotes the inter-ethnic contacts.

That is made possible by a democratic management of the class based on heterogeneous and constructive work groups, on the positive interdependence of roles and on equal chances of success for everyone.

Therefore the task of school is teaching the complex art of a cooperative living together, through a monitored path able to develop everybody's talents, in the view of the group's enrichment.

The fundamental aim of the CL is therefore, the increase of cognitive processes and of social competences, in a non-competitive context, which is, moreover, responsible and collaborative.

The education towards a capacity of collaborative learning is very relevant in our complex society, where the individual work, not anymore sufficient, operates in a climate of interdependence in every social field.

The motivational, cognitive and social theories agree upon, the recognition that only in the cooperative learning structure, the efforts centred on every pupil's objective contribute to the achievement of the aims also by the mates.

Each student wishes that her/his mates do well, for the possible relapses on the common work, and adopt a "pro-social" attitude which will probably tend to spread. Therefore, the CL means working together to achieve common objectives, either didactic or social, and operating in a context where every pupil, as the one who lives a difficult condition or is member of a ethnic minority, perceives the importance of her/his contribution. The reciprocal help and the interdependence, as cohesion agents, have a remarkable role, since working together, learning through cognitive conflicts, recognizing that the to individual success corresponds the collective success, have positive aspects.

The CL must have the following effects: the recovery of the students who are not motivated and have social, affective and cognitive problems; the integration of the maladjusted and disable students, with the contemporaneous enhancement of the good pupils, thanks to the development of social skills, public spirit, respect for the others, participation, responsibility and interdependence.

MATERIALS OF METHOD

On this purpose, the CL utilizes the following models:

- The Jigsaw Model; The TGT; The STAD, The Learning Together and The Small Group Teaching Method. The first three models are defined methods of peer-tutoring, the other two are defined group-investigation (G-I) approaches. In the classification operated by S Sharan, the experimentations done with the two groups of methods are referred to their effects on:

- Academic achievements that is the cognitive and socio-relational aspects of learning, referred to the scholastic proficiency;

- Attitudes, that is the students' attitudes;

- Ethnic relations that is the ethnic relations in the desegregated classes, where the ethnic-racial segregation was abolished.

On the basis of Sharan's classification, peer-touring techniques maintain many forms of traditional education characterized by the whole class, such as:

- The emphasis on the information and basic abilities acquisition thanks to the materials presented by the teacher and the pupil review;

- The individual report by means of test or other more equalitarian means of evaluation;

- The scarce or absent open discussion about ideas, since everything is based on the content, even if the peer-tutoring tends to improve considerably the bilateral communication.

The peer-touring class can turn from the aggregation of individuals, as in the education of the whole class, into aggregation of groups (Chiari, 2011).

Nevertheless, neither the groups nor the whole class have a collective academic objective and so peer-touring methods do not apply the cooperation in the aims, and do not define the learning objectives.

The corollary of this approach is that all the groups in the class are engaged in the same task, that is to see again the same materials presented by the teacher. The groups can compete for the recompense, but they have no reason the coordinating their work. As a consequences, the class has not an emergent function as a social unit and does not produce any products apart from the one realized by a common team (Chiari, 2011).

The G-I model works differently. It is centred on the fact that the students collect information from a large spectre of sources, in collaboration with their school fellows. The learning tasks are relatively complex, including cognitive process of superior level, among which we find the selection and the critical interpretation of information, the problem solving and the production of a collective synthesis of ideas.

This model utilizes the assignment of roles into the groups and among the groups, so that the single pupil may contribute to the creation of unique products for the integration into the common group project, and in teams, can explore various aspects of one or more subjects.

The student team learning, elaborated by Robert Slavin, from John Hopkins University of Baltimora, is based, instead, on three main elements:

- The reward for everybody;

- The individual responsibility for oneself and for the others;

- The same chances of success for everybody.

On the basis of these propositions the S.T.L. differs for five techniques, applicable to each level of school: the Student Team Achievement Division (STAD), the Teams-Games-Tournament (TGT), the Jigsaw, the Team Assisted Individualization (TAI) and the cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition (CIRC).

The STAD model is applicable to any school content, and in its experimentations, proved efficacious both for the disciplinary contents learning and the solution of problem on a relational level, as the inclusion cultures into the class (Cacciamani, 2008).

The application of the STAD consist in the following sequences:

1) The presentation of a new subject-theme by the teacher, through a brief lesson: the STAD moves from the weekly presentation of a subject of study. After tracing together with the class the knowledge in possession of the students.

The teacher explains the new subject through a lesson. By means of causal question, the teacher evaluates the comprehension of the students as regard the presented subject-theme and makes explicit to the class the following phases of the work, which will be carried out by groups of four or five members.

2) The formation of groups for which “it is important to consider the criterion of the heterogeneity of the competence levels referred to the task, since the integration of the various levels allows the improvement of learning and encourages the sharing of the individual resources” (Cacciamani, 2008, p.47).

The duration of the group work is of one or two lessons at most and students must assimilate the contents presented and take care of whom is in trouble.

3 – the work group or mastering implies that within the group in pairs students ask questions and discuss with the help of work sheets which can require a synthesis of the subject theme the construction of a semantic map, the realization of tables or exercises. Through the reciprocal questioning, learning is checked “in itinere”; at the end of work, all the group’s members must have achieved a complete mastering of the object of study.

4 – the check tests concern the individual verification which takes place through the work itself and lasts half an hour; students are not allowed to interact. In fact, in this phase, everyone must test the accuracy of this learning and feel responsible of it. The correction of the tests can be done by the teacher or by pupils’ interchanging. A score is assigned on the basis of the correct answers and the wrong answers and each pupil is evaluated according his/her improvement in comparison with a preceding evaluation, based on the same content in which a base-score has been previously established.

5 – group rewards and evaluations on the individual improvement concern the utilization to base – scores which point out the initial level of competence of every student, as regard the object of study. That allows a group and an individual evaluation based on personal competence rather than on the confrontation with others. Every subject gets a score indicating the improvement of competence compared with one’s own base-score; all the group’s improvements are added up in order to get the group score, also considered according the number of the members, through conversation tables. Finally, a list of the groups is drafted on the bases of improvement score obtained and the teacher cares for bringing out the results, through the class newsletter for example.

Giving publicity to the results achieved by the groups is the rewarding element, which has a function of reinforcement. This assessment modality intends to structure a competition among groups that, according Slavin, should stimulate a cooperative behavior among groups, orientated to encourage the competences of every member to realize an increment in the group’s score.

In this CL technique, the emphasis is on the survey of the materials’ taught by the teacher through the assistance of the school fellows and on the distribution of the recompenses to the group’s members, through a recording system carried out by the teacher which excludes the face to face competition among students.

The teacher assigns the students to one of the various achievement divisions, based on a “equal status achievement membership”, considering the results previously achieved. The important thing is the recording of the scores obtained by every pupil in the various tests repeated for a given subject-matter, in order to evaluate the improvement (or not) and construct the criterion for the assignment of improvement points.

The score of each student on weekly tests are confronted only with the ones of one’s own group (division members). That increases the motivation and every one’s changes of a high score. The STAD, finally, requires an highly structured card of didactic activities and relative tests and quizzes (Chiari, 2011, p. 34).

