Education in Modern Society

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Bulgarian Comparative Education Society

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Preface

Nikolay Popov

Modern in the 2018 BCES Conference

This volume contains selected papers submitted to the XVI Annual International Conference of the Bulgarian Comparative Education Society (BCES), held in June 2018 in Golden Sands, Varna, Bulgaria. The XVI BCES Conference theme is *Education in Modern Society*.

The book includes 32 papers written by 67 authors. The volume starts with an introductory paper written by the keynote speakers Hennie Steyn, Deon Vos and Louw de Beer. The other 31 papers are divided into 6 parts: 1) Comparative and International Education & History of Education; 2) Teacher Education; 3) Education Policy, Reforms & School Leadership; 4) Higher Education, Lifelong Learning & Social Inclusion; 5) Law and Education; 6) Research Education & Research Practice.

Modern is the main concept used, explained and analyzed in this volume. Most papers directly or indirectly present and discuss modern education systems, modern society, and modernity in general. *Modern* is viewed as something in the present day, a currently existing society in change, an education system currently being reformed, or a set of innovations that relate to all aspects of our life. *Modern* is viewed from philosophical, sociological, and educational angles.

As always, and this is a typical feature of each BCES Conference, educational topics in countries from all over the world are discussed – from South Africa on the South to the United Kingdom and Baltic countries on the North, from Japan on the East to the United States and Canada on the West.

The volume contains a colorful mosaic of educational issues, descriptions, analyses, syntheses, target groups, research methods and approaches, national and ethnic specifics, objective judgments, and emotional comments.

Over the years the Bulgarian Comparative Education Society has had the privilege annually to attract researchers from all continents to visit Bulgaria and present their interesting, challenging and provocative studies.

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Introduction

Hennie Steyn, Deon Vos & Louw de Beer

Education in Modern Society

Abstract

The paper substantiates the position that education and modern society, a 'society' in change because of present day developments in all the different sectors at local as well as national and international levels, are mutually dependent on each other. A modern national society expects its education system to provide in its differentiated education needs for their members to function effectively both in society and the international world. To effect this, society should, through the synchronizing participation of the coordinator, guide their education system according to the basic philosophy of education and should also formulate and prioritize their education needs. In addition, society should provide sufficient funding for providing for their education needs. The education system should apply its professional competencies to organize and strengthen the components and elements of that system in such a manner that the education needs can be provided for. Education should support the well-being of the community, but should not be regarded as the cure for every wrong.

Keywords: education, education system, modern society

Introduction

Everyone (or almost everyone) accepts and appreciates the fact that education is an instrument of incontestable importance to support the solid and creative development of any safe, organized, attainable and sustainable society in the world. However, to serve this supporting and empowering role in modern society, education should be correctly understood and implemented. It should also, at the same time, be recognized that education is not the cure for every wrong in society. The topic of this paper refers intrinsically to the question of the relation between 'education' and 'modern society' as well as to the powerful supporting role of education in order to enable a safe and sustainable community.

When one tries to answer the question about the relation between education and modern society, it will depend on the underlying philosophical point of departure. The points of departure can be the individualistic perspective or the socialist perspective or the perspective of mutual dependency. This paper bases its premise on the third option, namely that there is a mutual dependency between education or the education system and the community; that both have the responsibility to support the attainable and sustainable development of each other; and that each will gain from the well-being of the other.

Thus, the aim and contribution of this paper is to explain the reciprocal relation between education and modern society, in its different spheres of realization. Therefore, firstly the use of the concept 'modern society' and its expectations of education will be explained; secondly the theoretical basis of the relationship between education and society will be discussed; and thirdly some guidelines for the realization of this relationship will be provided. Therefore, the aim of this paper is not to identify and analyze the characteristics of individual modern societies. The individual modern societies, which are affected in unique ways by the wide-ranging new challenges, differ too much between, for example, those of Europe, the North- and South Americas, the East and Africa, to make really useful findings in the context of this paper. In the same way, the responses of education and education systems to these diverse challenges are too many and too localized to identify useable best practices. Thus, this paper rather tries to provide the instrumentation, in the format of markers, that a particular modern society can apply in order to provide unique localized and contextual education provision in order to confront the ever-changing challenges that modern societies are experiencing.

Modern society's challenge to education

Modern society

On the question *"What is a modern society?"* the best answer is probably that 'modern society' is a 'society' confronted, effected and shaped by present-day developments in all the different sectors of human existence at local, national and international levels. Thus, in *essence a 'modern society' is any existing society-in-change*. These present-day developments refer, for example, to trends in the demography, the economy, the politics, language and communication, science and technology and philosophies that have a determining influence on a particular community – small or large. The *trends* are known over many years, but they are realized uniquely in different 'modern societies'. For example, Wolhuter (Steyn & Wolhuter, 2008, pp. 12-34) provided a conjecture of *probable societal trends or tendencies* that will be manifested in the 21st century. He referred, for example, to the intensifying influence of population explosion, particular in Third World countries; the changing age-pyramid; urbanization, migration patterns, including the internal and external mobility of people; the ecological crisis, scientific and technological progress; transformation in agricultural methods; biotechnology; communication; information and knowledge revolution; robotics and automation; emergence of multiculturalism and minority interests; economic liberalization and privatization; unemployment and poverty, especially in the Third World environment; self-employment and decentralization of workplaces; decentralization in general; individualization; democratization, regionalism and internationalism as well as the values revolution. The real content of these trends will change from one 'modern society' to the next 'modern society'.