The cycle is carried out twice a week:

- brief lesson: forty minutes of reading;
- discussion: discussion teacher/student;
- mastering: forty minutes of group study on work sheets;
- testing: a twenty minutes quiz.

The model TGT is similar to the STAD. It shares with the initial explanation of the teacher, the formation of heterogeneous starting groups and a period of group work learning. The student are assigned by the teacher to 4-5 members groups. The composition of the groups intends to reflect a transversal section of the class’ levels of academic ability and represents the social levels and the ethnic groups as well as both the genres (Chiari, 2011).

The function of these group is that to prepare their members, through a peer tutoring, to take part into a fair tournament – learning play, repeating the materials previously presented by the teacher.

These particular activities, the “tournament” of school plays, are based on questions about the contents of the lesson, in which a representative of each group takes part, competing with other representatives of the same level of competence. The learning groups work for six weeks in a row and their activity aims to the acquisition of the knowledge which is the object of the plays. Every week students are divided into tournament tables, composed of three participant: the assignment to the tournament tables, therefore, puts together three students of the same competence (comparable academic achievement) as it results from previous tests of the same disciplinary area (Chiari, 2011).

A tournament usually ends after 40 minutes and consists in questions with brief answers related to curricular subjects. The material used in the TGT are the same utilized in the STAD but 30 numbered cards are added.

Every 3 students each containing a question relating to the studied subject matter.

“Every tournament table has a sheet with one with the answer and thirty cards marked by a number corresponding to the written questions. Once the numbered cards are shuffled, the first player chooses one at

random and reads the question in a loud voice, trying to answer correctly. Then the player on his left gives her/his answer; if she/he thinks that her/his friend's answer is incorrect if he/she renounces the third player can express her/his opinion. At the end of this phase, the third player reads in a loud voice the answer written on the sheet of the solutions. The one who has answered correctly can keep the numbered card. In the case of no right answers, the numbered card is put again into the pack, on the table. The game goes on until all cards are finished then the students sum up the scores and write down the total of the day. During the game, the teacher's task is that of moving among the groups and give help if the procedures are not clear" (Cacciamani, 2008, p. 48).

When the game is over the three contestants are put in gerarchic order and are assigned a score (the best of them gets 6 scores, the medium 4, the lowest 2). The group scores are obtained, then, summing up the single member's scores, each for every tournament table, creating a reward interdependence in the analysis group. The more the students help one another, the more the gaining of scores in the tournament is probable. At the end of every week, the game tables are changed on the basis of the score received in the preceding performance: the player with the highest score is promoted to a table of higher competence, the second remain at the same and the third recedes to the table with an inferior levels of competences. Every week the teacher presents a report on the scores received by the grouped express appreciation for the efforts of every member, underlining the progress in comparison with the previous week and through a classroom newsletter he/she announces everyone's situation in the class with the comments on the winner of each table.

While the composition of the tournament groups of the various table changes continually (a values overturning of the players, called dumping) after each tournament, according to the results of the various contests and the scores gained by the contestants, viceversa, the composition of the learning group, the base-groups, remains constant for a period which goes from 6 to 10 weeks, in order to develop heterogeneity in the levels of competence and positive relations (Chiari, 2011). The jigsaw model has three variables, called respectively I II and III. The first Jigsaw, the original version proposed by Elliott Aronson provides for four phases of work:

- 1) The contest preparation: the teaches introduces the subject-matter of study, divides the theme into under-subject which assigns to the students, with the textual work materials.
- 2) The base groups and requires an exploratory reading to the students.
- 3) The experts groups formation: they are formed by the students who have read the same part of didactic materials; they discuss on the contents of the material clearing up the less simple points.
- 4) Socialization of the knowledge in the base-groups: once the materials have been discussed and interiorized the experts come back to the former groups and everyone presents one's own undersubject to her/his school fellows sharing the acquired knowledge.

The Jigsaw II created by Slavin, as a variable of the original Jigsaw, overcomes an important limit of the latter: each student, in the first version of the technique risks to acquire completely only the first part of the content of which he must become expert, while she/he proves to be not much prepared on the remaining materials this further version, therefore, provides for the following five phases:

- 1) The context preparation: the variable consists in the fact that teacher also presents the evaluation tests under the form of questionnaire or written or oral report, proposed to the students at the end of the phase of the group-work.
- 2) Formation of base-groups: they are formed and in every group each student is given different parts of the materials of study, with the request of examining them individually; the experts-groups will be formed only when everybody will have read one's own part of text.
- 3) Experts groups formation: the students discuss and develop the materials assigned and focus on the central information of their part; the experts can elaborate some question in order to verify if their base-groups fellows have well understood the explanation which they will provide to them in the following phase.
- 4) Socialization of the knowledge in the base-groups: each students comes back to the starting point and explains the theme he dealt with, being very careful to do a clear exposition which everyone can comprehend thoroughly. At the end of the presentation, each expert proposes the questions to control if the exposition has been effective; otherwise, she/he will offer further explanations.
- 5) Individual evaluation test: it is the phase in which each student undergoes some tests which must be resolved without the help of the schoolfellows, for the control of the real and personal comprehension of all the materials presented during the group discussion. At the end of the test, the recognition of group is offered.

In the Jigsaw III the procedure is the same of Jigsaw II, enriched with a further intermediate phase, which follows the number 4 of version II, where students meet in the various initial base-groups, after a few weeks, to revise the subject and help one another on the obscure points in view of the individual final test, which represents the last phase of this technique (Cacciamani, 2008).

Beyond the technical aspect of the various versions, we can affirm that the Jigsaw provides an interesting alternative to the transmitting lesson by allowing the student to become the researcher in the phase of the experts and the teacher towards his/her school fellows.

In this way, the student not only learns but he even teaches helping the others to acquire information previously internalized. In the Jigsaw, every student plays an essential role, just at the piece of a puzzle (from which the name of the technique derives) for the global completion and comprehension (Cacciarni, 2008).

RESULTS

The experiment-model of the research inspected by S. Sharan on the result of the Jigsaw pattern is: pupils involved in the experiment varied from a minimum number of 120 to a maximum of 304, divided into groups of work, verification, discussion and feedback (Sharan, 1980).

All cooperative groups studied the same materials identically subdivided among the groups' members.

After receiving the information about the cards or document prepared in advance, the Jigsaw group separated temporarily to form new groups of "experts" including all the pupils which had received the same card or document. In these groups pupils helped one other to learn the materials and prepare their presentation to their group of origin. In this kind of model, pupils have a clear task to perform, defined by a number of information, and they have to teach what they have learned, which is a very effective motivational technique. "It is a good thing that also the jigsaw group are composed by a base of heterogeneity of achievement, genre, ethnic and sociometric background: anyway, neither the best friends nor the worts enemies should be together" (Sharan, 1980, p. 244).

Pupils of different ethnic/racial background (from 50/50 to 20/80) with 576 "experimental" teachers, took part into the experiment for 45 minutes a day, every day, for 2 or 3 weeks, with control-groups of classes (5/6) traditionally managed with the whole class the dependent variables were the achievement levels, obtained by a test of 37 items, including multiple-choice questions, of the kind true/false concorded by class teachers.