Thus, a modern society can be explained, similar to previous definitions, as an organized group of people associated for some specific purpose and on account of a common interest, generating distinctive cultural patterns and institutions and developing a sense of communal identity and activities, usually in a particular geographic area within the context of present-day societal trends. A national society

is a 'large' group of people involved in persistent social interaction, sharing the same geographical or social territory, typically subject to the same political authority and dominant cultural expectations (Collins, 2001; Oxford Dictionary, 2018; Weyers, 2011, p. 54). This structured group of individuals and organizations should provide a safe, sound and healthy environment to individuals and organizations to enable them to function effectively in an integrated manner within society's unique characteristics. A first step is to provide the safe environment in the realm of the similarities and uniqueness amongst individuals and organizations of that society. Similarities and differences in society have been realized simultaneously in aspects such as, for example, gender, economical activities, occupations, ideals, cultures, interests, capacities and abilities. These similarities and differences should strengthen mutual backing up and support amongst the members of a society, each with a unique contribution. The similarities and differences lead in one way or the other to a sense of interdependence and belonging – the glue of a safe society. Interdependence usually results in cooperation that avoids mutual destructiveness and leads to common purposes, striving towards a happy and comfortable life. Members of any society must co-exist in that society and should manage conflict. Modern national societies are presently organized in some type of democracy consisting of individuals and different organizations, for example state organs, the organizations relating to career and commerce and industry, community organizations (with the purpose to enrich and strengthen society) and family structures recognizing the principle of unity and diversity. Finally, the mere *nature of any 'modern' society is that it is in a dynamic, constant change, because of unique external and internal tendencies, and that every modern society is characterized by the need that its members should adapt* to the general as well as specialized internal and external challenges that occur (Anon, 2017; Editorial, 2017; Macionis, 2009).

Education needs of individuals and organizations in a national society

A national society will expect education to provide the individual learners with differentiated educational opportunities to treasure and develop the present features of the particular community within the context of the conjecture of *probable societal trends at local, national and international levels*. Through these educational opportunities learners will acquire the essential competencies to support and maintain the welfare of a safe and healthy society.

In this context, the state will expect learners to contribute to the welfare of the country and not living off the welfare of the country. Families will expect learners to contribute to the well-being and development of individual families and the family as an institution. Commerce and industry will expect learners to acquire such competencies as will enable them to enter commerce and industry as productive employees and employers. Societal organizations (such as religious organizations, sport bodies, organizations to preserve nature) expect their future members to share the required competencies to become supporting members. Lastly the learners, as self-actualizing individuals, will expect education to provide sufficient differentiated education opportunities to enable each learner to empower themselves for a gratifying life, integrated and coordinated with the rest of individuals and organizations at national and international levels (Steyn & Wolhuter, 2014, pp. 98-

100). Another challenge for education systems is the fact that the fabric of societies is changing at a fast pace. Thus, societies expect of education systems to keep abreast with this fast pace of change and to keep providing for the accompanying changing education needs. Because the various local, national and international trends realize uniquely in each country, each of these trends should be analyzed for application in each situation.

Responses by education systems to these challenges

Introduction

Education and the education system should have a vision to provide for the education needs of the particular society that it is assigned to. To achieve such effective education provision to support the sustainable development of a modern society that is characterized by continuous rapid change, the following **seven simplified markers** are important for consideration (not necessarily in the specific order), namely (1) a suitable definition of education should be used; (2) the structure and functioning of the education system should be understood; (3) the different types of education systems should be identified; (4) the external and internal contextual tendencies should be correctly processed; (5) the education needs of the various groups interested in education should be organized; (6) the required infrastructure to provide for these education needs should be well-thought-out; and (7) the necessity to provide additional education programs and projects should be decided on. It is *of little use to provide general education responses* to the changes in particular modern societies, because the responses in a particular society should be unique to the context of the particular society – each situation needs unique analysis and responses.

Defining the concept 'education'

The **first marker** for consideration in developing a sound relation between education and modern society, is to use a conceptualization of education that inherently recognizes and provides for the interaction between education and society. To fulfil this proviso, education can be defined as the planned teaching activities by the teacher to support the individual learners to acquire the mutually agreed-upon competencies (knowledge, skills and attitudes/values) in order to perform their different roles in life. The '*planned teaching activities*' include, for example, the typical elements of teaching such as the teaching aims, the teaching strategies and methods, the content, the assessment and the applicable qualifications that can be acquired. It is emphasised that the teacher should '*support*' the learners to learn or to acquire the agreed-upon competencies themselves. The '*mutually agreed-upon competencies*' include the integrated combination of knowledge, skills and attitudes, which include communicative, numerical, social, economic-financial, scientific, technological, physical, environmental and philosophical competencies. These competencies are mutually agreed-upon, *by all parties involved*, as acceptable, valued and achievable outcomes of education. The learners should be able to apply these competencies in order to perform their different roles in life. These *roles* can be divided into the following categories, namely that the learners should function as *self-actualizing individuals,* as *members of families*, in their

occupational involvement, as *active citizens and members of community organizations that* contribute to the welfare of the community (Steyn, Wolhuter, Vos & De Beer, 2017, pp. 11-12).

The education system

The **second marker** to include in order to ensure a sustainable relation between education and society, is that an easy and understandable definition of the education system should be used. In this context, the education system can be defined as the *framework* for effective education opportunities to provide for the *education needs* of the members and organizations in the *target group* or society (De Beer, 2017, p. 12). The *framework* of the education system consists of four components, namely the education system policy, education system administration and education support services, that function in an integrated manner to provide for the diverse and unique education needs of the target group or national society. A *reciprocal relation* exists between the target group and the education system. The *target group* of a national education system consists of the national community of a particular country. The *main purpose* of the education system is to meet the *education needs* of the target group. The *success* of that education system is determined by the level to which that education system manages to change its services in order to meet the ever-changing education needs of the target group (Steyn, Wolhuter, Vos & De Beer, 2017, pp. 18-22). The education system as an integrated structure of components and elements should provide for changes such as technological and scientific changes, as well as changes in numbers of the community.

The type of education system

The **third marker** for consideration is to determine the *type* of the education system being either a dependent or an independent education system. The *nature of the relationship* between the education system and its target group determines the type of the education system concerned. In the case of the *dependent education system*, that education system is established by a particular society, especially to provide in their education needs. In this case, the education system concerned is obliged to apply its professional capacity to analyze and integrate the ever-changing education needs and put together the required infrastructure to meet these needs. All national education systems fall in this category. In the case of the *independent or private education systems*, those systems choose their individual target groups themselves and provide for all or part of the education needs of the identified target groups (Wolhuter, Jacobs & Steyn, 2015, p. 37). Dependent and independent education systems can, for example, be used to cater for multilingualism and multiculturalism in modern society.

The external and internal contextual tendencies that influence the structure and functioning of an education system

To further ensure a positive relationship between modern society and the education system, the **fourth marker** is to determine whether the related education system is *structured and functional within and according* to the sphere of the respective *external and internal contextual tendencies* of that education system, and thus ensures an education system within the ambit of society. The external

contextual tendencies refer to those influences from outside a particular education system that co-determine its structure and functioning. The external influences include the following: the demography; the climate and geography; the physical and psychological characteristics of the target group; science and technology involvement of the target group; language(s) used; socio-economic status of the community; political/institutional structures of the target group and the major philosophical tendencies. The influences of the external contextual tendencies are realized within the sphere of the *internal contextual tendencies* whether it be of educative, historic or reciprocal nature (Wolhuter, Jacobs & Steyn, 2017, pp. 48-51).

Regarding the national education system, the external contextual tendencies relate to the actual living environment of national society and co-determine the different aspects of society and, thus, the education needs of national society. For example, the demography of national society determines the numbers that should be served by the education system and where the education institutions will be situated; the level of science and technology involvement of the society will co-determine the curriculum of the education system; and the socio-economic tendencies will, to a large extent, co-determine the availability of finances to improve the sophistication of the particular education system. Thus, each of the external contextual tendencies should co-determine the structure and functioning of the related education system (Steyn & Wolhuter, 2014, pp. 137-148).

Structures of educational interest: organizing their education needs

The **fifth marker** refers to whether the educationally interested structures are organized in such a manner that the relationship between the education system and modern society benefits. Society as the target group, in its relation with the education system, can be divided into *two main groups*, namely the *structures of education interest and the coordinator*. The *education interest groups* consists of individuals and organizations, such as the state, parents, religious organizations, companies in commerce and industry, political parties, sports bodies and environmental conservational organizations. All these individuals and organizations *have typical education needs* that are characterized by its peculiar similarities and differences. The interest groups themselves should formulate these education needs *in order of priority*, for the education system to provide education accordingly. The *coordinator acts as a link* between the education interest groups and the education system and has the responsibility to bring together the representatives of the target group in order to collectively define, organize, integrate and prioritize their education needs (which are often of opposing nature such as differing political or religious views), to determine the underlying philosophy of education and to provide the required funding to afford the purposeful functioning of the education system. In the case of the national education system, the state-in-its-education-organs acts as coordinator and realizes its responsibility through the respective education departments. Usually, an advisory body is constituted to represent the education structures in their deliberations with the coordinator. Functionaries of the particular education system cannot and should not themselves identify and prioritize these education needs or determine the underlying education philosophy – it is not their place to prescribe or dictate to the community – but the functionaries can assist the

community, via the coordinator, to identify and prioritize their education needs (Steyn & Wolhuter, 2014, pp. 113-120).

Efficient infrastructure

The **sixth marker** represents the required actions to establish the required education system *infrastructure*, within the domain of its components and elements, in order to provide for the identified education needs of society. To provide for the education needs, the functionaries in the education system administration should set all the components and elements of the education system in action. The functionaries in the management structures should develop an appropriate system education policy and collect the required funding from the specific interest groups in order to provide and maintain a suitable, attainable and sustainable structure for teaching, by completing the various elements, such as the education levels, education institutions, curricula and physical facilities. The applicable elements of the support services, such as the services to the learners and the educators and teaching activities should be provided. An important challenge for the education system is to provide curricula that are repeated every year, in order to achieve nationally accepted qualifications, but at the same time to keep up and abreast with the continuous changes and developments that occur in modern societies. The officials of the education system should, for example, establish the required *education institutions*, apply the curriculum cycle in order to facilitate the development of purposeful *curricula and qualification structures*, make provision for successful *teacher training*, establish sufficient *entrance requirements* for learners, decide on the *language(s) of teaching and learning*, construct the *required teaching facilities,* as well as the inclusion of modern digital communication and teaching opportunities (Steyn & Wolhuter, 2014, pp. 83-98; Van Wyk & Steyn, 2016, pp. 290-292). Applicable *education support services* should also be provided for the learners, the teaching personnel and the teaching activities. All of these should efficiently support the learners in preparing themselves for their different roles in life by achieving the required levels of knowledge, skills and attitudes/values (Steyn, Wolhuter, Vos & De Beer, 2017, pp. 161-182). This process also highlights the reciprocal nature of the relationship between the target group and the particular education system.

Additional education projects

A **seventh marker** is to determine whether a positive relation between society and the education system is strengthened by the provisioning of specific *goal-directed education programs and education projects*, additional to the recurring curricula and qualifications, for example, such as the provisioning of:

- *Vocational education*: Vocational education can be distinguished, but not separated from, general formative education on the premise that it provides education and training that are, to a greater extent, more directed to the competencies required by a particular vocational field (Kalimullin & Masalimova, 2016).
- *Road safety education*: The improvement and/or maintenance of traffic safety is a priority in many countries. To support the increase of traffic safety, the provisioning of traffic safety education and training is a common project in

many countries, for example, the project of driver education and training in Canada (Mayhew & Simpson, 2002).

- *Education to prevent health problems such as Aids prevention*: Education to prevent the consequences of AIDS and to promote safe sex is and was a subject of intense debate in South Africa. The debate focuses on the school phase where this education project should be introduced, what the curriculum contents should be and what kind of training should be provided to the teachers. The general finding in South Africa is that such an education project has particular benefits as well as critical challenges (Thaver, 2012).
- *Non-formal education*: The contribution of non-formal education, those learning opportunities outside the school system, to quality education should always be realized (Steyn, Wolhuter, Vos & De Beer, 2017, p. 16).

Conclusion

The final conclusion is that education and modern society are mutually dependent. National societies expect their respective education systems to provide education that will support the maintenance and development of societies' unique and valued characteristics and to provide their members with applicable education opportunities to function effectively in society and in the international world. Society should, through the synchronizing participation of the coordinator, guide their education system on the basic philosophy of education. Society, in turn, should formulate and prioritize their education needs. Society should also provide sufficient funding for meeting their education needs.