The results: they reported a remarkable advantage for the experimental group's pupils, belonging to the group of the ethnic minorities, but no disadvantage for the pupils of the whites' group. The 60 pupils of the minority group got 56% of correct answer (20.9 items) in the experimental group, in regard to 49.7 of percentage of correct answers (18.4) items in traditional classes.

We can concluded that the utilization of the CL can be considered efficacious not only on the level of scholastic success but even for the students personal wellbeing and the quality of their relationships.

On support of this conclusion, the effectiveness of the CL has been widely demonstrated by research, particularly by authors like David W. Johnson and Roger J. Johnson, who, working in the field of didactic method, have provided one of the most significant contributions to the development of the cooperative approach. In their numerous publications on this technique, one of which is called emblematically "Learning together and alone: cooperative, competitive and individualistic learning", they have led a complete analysis of hundreds' of researches on cooperative, competitive and individualistic work, particularly examining three aspects: committent and motivation in working, positive interpersonal relations and psychological wellbeing.

" The research shows that cooperation, in comparison with competitive and individualistic work, usually allows the achievement of the following results:

- Students achieve better results: all the students, of various learning abilities, work more and achieve better results; memorize better and for a longer time develop a greater intrinsic motivation, reflect more on the task and develop highest levels of reasoning and critical ability;
- More positive relations among the students: a team spirit, friendship and mutual support arise, the diversity is respected and appreciated, and the group works together well.
- A greater psychological well being: the psychological adaptation of the students is better as their sense of self-effectiveness, self-esteem and self-image; students develop social competences and the ability to face stress and difficulties.

Thanks to the great impact which the CL operates on so many aspects of students' school experience, this teaching method is one of the most important instruments of didactics (Johnson, Johnson, Holubec, 1999, pp.19-20).

Therefore, the CL promotes the attainment of a number of important goals, such as:

- Raising the level of all students, whatever they school result may be; constructing positive relations among the students, essential for the construction of a learning community which accept and respect the diversity;
- Provide the students with the experiences they need for a good cognitive, psychological and social development.

CONCLUSIONS

In this terms, assuming that the primary objective of the school formative action is that of give a form to the identity of a person, supporting the full development of the subjective potentialities, and assuming that the achievement of this objective implies the involvement of three factors, which at school must be of quality, that is

teaching, context and learning, we can affirm that CL can be considered an excellent formative process, in which the educational quality is in itself transforming (E. Becchi, 2000), since it assumes the co-presence of various subjects, since they have to confront different knowledge and point of view, these subjects, through the CL, learn to interact and negotiate, in order to unite the specificity of their individual needs with the perspective of a sustained growth on the social ground, that in its variety of cultures and ethnicities, through the CL, comes belong to everybody.

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Using the Integrated Management System and Approach SIPOC in higher education for the Evaluation and Improving the Quality of Life of students

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Abstract In industry, the quality can be guaranteed (insured) by compliance with the standards for organizational functioning, which are certain to come out identical products

In a field as higher education, the quality can be probably more approximated by the reachable goals that are in this context related to the university, faculty, students, enterprises, the Ministry, the strategy of the country

Students are certainly the first to benefit from a higher education of quality. But the notion of "customer"; from the first definitions of quality "Ability of a product or service to satisfy, at minimum cost and prompt the user needs. (ISO 9000 1982) "; cannot be limited to them. (2)

Thus the society is regarded as another major beneficiary of higher education of quality. (2)

It must provide answers to economic, intellectual, scientific and cultural expectations of the society (2).

Certainly, an outcome of higher education of "quality" can be completed only by combining several factors (7):

- The introduction of quality assurance tools: the self-assessment through internal audits, external evaluation, accreditation (in relation to an external guide such as ISO), and empowerment.

- Monitoring of an integrated management system: Process mapping of higher education activities; and their control indicators, the establishment of a documentary control system, the establishment of evaluation processes (audits ...), and the definition of continuous process improvement criteria.

And among the processes identified in the development of process mapping in higher education, the assessment process that could be the final phase of qualifying products (students) for the end user (Market of employment); and the ability of the product to meet a need expressed or implied could be a measure of performance of such a process, that qualifies as key performance indicators (KPI Key Performance Indicator) (3).

Thus, the introduction of performance indicators for the identified process will help the control vision for continuous improvement.

It is in this perspective that the proposed combination of the integrated management system approach with SIPOC (Supplier, Input, Process, Output, Customer) will ensure the needs of the management of the higher education system.

Thus, the student is the customer of his teacher, and the same vision is applied with respect to: <university, companies>, <teacher, institution administration> ...

Keywords: Integrated Management System, Six Sigma , Approach SIPOC

I. PRACTICAL ANALYSIS OF INTEGRATED MANAGEMENT SYSTEM IN HIGHER EDUCATION

1. Overview of IMS organization

The central body (ministry, the central committee of management of the sector ...) draws a roadmap that will be cascaded in different universities and declined to all institutions.

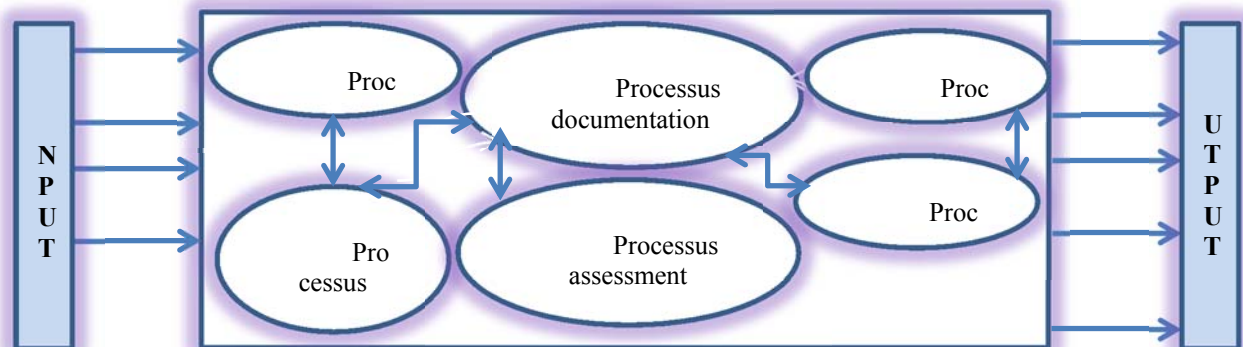


Diagram.1. System view of a higher education institution.

An institution of higher education is seen as a system in which lies a set of interrelated and organized elements, processes and activities.

The integrated management system is a coherent system integrating all organizational processes in a setting with a coordinated certification on quality, Information Security, health, security, and aspects of the risks associated with the environment.

Targets are set in a defined framework of rules and best practices to apply that allow better management, monitoring and evaluation of the performance level of higher education institutions. The achievement of objectives is pursued in a spirit of continuous improvement over time and priorities defined jointly between university, university steering committee and ministry. Evaluation rules are implemented through annual audits to assess progress and verify compliance with rules and standards.

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2. Missions

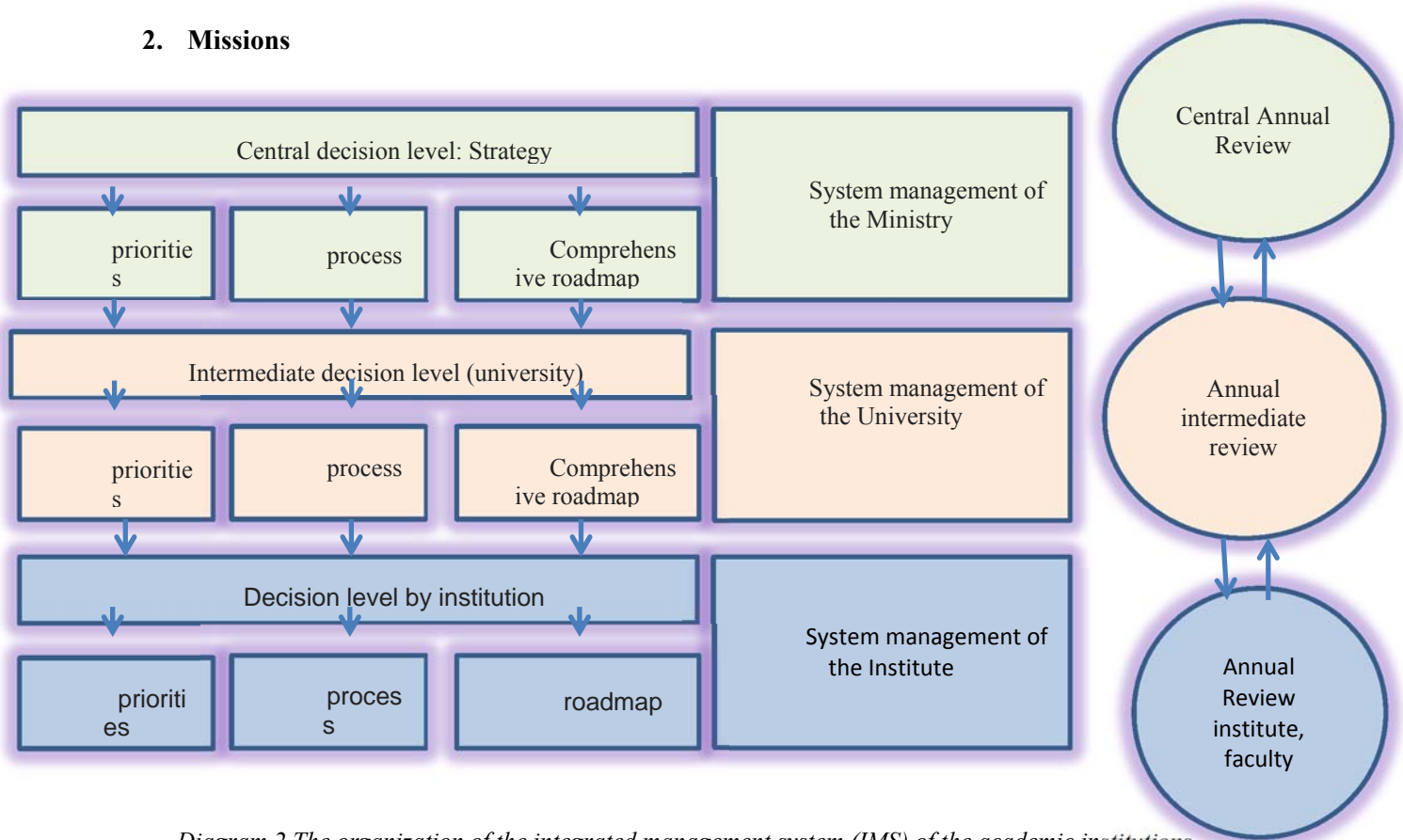


Diagram.2. The organization of the integrated management system (IMS) of the academic institutions

At the central decision-making level of the quality policy (ISO standards and best practices associated) is Defined by setting strategic objectives.

- At an intermediate decision level management review declined from the highest level and put in the form of Operational objectives.
- Internal audits are forms of assessment, which also resulted in other types of audit: Annual assessment of such Educational programs.
- At the policy level institution, educational policy can be defined by developing new methods of student assessment: self-assessment, peer assessment, assessment group.

II. PRACTICAL ANALYSIS OF INTEGRATED MANAGEMENT SYSTEM IN HIGHER EDUCATION

1. Process mapping

To identify the processes that makes up the system:

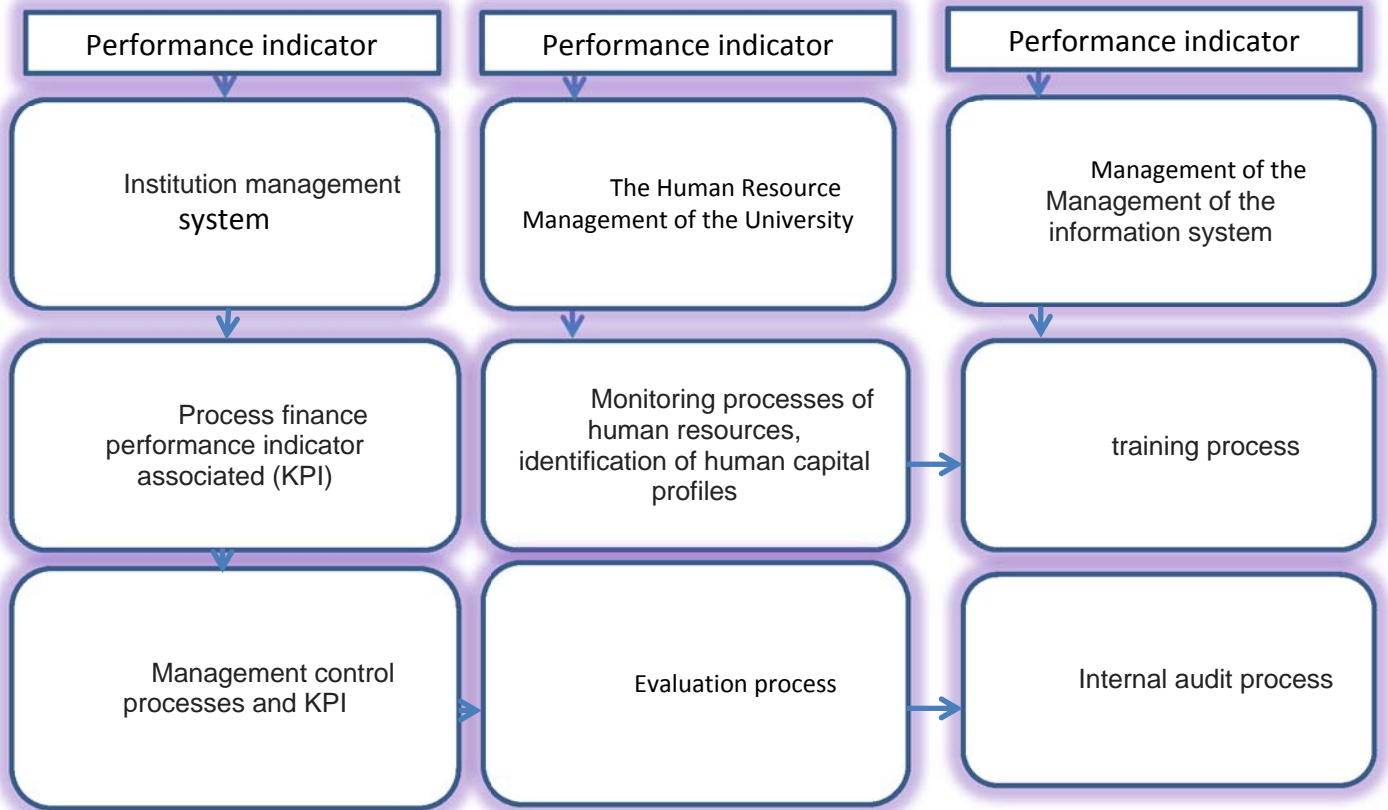


Diagram.3. Mapping process

2. Scorecard

Periodic assessment of the identified processes, their KPI, and decided action plan :