The education system should apply its professional competencies to organize and strengthen the components and elements of that system in such a manner that the education needs can be provided for continuously, while the ever-changing tendencies and short-term changes are also effectively cared for. Education should support the wellbeing of the community, but should not be regarded as the cure for every wrong. Education and the education system are not the 'recovery box' that should take care of all wrongs in society. However, they can serve as important instruments to assist society to correct all the relevant societal ills.

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Part 1

Comparative and International Education & History of Education

Charl Wolhuter

Modern as Contested Concept in Comparative and International Education

Abstract

The aim of this paper is to clarify the concept and to recapture and to reassess its value to the field of Comparative and International Education at the present point in time. Despite the vision of founding father Jullien, from the interwar "factors and forces stage", the field of Comparative and International Education got a strong tradition of focusing on the past. In the social science phase of the 1960s, Modernisation Theory made a forceful appearance in the field, and became the principal theoretical framework in the field. However, this trend was reversed during the next phase in the historical evolution of the field, the phase of heterodoxy in the 1970s. In this decade and subsequent times, Modernisation Theory fell out of fashion and even became discredited, as rival paradigms such as Dependency Theory, World Systems Analysis, and Neo-Colonialism, and finally Postmodernism became vogue. In view of the momentous societal changes taking currently place globally, calling for a reconceptualization of education, a future-orientation for the field Comparative and International Education is argued for. In this scheme of things, a re-appraisal of Modernisation Theory is called for. Rather than summarily discarding this theory, or on the other hand embracing it uncritically, a more nuanced place for Modernisation Theory in a Comparative and International Education relevant to and valuable for the twenty-first century world seems to be apt.

Keywords: Capability Theory, Comparative and International Education, modern,
          Modernisation Theory, twenty-first century society

Introduction

The term *modern*, as it appears in the conference theme *Education in Modern Society* is simultaneously a vague and a loaded (with strong ideological undertones) concept in the field of Comparative and International Education, while it is also a controversial term, and has played a forceful role in the evolution of the field, especially (but not limited to) the 1960s (and to a lesser extent the 1970s). The aim of this paper is to clarify the concept and to recapture and to reassess its value to the field of Comparative and International Education at the present point in time. The paper commences with a brief reconstruction of the field before 1960s, and its overly historical orientation. The sudden surge of Modernisation Theory to the

centre stage in the 1960s is then explained, followed by the discreditation of the theory since the 1970s. The need for a re-appreciation of Modernisation Theory at the present point in time is then argued.

A strong history with an overly historical orientation

In the historical evolution of the field of Comparative and International Education, seven phases could be distinguished: a phase of travelers' tales, a phase of the study of foreign systems of education with the intention to borrow, a phase of international cooperation, a "factors and forces" phase, a social science phase, a phase of heterodoxy and a phase of heterogeneity (Wolhuter, 2015). These phases should be seen as a progressive broadening or expansion of the field, rather than as a series of mutually exclusive phases, one replacing the previous (Ibid.). The first two phases, travelers' tales and the phase of the study of foreign systems of education with the intention to borrow, were pre-scientific phases, and cover much of the history up to beginnings of the twentieth-century. The third phase, the phase of International Cooperation, had its precursor in the publication of Marc-Antoine Jullien in 1816/17, in which he coined the term "Comparative Education", but in all seriousness this phase got into action with the establishment of the International Bureau of Education in 1925.

But Comparative Education as a field with a strong presence at universities really commenced only with the "factors and forces" stage. In an epoch making lecture in 1900 at Guilford College, Oxford University, Michael Sadler (1875-1943) cautioned against the practice of indiscriminate borrowing of education practices from foreign systems of education. He explained that national education systems are the outcome of (national) contextual forces, such as geography, demography, social system, economy, political system and religious and philosophical structures. National education systems are embedded in these societal structures, which makes it impossible to transplant one element of an education system from one country to another. Sadler laid the basis for the "factors and forces" stage of Comparative Education, when comparativists devised schemes to analyse contextual forces shaping (national) education systems. This kind of Comparative Education was much in the vogue in interwar Europe and North America (i.e. between 1919 and 1939) but is still very dominant in Comparative Education (Wolhuter, 2008, pp. 334-336). The publications and scholarship of the triumvirate ("big three") in Comparative Education: Isaac Kandel (1881-1965), Nicholas Hans (1888-1969) and Friedrich Schneider (1881-1969) as well as many others (such as Idenburg, Moehlman, Mallinson, and Steyn) were all in this "factors and forces" mold. In these scheme of things, the historical was always very strongly present, either explicitly, as in the scheme of Schneider, or implicitly. An example of the latter is Kandel's notion of "national character" as (sole) shaping force of national education systems – this "national character" was understood to have been the outcome of a long history. The highlighting of the role of the historical in shaping education systems is perhaps most forcefully expressed in the title of the book of Robert Ulich: *The education of nations: a comparison in historical perspective* (1961).

The rise of Modernisation Theory

During the 1960s Modernisation Theory made a forceful entry into the field of Comparative and International Education. This was part of what is known as the social science phase of Comparative Education. The post-Second World War decades ushered in a dynamic period for comparative education, with the development of UNESCO (founded in 1945) and the slow inclusion of educational issues within institutions such as the World Bank and USAID. This post-war era, also a time of decolonisation worldwide, focused considerable attention on the relationship of education to national development, and the continued drive to make comparative education a more scientific and respected field through the inclusion of reliable computer generated data. Another feature of Comparative Education at this stage was the affinity for the methods, theories, concepts and paradigms of the social sciences (such as Sociology, Economics, Anthropology and Political Science).

The dominating paradigm of the phase was that of structural-functionalism and its derivate Modernisation Theory.

The sociologist Talcott Parsons (1902-1979) could be regarded as the founder of structural-functionalism. Structural-functionalism views society as a harmoniously functioning whole. Every system (such as the economic system, political system, education etc.) performs a function and contributes to the smooth, successful functioning of society as a whole. Similarly, every institution (every school, family, church, enterprise, cultural organization, etc.) contributes to the successful functioning of society as a whole. Changes in one system or institution will inevitably lead to changes in all the others; indeed change could deliberately be planned in one system to effect desired changes in other. From there the ceilingless belief in the potential of education to induce any kind of change desired by society – economic growth, social mobility, eradication of unemployment, combat of crime or whatever, could be effected by just providing more education.