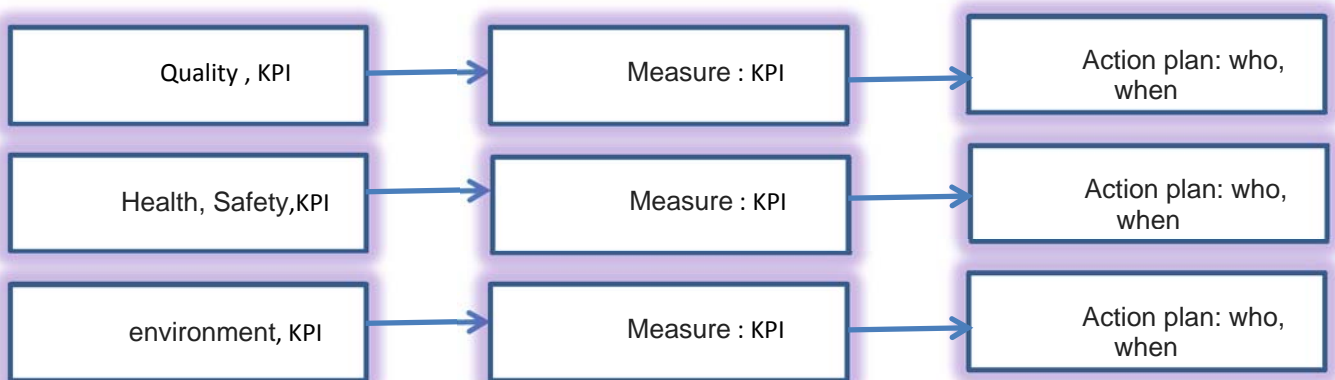


Diagram.4. Elements of the Balanced Scorecard

Process	efficiency quality	efficiency Health and Safety	efficiency environment	Remarks
Institute Management	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	-Improve Effective internal communication -Unifier Performance indicators
HR Management of the institute	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	- Incorporate a safety and environmental culture in all approaches
Training	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	- Review of training modules specified by economic operators
scientific Research	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	- Foster a climate of trust between the university and the economic operators

Diagram.5. Performance process identified

3. Internal audits

Internal audits within the university and higher education institutions; follow:

For each identified process, the approach will be evaluated (the management system and associated documents), its operational field deployment and control of the process (with the associated performance indicator:

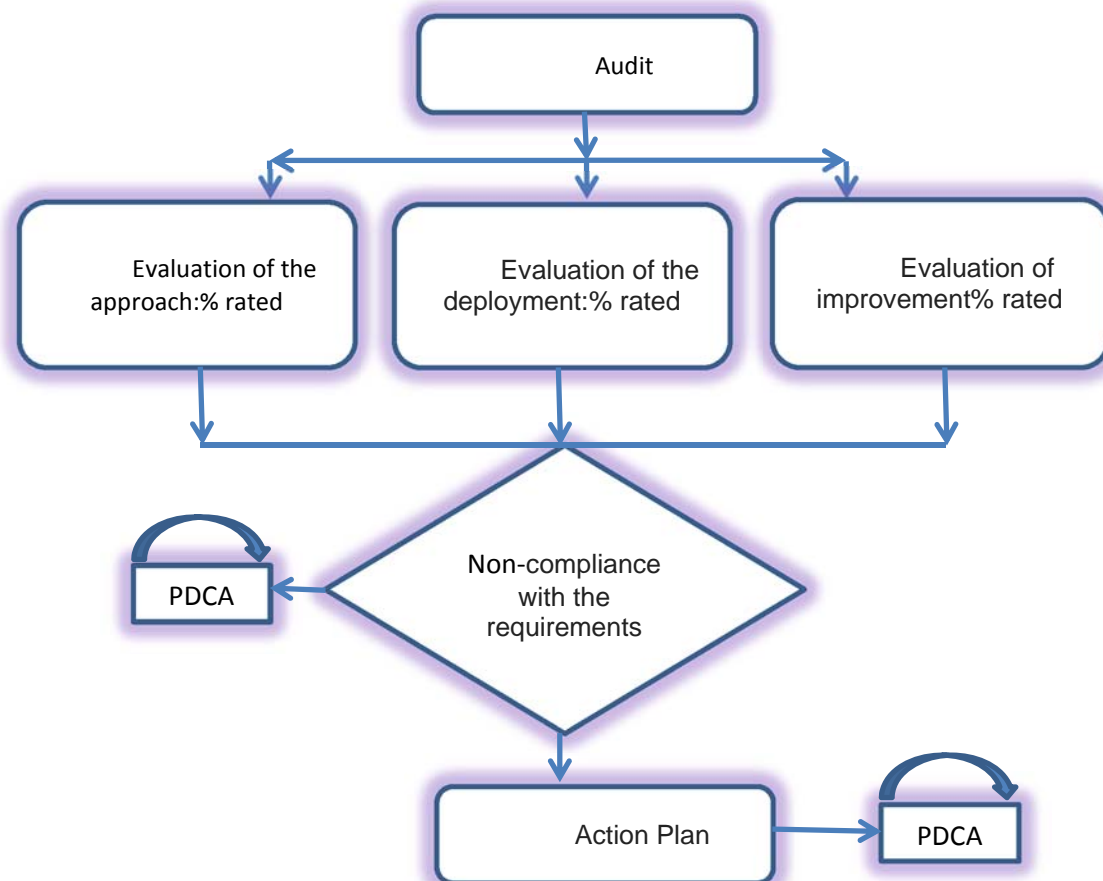


Diagram.6. Process audit (Overview of the evaluation)

Unidentified compliance will be subject to the action plan, identifying the area of improvement. The continuous improvement approach will be followed in both cases: to maintain performance and ensure the implementation of the defined action plan.

4. Document control system

-The Operating procedures should be documented, ensuring their updates, starting with management procedure of records.

- Set up a portal for sharing documents.

5. Risk management

The SIPOC approach identifies the link between higher education and the environment surrounding it, and the analysis of environmental impacts and aspects related to health and safety is an input at this as that the company's supplier in the SIPOC diagram.



Diagram.7. Definition of environmental impacts and aspects of health and safety

6. Identification of non-conformances, corrective actions and preventive improvement

The sight of overall assessment includes assessment of working methods, evaluation of the content of the training modules, assessment of adequacy "training / needs of the labor market," and evaluation students completing a training module.