Modernisation Theory held that the developing countries needed economic, social and political development; and the fastest and cheapest way to effect these developments, would be to just supply the people in these countries with more education (Fägerlind & Saha, 1984, p. 49). Modernisation became the most important theoretical framework in Comparative Education during the 1960s and early 1970s (Kelly et al., 1982, p. 516).

The limitless belief in education, held not only by educationists, but also by politicians, financial, industrial and business leaders, developmental experts, newspaper editors and the public at large, explained above paved the way for a massive expansion of education worldwide during the decades following the Second World War (Coombs, 1985).

The discreditation of Modernisation Theory

The education expansion drive which gained, in all seriousness momentum since the 1960s did not produce the predicted societal benefits. For example, instead of eradicating unemployment, the spectre of schooled unemployment raised its head, especially after the worldwide economic slowdown which set in after the first oil crisis in 1973. The 1970s was a decade of increasing pessimism amongst comparativists, as to the societal dividends of education. Rival paradigms to Modernisation Theory and structural-functionalism set in, particularly theories of world-system analysis and reproduction theories. These theories (which can roughly

be subsumed under the collective name of conflict theories) saw education as a powerful tool in the hands of the powerful in society, to reinforce existing inequalities in society.

By the early 1990s protagonists of various paradigms no longer spent all their energy criticising each other, but, in the time spirit of Postmodernism, a tolerance, even an appreciation of different paradigms developed in Comparative Education (Rust, 1996, p. 32). Postmodernism rejects the notion of one perspective/paradigm containing the entire truth, but advocates an awareness and acknowledgement of a multiplicity of knowledge perspectives. This new phase in the evolution of Comparative Education, called the phase of heterogeneity, saw a proliferation of the number of paradigms emerging in Comparative Education. Especially progressive scholars in the field associated Modernisation Theory with Eurocentricism or neo-colonialism, as an attempt to enforce Western models on the rest of the world (e.g., Terreblanche, 2014, pp. 10-11). The result was that modernisation could never regain its prime position in Comparative Education scholars' sense of self-identity, i.e. in their view of the paradigms forming the theoretical framework(s) of scholarly activities in the field. Thus today there is a schizophrenia visible in the field: whilst much research is clearly done within the (implicit) theoretical framework of Modernisation Theory (the prolific publication stream emanating from the World Bank, for example, are mostly of this kind) (for the prominence of Modernisation Theory informing research in the field, cf. Wolhuter, 2008, pp. 335), theoreticians in the field eschew Modernisation Theory (for example, Arnove et al., 2013), or deny that it has any value.

The need for a future orientation and re-appraisal of Modernisation Theory in Comparative Education

Modernisation Theory constructs the transition of society from a traditional to a modern society, and portray this process as both inevitable and desirable (Reyes, 2001). Protagonists of Modernisation Theory also see modernisation of all societies as progressing towards the Western or European model (Ibid.). Modernisation is conceptualised as a state in which societies maximilise economic and social rationality (Kelly et al., 1982, 51-55). According to this theory modern humans have a number of traits, such as being open to new experience and being ready for social change, awareness of a diversity of attitudes and views, being optimistic (rather than having a feeling of fatalism), respect for the Human Rights of others, a temporal orientation towards the future rather than towards the past, an understanding of the logic underlying industry and production, a philosophy that human beings can control and influence their environment (rather than the other way around), and a universalism: a belief in the equality of all humans regardless of gender, age, etc. (Fägerlind & Saha, 1984, p. 95). Advocates of Modernisation Theory regard education as the most important agent in transforming traditional societies to modern societies.

The arguments of scholars of decolonisation in education (today much in vogue in large parts of the Global South), cultural relativism, cultural revitalization, and others, are not without merit. However, two counter points need to be raised. In the first place a number of societal forces are creating a world at present and in the near future, which will look totally different from even the world known at the end of the

twentieth century. These momentous societal trends include the ecological crisis and the imperative for sustainable development, the population explosion (in the Global South), an ageing population, a more mobile population, globalization, the technological revolution (especially the information and communication technology revolution), economic growth, the neo-liberal economic revolution, economic internationalism, the rise of knowledge economies, the growing informal economic sector in the countries of the Global South, the rise of increasingly multicultural and more diverse societies, the diminishing importance of the primary social grouping (the family) and of the secondary social grouping (the workplace) in society, on the other hand the rise in importance of tertiary (voluntary functional) social groupings, the demise of the once omnipotent nation state, the growing prominence of supra-national and international political structures, democratization, individualization, the rise of the Creed of Human Rights, and the persistent (albeit in a different form) presence of religion as force in society. These forces ask for a reconsideration of the kind of education needed, and for a new agenda for Comparative and International Education; above all for a stronger future orientation in the field.

Secondly, a wide latitude could be granted for divergent views and models of societal dynamics, but on the other hand, surely it would be difficult to differ from Torres' (2015) notion of the three Global Commons:

- we all have only one planet;
- we all desire peace;
- we all should enjoy the right to pursue life, prosperity and happiness.

These have much in common with the notion of modernisation (as used by modernisation theorists). In as far as modernisation, at least in the form in which is manifested in the world, may work against these ideals, the concept and its manifestation in the world should be interrogated and criticized, but in as far as it makes possible the realization of the three Global Commons, modernisation should be embraced. The rather mechanical, clinical, macro theory of modernisation may be supplemented (and humanized) with Capability Theory. Capability Theory, as developed by Amartya Sen, Martha Nussbaum and others, is a philosophy emphasizing individual emancipation in the shape of personal choice and freedom (Steyn et al., 2016, p. 143). The concept of emancipation in this philosophy is not the narrow understanding associated with skills such as numeracy or literacy (Ibid.). Capabilities are defined as the functions, opportunities and freedoms people possess to pursue goals they value and that are meaningful to them (Ibid.). In his mapping of the field of Comparative Education, Paulston (1999) mentions the two paradigms of reflexive modernity and critical modernists. Reflexive modernity, while retaining modernists' notions of unitary space, is willing to open a space let in other knowledge perspectives, in order to "know what is happening". As an example, Paulston takes a publication by Cowen (1996), in which he invokes Lyotard's critical discourse of performativity in modern culture, in a (that is Cowen's) basically modernist theoretical framework. Critical modernists retain a strong commitment to the narratives of emancipation (that is critical theory in the broadest meaning of the term), while seeking to breathe new life and credibility into the project, in order to shore up their own positions. As an example Paulston tables McLaren's (1994) acknowledgement of the limitations of a Marxian approach, and where he (McLaren) reaches out to the positivism of modernisation. Such a nuanced,

constantly interrogated concept of modernisation there is an indispensable and irreplaceable place in a future-orientated scholarly field of Comparative and International Education, relevant to and valuable for twenty-first century society.

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The Birth of a "New" Theory of Education and Its Application in Comparative Education Studies

Abstract

Educationists are constantly in need of theory to help them explain the phenomena with which they concern themselves, in this particular case, with education systems. In the early stages of their careers as scholars, education system experts avail themselves of existing theories to explain the phenomena observable in education systems. At a later stage in their careers they begin developing the need to develop their own custom made theories since they find their own theories to serve their purpose more accurately. This paper relates how such a relatively "new" theory, the social space and ethical function and/or action theory, has recently emerged, and how it has so far been applied in practice.

Keywords: education, comparative education, education systems, theory, social space and ethical function and/or action theory

Introduction

Apart from being a full-time lecturer in the period 1976-2000, I have also been involved to this day in the presentation of an induction course in basic Philosophy of Science for newly appointed academics, i.e. for around four decades now. Since my early retirement as university lecturer in 2000 I have also been involved in presenting article writing seminars (around 130 of them over the last 17 years).

In many of these presentations I have been observing some serious shortcomings in the training of young academics, particularly their lack of insight into the role of theory construction in scholarship (science) as a lens for examining scientific conundrums and also the role of the "tools" available to the scholar for testing the validity and reliability of a theory. I have discovered that in many cases, young academics are happy to operate with a "literature review" instead of a fully developed conceptual and theoretical framework in terms of which a research problem or question can be examined.

In view of these observations I have set myself the task of enlightening less experienced colleagues attending the various workshops about the role and function of theory (construction) in the process of scholarship. The basic outlines of my view about this issue and how it could be relevant to the practising of Comparative Education as a science appear in the following section.

The role and function of theory (construction) in scholarship

My point of departure is that if we as human beings (academics, scholars) possessed a God's eye view of reality and of phenomena in reality such as education systems, we would not have had need for theories about the phenomena that we encounter. We would have had full and detailed knowledge of, for example,

education systems: their cosmic law-subjected structures, roles and functions, and we would not have need for theorizing about any of these issues. As human beings we unfortunately do not possess this kind of knowledge about reality and hence are compelled to theorize about (i.c.) education systems.

Our theories should be robust and powerful since they have to withstand examination and critique. We therefore have to ensure that they possess the following four key characteristics. Firstly, they should be able to explain the phenomenon under scrutiny; secondly, they should allow us to make reasonable inferences about the phenomenon; thirdly, they should enable discourse about the phenomenon, and finally, they should allow application of our knowledge in practice (for instance improvement of a national education system) (Halverson, 2002, p. 245). In addition, a good theory is sufficiently robust to withstand refutation (Popper, 1962, p. 28), which may come in various forms: the power of argument against argument, logic and rational proof, historical evidence, document analysis, conceptual analysis, ethnography or empirical investigation (in the shape of true experiment or ex post facto survey). Empirical investigation as well as all the other techniques can be regarded as tests, each in its own way, for the trustworthiness, reliability and validity of the theory with which the scholar is operating. Empirical investigation and the other tests are never done for their own sake but always for the purpose of attempting to refute or to improve (a) theory.

These insights into the role and function of theory and of its refutation brought me to the realization that I had to elevate my own theorization about education and education systems to higher scholarly levels.

The evolution of a "new" theory of education

Analysis of a research problem usually commences with an analysis of the key concepts associated with the problem. Put differently, for a problem to become analysable and examinable it has to be reformulated in verbal, symbolic or abstract terms that would make sense to experts in the particular field. Analysis of the key concepts not only provides access to and deeper insight into the problem and associated phenomena but also facilitates literature (particularly computer) searches about the problem and associated phenomena and problems. Such searches in turn provide access to literature that covers the standard theories about the subject or the problem under scrutiny. It is unsatisfactory, however, to end the analysis of the literature with a "literature review". The analysis should go further in that it should reveal the roles played by the respective theories in casting light on the problem under scrutiny or in general on the typical problems in the discipline. Put differently, this initial review of the literature should reveal the "standard" or widely accepted theories in the field and/or regarding the research problem under scrutiny.

The next step is to examine the relevant standard theories in the field in order to reveal both their strengths and shortcomings as lenses through which the problem under investigation may be viewed or analysed. The purpose of this step is precisely to attempt to refute these theories, as Popper envisaged. A theory that has successfully withstood such efforts at refutation can be considered for application in yet another round of analysing the problem or finding answers to the research question. If, however, as Kuhn (1962/1970) indicated, extant theory experiences so much criticism that it collapses in crisis, the time has come for the development of

new theory. Efforts at refutation also might bring a scholar to the realization that none of the extant standard theories complies with his or her requirements and therefore has to be replaced with a "new" or further theory. (Note that "new" is a relative concept here; no theory is ever completely new – scholars tend to stand on the shoulders of their predecessors to see further than before.)

The next section deals about the "birth" of a new theory of education.