Thus, the implementation of the actions of corrections, improvement or prevention, cannot be completed implementing a system that measures Non-compliance from these assessments (6).

III. PRACTICAL ANALYSIS OF SIPOC APPROACH

1. SIPOC Approach

The SIPOC provides a useful preparation for the detailed mapping of the process to be studied with reference to the results from the SMI.

SIPOC (1) means:

- S as SUPPLIER identifies the supplier or suppliers of the process to be studied (the teacher is a student's supplier, enterprises are suppliers of the institute or its Management Committee, the Dean is a supplier of its faculty ...)
- INPUT I as an inventory of the main steps of the process entries:

The load time of a module is an input, the profiles requested by economic operators is input, the description of jobs (job description) of the company is an input ...

- P as PROCESS, lists the steps, major operations of the process:

The training process, the learner assessment process, the overall evaluation process (internal audit)

- as OUTPUT, an inventory of the outputs of the main steps of the process:

The University provides statistics on its laureates, their training modules, skill levels ... for the economic operators.

- C as CUSTOMER identifies the intermediate or final customers:

The student is the institute customer, and the company is the academic institutions customer ...

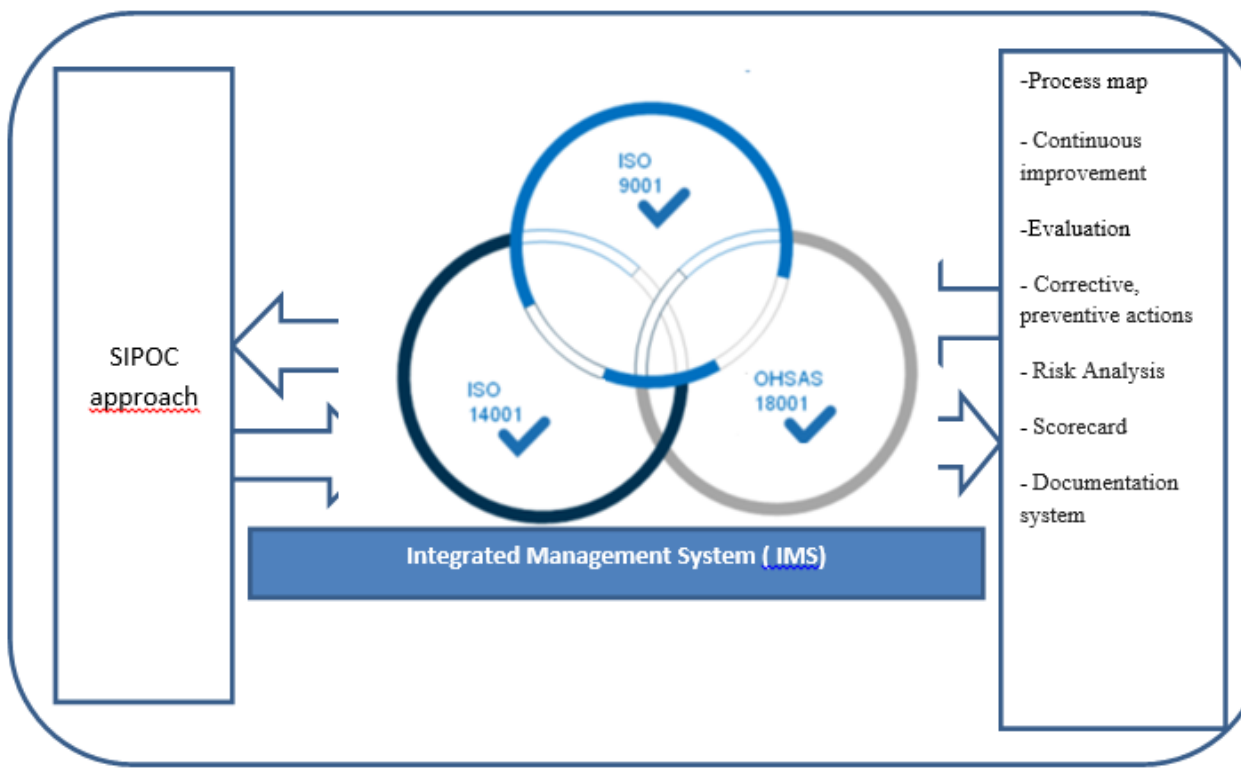


Diagram.8.SIPOC approach combined with driving integrated management system

In Six Sigma (Motorola trademark), the SIPOC is used to describe the business process which we want to improve the quality.

To this list of data, it is important to add the requirements of operations and the measurement means.

2. The use of SIPOC approach

The National Charter of Education and Training cites to "have the learner at the center of pedagogical action and developing a competency-based approach" to close the "gap" training / employment.

While these actions have a significant impact on the achievement of defined objectives, however they must be complemented by a clear definition of the interactions between all stakeholders in the education / training.

Thus, Having an effective educational program, an academic body of the first rank, and a proper training environment, does not in any way a higher education system that meets the expectations of society, whether these expectations are not identified.

3. Elements of evaluation

Following the approach proposed (SIPOC), the student is a recognized provider of the customer (the teacher); Professor Deliverables are listed in column (output), while the input elements are listed in the input column.

Supplier	Input	Process	Output	Customer
Professor (teacher)	Workload	Training process	overall satisfaction	Student
	Suitability : profile / taught modules	Process KPI		
	educational Facilities		Level of difficulty	
	Speech clarity, level (flow, articulation) :Teacher		During rhythm	
	The motivation of the teacher		Teacher's pace	
	Enrolment		Professor intelligibility	
	Number of groups			
University administration	faculty	Administration process	Satisfaction of being at university	Student
	governing body	Process KPI	Satisfaction of the university system: care and maintenance	
	Procedures		Access to the university library resources	
	Process map		Access to student residences	
			Degré de satisfaction des activités extra-pédagogiques	
			Listening center, social and psychological assistance	
			Equitable university procedures	
University administration	Procedures	HR management process	Satisfaction	Professor
	Faculty	KPI process	Access to resources for lesson preparation	
	Process map		Sense of security when teaching	
			Career development within the university	

Table.1.SIPOC Scheme applied to teacher, student, and university administration

SIPOC approach within the faculty and with its external stakeholders (society, companies, other domestic or foreign institutions ...)

Supplier	Input	Process	Output	Customer
Higher education institution	Skills expected by enterprises	Training	Declination of skills through training programs	Enterprises
	funding		Assessment system	
	Human capital		Number of hours	
			educational modules	

Table.2.SIPOC approach (company, institution of higher education)

The proposed approach can be applied to identify the interactions between professor of language and communication modules, the department of language and communication and the student.

Supplier	Input	Process	Output	Customer
Professor	French Language Module hourly load (60h)	Training	Upgrade module in French	Department of Language and Communication
	Hourly load methodology Module (40h)		Module: synthesis techniques and technical reformulation	
	Communication skills (24h)		Module: Taking notes	
	English Module (20h)		Module active listening	
			Time Management Module	
			Strengthening professional skills in language and communication	
			Technical module of meetings and reports	
			Resume, job interview	
			Presentation skills, public speaking	
			Staff development	
			Teamwork	

Table.3.SIPOC approach (Training Module Language and Communication)

Performance indicators to measure ownership and ensure continuous improvement in the language and communication department could be set up.

IV. THE REDESIGN OF THE ASSESSMENT BASED ON SMI AND SIPOC

1. Evaluation, overview

In an academic context, the evaluation is the step to ensure compliance or not the final product (the laureats) to predefined requirements, which can be translated from training / employment adequacy ratio.

However, the unary vision of evaluation as a test of learners is limited, since the process is interdependent with other processes.

In this article the evaluation is for a comprehensive, process evaluation of students to the overall assessment (internal audits); evaluation of devices and programs, and assessment of learning (5), teacher evaluation, student assessment and evaluation of the institution, and even the university evaluation.

Admittedly, these assessments will require definition of performance indicators, which will be defined by adopting the SIPOC approach.

2. Assessment of Higher Education in Morocco

Law 01-00 • Article 77 states:

- The higher education system is subject, in its entirety, a regular assessment, on its internal and external profitability and covering all teaching, administrative and research. This evaluation will be based, in addition to teaching audits, financial and Administrative, on self-evaluation of each educational institution and training, and periodic survey opinions of educational stakeholders and partners, in labor circles, science of culture and the arts.

- Article 78: The public and private higher education institutions set up a self-assessment system.

- Article 79: For the conduct of audits and evaluation required by Article 77 above, there will be the creation of specialized regulatory bodies enjoying autonomy and the necessary independence, including one national assessment and an observatory for the adequacy of higher education in economic and business environment.

And if before the reform of the Moroccan higher education, the evaluation had a partial and casual and wore more about program evaluation projects, evaluation in the framework of the law

01-00 is global and regular, and focuses on the training institutions and programs, and following the experiences of the evaluation of higher education in Morocco, it was possible to:

- Evaluate the dynamic development indicators in universities relations and the social environment.
- Evaluate the establishment of educational, scientific and in their performance and relationship with the environment, to shift these courses.

3. SIPOC approach, in the definition of performance indicators

3.1. Risks management

The assessment is a comprehensive approach that must be seen in a participatory manner with all stakeholders of education / training, which is presented by the proposed approach in the case SIPOC. Thus, the declination of sight 'assessment of learners' to a wider spectrum as evaluating the training process or even evaluation of the evaluation process.

The process must be clearly defined, and through performance and monitoring indicators and based on SIPOC elements identified, continuous improvement process by following the approach (PDCA: plan do check, act)

3.2.KPI management

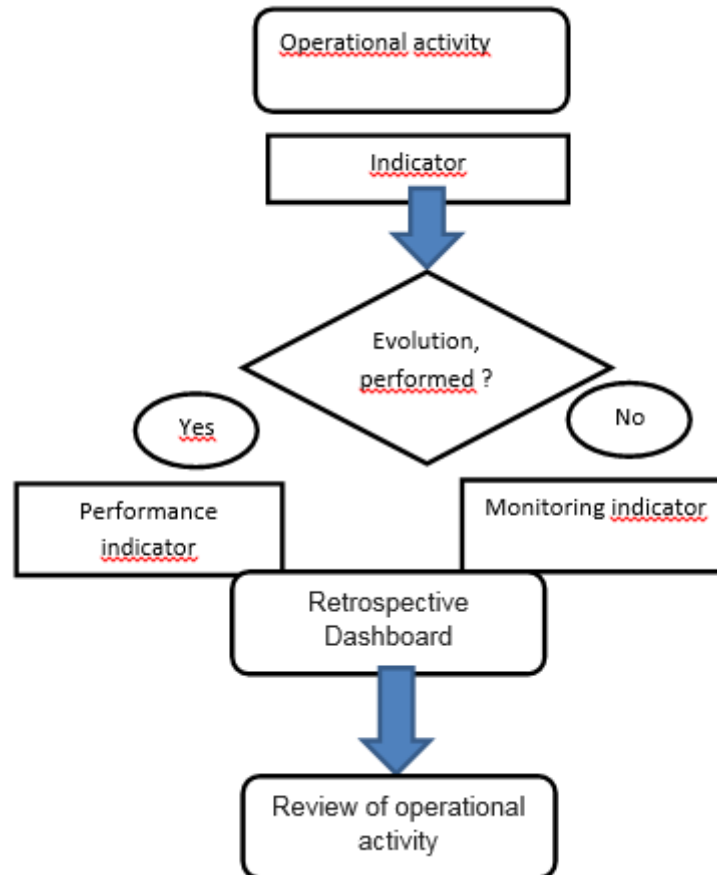


Diagram..9. Performance indicators and monitoring indicator

3.2.1 Monitoring indicators designated according to SIPOC

The monitoring indicator to maintain the existing business; no progress is reported. Monitoring the performance is maintained, and healing, corrective or preventive actions if necessary are available if the acceptance criterion was not met

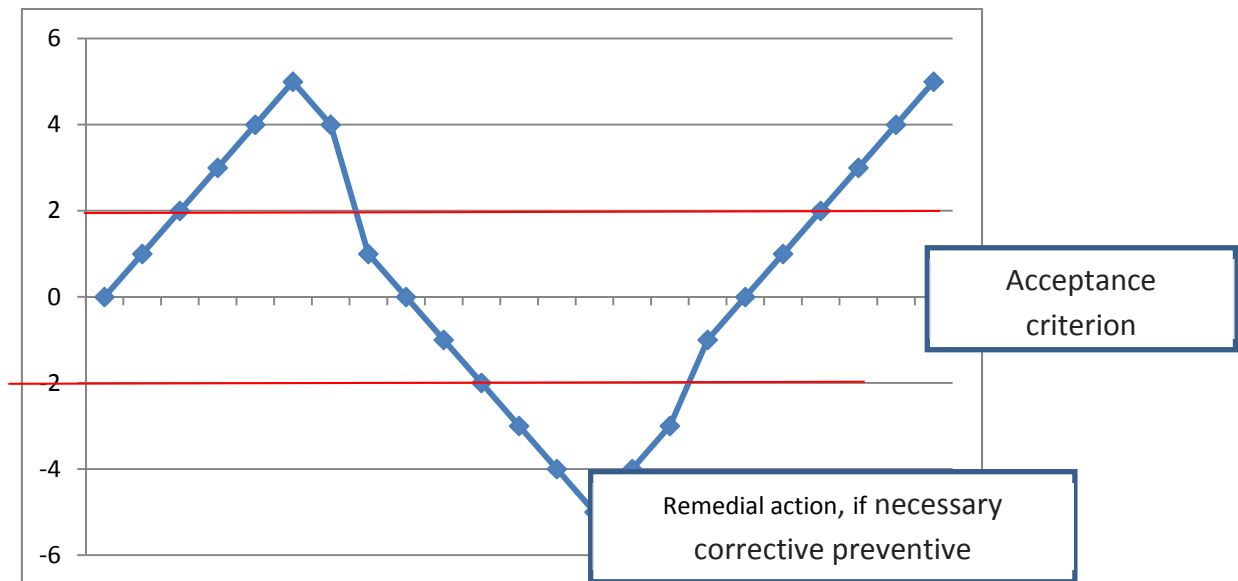


Diagram.10. Monitoring indicator of a process

For example, a professional rate for baccalaureate 80% while the acceptance criterion is 93%, generates an analysis of action causes / effects, curative action plan for corrective or preventive to evaluate the adequacy training / employment,

The action may even be declined in the review of the identified processes (training processes Assessment ...), which itself will be cascaded review of training modules, teaching methods.