A "new" theory of education

During my own investigations into a variety of educational problems, phenomena and issues I employed a variety of theories as lenses for examining the problematics in question. Two theories, in particular, appealed to me, namely the capability theory as developed by Amartya Sen (2010, p. 231 ff.) and Martha Nussbaum (2000, p. 4 ff.), and the cultural historical activity theory as developed by Lev Vygotsky (cf. Yamagatha-Lynch, 2010 for an overview), Engeström and Sannino (2010) and others. The former was particularly useful since it cast light on education as an instrument for the development of youngsters' innate capabilities and also on the nature and function of their capabilities. The latter was useful in that it offered a view of how (education) systems work and function. However, I found these theories restrictive in that they operate with conceptual systems that either explain more or less than what I would wish them to do, or in terms that did not quite agree with my views on education (both as teaching-learning and as formation in the widest sense of the word).

My reflections on these issues led me to the formulation of the *social space and ethical action and/or function theory*. This theory appeals to me because it flows organically from the philosophical systematic in which I have had my schooling as a philosopher of education, namely the philosophy of the cosmonomic idea, while allowing me to expand and augment it with ideas from other philosophies or theories.

The "new" theory revolves around two key notions, namely social space and ethical action and/or function. The theory is appropriate for examining educational phenomena since pedagogical engagement or interaction usually occurs within a definable social space such as a parental home, a classroom in a school, or an education system. The societal relationships that we encounter in life constitute social spaces in which education in the wider, formative sense could occur despite the fact that the primary aims or functions of the societal relationships are not educational in themselves. To illustrate: the primary function of a school is to concentrate on teaching and learning. In this process, however, education in the wider formative sense can also be expected to take place. The primary function of churches, mosques or synagogues is religious worship of a deity. However, education in the wider formative sense can also occur in these societal relationships. The primary function of the state, in turn, is to ensure law and order and to dispense juridical justice. Education in the wider formative sense can also occur in this relationship.

Although the theory singles out the social aspect or modality of reality for special attention, it is by no means the only or the most important aspect. The theory also attends to another aspect of reality, namely the ethical that relates to the relationships between people, as well as recognizes the coherence between the social

modality and the other aspects of reality such as the physical, juridical, economical, to mention only a few. All these functions cohere in different ways through ante- and retrocipations. The social aspect is singled out because of the fact that many philosophers have through the ages concentrated on this aspect. The reflections of Bourdieu (1995, especially p. 82; also Strauss, 2009; Sullivan, 2002, who does not refer to Bourdieu's theory of social space as such but nevertheless discusses the dynamics of such a space in education) is a case in point. Another aspect of this theory that flows from the philosophy of the cosmonomic idea is the recognition of the twin principles of sphere sovereignty and *enkapsis* (interwovenness), the intricacies of which cannot be discussed here. Suffice it so say that these two principles encapsulate the idea that the relative autonomy of a social space in which education in the formative sense of the term occurs should be respected. Put differently, the principles of the parental home, for instance, cannot be imposed on the school. The school as a social space differs from the parental home as a social space, and that of the state differs from that of an education system, and this difference should be respected.

As mentioned, the theory also emphasizes another aspect or modality of reality, namely the ethical or moral aspect. The fact that there are so many definitions and views of ethics and morality provides educationists with enormous scope and instruments for examining and evaluating the behaviour of individuals and groups. Taking loving care of the interests of others, irrespective of how loving care is defined in practice, plays a key role in education. The core issue for educationists is to determine the extent to which ethical/moral norms find recognition and expression in the many social spaces where education occurs, as in an education system.

Application of *social space and ethical action and function theory* in comparative education

As the saying goes, the proof of the pudding is in the eating. The value of a theory can only be established when it is applied in practice for the purpose of understanding a particular situation, phenomenon or issue. The first application of the theory occurred at the Education and New Developments Conference held in Lisbon in June 2017 (Van der Walt, 2017). In that particular case, the theory was applied to an examination of neoliberalism and its impact on education. The second application followed soon after that in an article in the *HTS Theological Studies* (Van der Walt, 2017b) in which it was employed to examine the various responses to neoliberalism and their impact on education. The theory was subsequently applied, albeit in passing, in an article on forgiveness education in *LitNet Education* (Van der Walt, 2017c). The theory itself was then discussed and expanded in an article in *In Luce Verbi* (Van der Walt, 2017d) and also applied in an article submitted to the *Journal for the Humanities* to the issue of forgiveness education as a possible solution to the violence and anomie currently experienced in the world (currently in press). In conjunction with co-educationist Wolhuter it was subsequently applied in two further publications currently under review. It was also applied in a book chapter with co-author Andressen on the issue of TVET in England (in process of publication). In all these cases, the theory proved to be useful as a conceptual-theoretical lens for examining educational issues. Generally

speaking, the theory was favourably received by the reviewers of these publications. The most recent application of the theory (at the time of writing this paper) was in a paper for the Education and New Developments Conference, to be held in Budapest at the end of June 2018.

All these applications proved the theory to serve the purpose for which it was developed. It assists the researcher in demarcating and analysing the pedagogical space in question and to evaluate the moral and ethical acceptability (or not) of the behaviour of the actors in that particular space.

It could be useful as a comparative education instrument in that it provides the researcher with analytic instruments such as:

(1) What is typical of the social space occupied by a particular education system, such as that of Iran? To what can the uniqueness of this education system be ascribed?

(2) What are the constituent parts of the education system that occupies this particular social space? How do these parts cohere? What are the respective functions of these parts?

(3) How does this particular system cohere with other systems in Iranian society, for instance the political and economic system?

(4) How, and to what extent, does this system provide in the needs of the Iranian population; in other words, how and to what extent does this system comply with the ethical imperatives associated with education systems; put differently: to what extent does it show care for the interests of the community and the public that are served by it?

The theory could provide an endless list of analytical instruments such as these. The theory furthermore provides the researcher with a number of analytic tools (the modalities of reality, ante- and retrocipations, sphere sovereignty and universality, for instance) for a proper analysis of social spaces such as those occupied by education systems and the ethical compliance of such systems within those spaces. It is clear from the above that the theory could be an appropriate research instrument for examining education issues in the modern world (the theme of our Conference this year).

Another strong point of the theory is that it is neither prescriptive nor restrictive. Put differently, it allows the researcher to decide on the width and depth of analysis of both the social space and the behaviour of the actors therein.