Admittedly, the set action plan involves all stakeholders identified in the SIPOC

Acceptation criterion	Measured criterion	Action
Integration rate of laureates : 93%	Integration rate of laureates : 80%	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Analysis of causes / effects • Action Plan for the training / employment adequacy • Review training process • Review the evaluation process • Review training modules • Review instructional methods

3.2.2. Key performance indicators, designated following SIPOC approach

The performance indicator of a process will be set up to boost performance (target achieved)

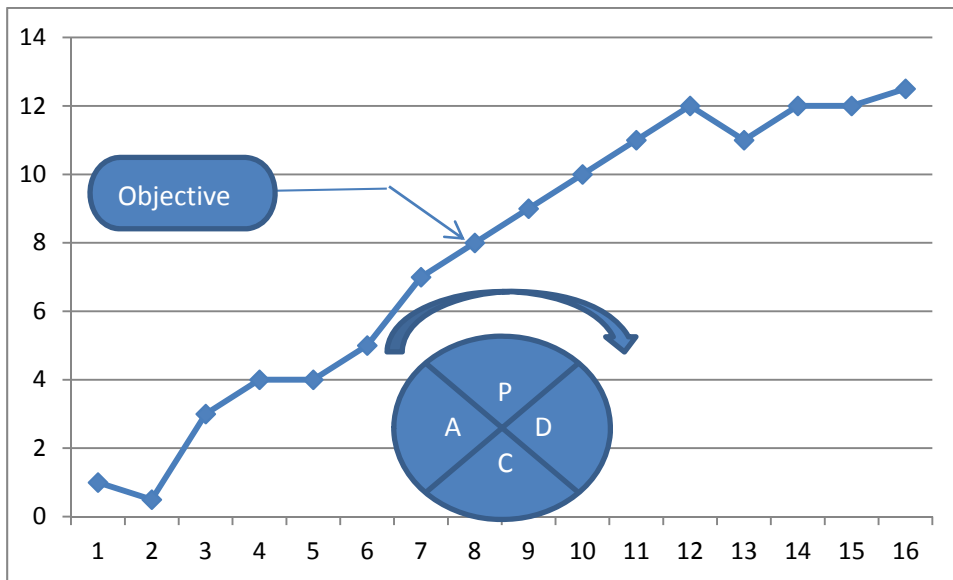


Diagram.11. Performance indicator of a process and PDCA approach of continuous improvement

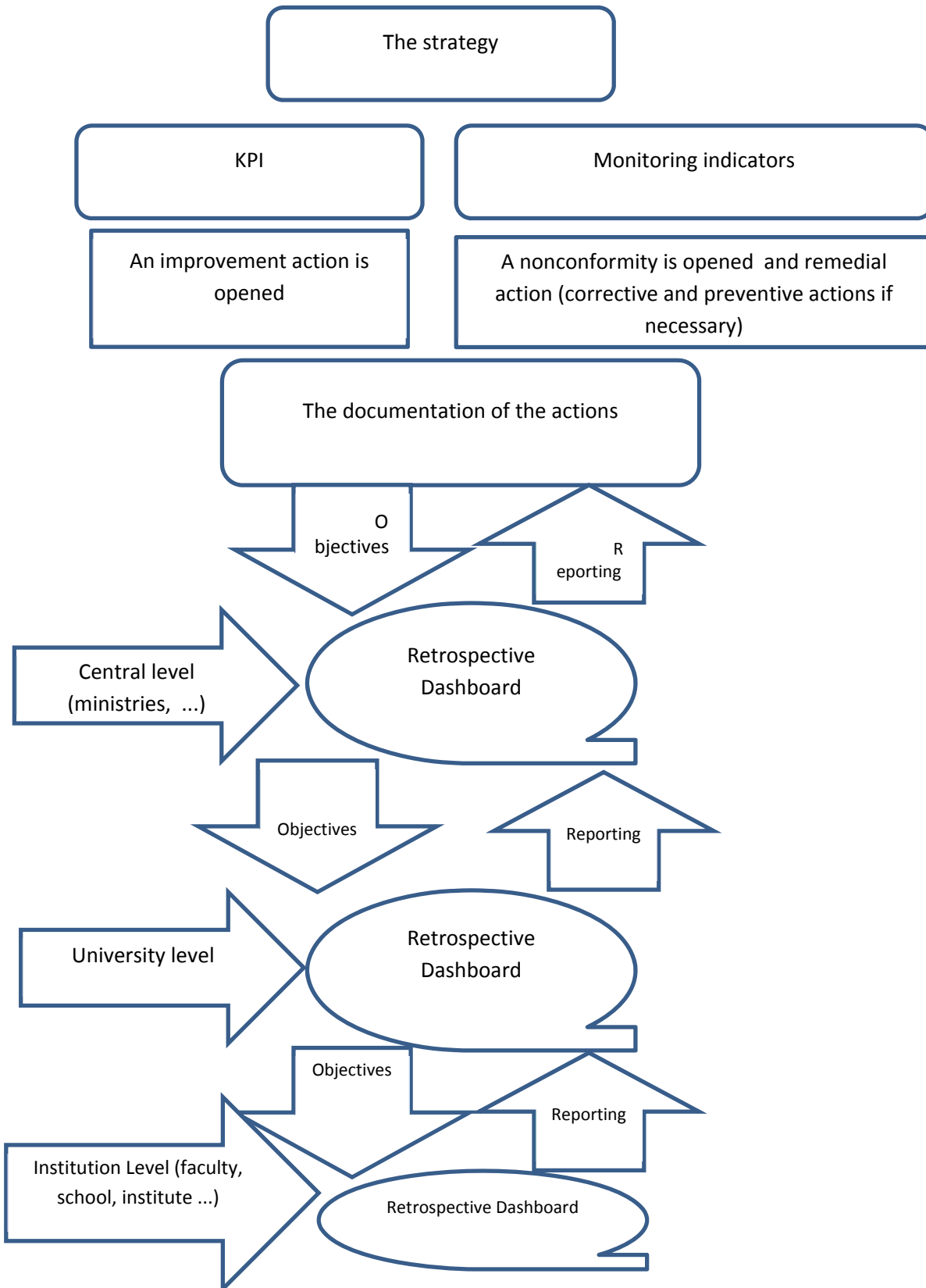


Diagram.12. The establishment of a performance indicator for higher education management system

Their implemented are executed in coordination with all stakeholders identified in the SIPOC, so:
 -The Level of satisfaction of the training sessions was involved, the student, the teacher, and the university.

- The Insertion rate of laureates: will a shared indicator between society, economic operators, university and laureates.
- A Rated performance needs to be improved by adopting the approach PDCA (plan, do, check, act)

4 CONCLUSION

The integrated management system can be implemented in a Higher Education context through the identification of process mapping, the establishment Prospective Dashboard, the implementation of a document control system, management risks, adaptation and adoption of a continuous improvement approach, conducting internal audits, which is the overall evaluation seen element.

The industrial approach proposed SIPOC, could be an effective means of improving these processes.

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