Conclusion

The development of a scholarly theory is an ongoing task that involves a number of steps:

- A survey and critical evaluation of extant theories about a particular state of affairs, educational problem or phenomenon.
- The conception of a theory that would enable the researcher to circumnavigate (some of) the shortcomings of extant theories.
- The collection of building bricks for a "new" theory (while at the same time avoiding the pitfalls of eclecticism).
- The exposition of the key notions of the theory.
- Tentative application of the theory.

- Constant attempts at refuting and fine-tuning the theory.

The development of a "new" theory of education remains a work in progress.

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"CHAT"-ting up Anatheism in Search of Authentic and Credible Religious Memories

Abstract

This paper explores Anatheism as a pedagogically justifiable theory for teaching our learners how to acquire new memories about life- and worldview diversity, as well as religious diversity, and also how to accompany each other so that whosoever wants to, may return home to a more credible God after they might have started to doubt the credibility of their original faith. It demonstrates how Cultural-Historical Activity Theory (CHAT) can be used to teach the tenets of Anatheism in order to help learners transform such religious doubts and memories.

Keywords: Anatheism, Cultural-Historical Activity Theory (CHAT), hospitality education, tolerance education

> *At the deepest level, every human being remains an enigma to his/her fellow human being. In a foreign language, you can learn how to sing their nursery rhymes and learn to understand the origins of a people's national holidays. Yet, exactly in this learning process, lies the difference between the stranger that you are and the representative of "mineness"[i] that you can never be.*
>
> Den Doolaard, A. (1958): *Het Leven van een Landloper* (Eng. *The Life of a Tramp*). Amsterdam: Em. Querido Uitgeverij. (Translation: FJP)

Introduction: Strangers versus representatives of "mineness"

The international community reflects growing social trends such as increasing dogmatic and confessional fusion between followers of different religious denominations (Pew Research Center, 2017, pp. 4-5), religious *de*-traditionalization, secularization (specifically as it relates to "*de*-churching"), increasing diversity and, in the case of, for example, the Netherlands and Belgium, also religious depillarization (Huyse, 1987; Akkermans, 1997; Miedema et al., 2013; Vermeer, 2013; Bernts & Berghuijs, 2016; Franken & Vermeer, 2017). These trends are increasingly challenging the educational aims and supporting pedagogies of current life- and worldview, ethics and philosophy of education programs worldwide (Loobuyck & Franken, 2011; Loobuyck, 2014; Franken & Vermeer, 2017, p. 1). As a result, religious tolerance and ritualized hospitality – despite a chequered history of good intentions – are forfeiting their credibility, because it is increasingly believed that both exhibit essentially passive-barring and exclusively inward-reflecting behavior, instead of active, embracing and inclusive, outward-engaging behavior (i.e. "*away-from-the-self-towards-the-other-as-stranger*").

Recent research suggests that the "traditional" memories about life- and worldview diversity, as well as religious diversity which had been regulating and organizing multicultural, intercultural and trans-human behavior across the globe for

centuries, are fast reaching the end of their credibility shelf-lives and *convince-by* dates (De Jong 2017; Doerga, De Ruiter & Ter Avest, 2017; Franken, 2017; Garlock, 2017; Lähnemann, 2017; Niemandt, 2010; Rautionmaa & Kallioniemi, 2017; Sahin, 2017; Spangenberg & Oosthuizen, 2017; Wielzen & Ter Avest, 2017; Van der Meij, 2017).

I argue that this should be a *Kairos*-moment for all educators and educationists: the time has come for us to explore pedagogically justifiable ways of teaching our learners and students (a) how to acquire new memories about life- and worldview diversity, as well as religious diversity, and also (b) how to accompany each other so that whosoever wants to, may return home to a more credible God after they might have started to doubt their original faith[ii]. In this regard, Anatheism seems to be offering ground-breaking opportunities, amongst others because it works back from the experience of God-loss towards a genuine renewal of the sacred in order to recover forward a second, more mature faith. It finds footing in the space between theism and atheism with a gesture of genuine **non**-knowing[iii] (take note: *not* ignorance; instead: 'absence of knowledge'), but willing to seek, question and learn, aligning itself with the venerable traditions of Socrates, Nicholas of Cusa, Kierkegaard, Husserl or even that moment of perplexity which typically impels seeking and questioning in the first place.

The anatheist alternative

As long ago as 1883, Nietzsche (1883, pp. 400-401) wrote[iv]:

Der Gott, der Alles sah, auch den Menschen, dieser Gott musste sterben! Der Mensch erträgt es nicht, dass solch ein Zeuge lebt.

Anatheism (Kearney, 2008, 2011) offers an alternative by investigating the possibility of a "God after God" (Gr. *ana-theos*): "ana" – seeking 'after' (i.e. towards/relentlessly in the direction of) God 'after' (i.e. subsequent to) the death of God (Samuel, 2013, n.p.). It searches for modern meaning in ancient religious ideas by jettisoning the inherent tribalism that continues to characterize the mythical reinforcement of all major religions worldwide. It deliberately forges new meanings, new contexts and new justifications from them (Friedman, 2014, n.p.). It bids *adieu* to the God of metaphysics and traditional religion whose surname has (for too) long been "Almighty". Having declared the antiquated religious and metaphysically oriented epoch over, it would seem that humanity is finally poised to focus its efforts on searching for a return to faith after the loss of faith (Burkey, 2010, pp. 160-161; Khwan, 2013, n.p.).

Applying Ricoeur's hermeneutics, Kearney explains how it might be possible – after Nietzsche's argument to pronounce God dead – to return home to a more authentic and credible idea of God. The death of the old, established God(s) has paved the way for a new religious-educational methodology (i.e. a more responsible way of engaging with, exploring, ascribing meaning to, understanding, teaching and learning how to adopt those phenomena that we might regard as belonging to the realm of the "divine"). This methodology does not, however, represent a portal to a new religion. It is also not a methodological modification of secularism (Burkey, 2010, p. 160). As a mode of "inter-confessional[v] hospitality" (Kearney, 2008, p. 9), Anatheism offers a kind of roadmap for agnostics who might be doubting the

relevance, credibility and feasibility of the God behind their own, personal faith (Khwan, 2013, n.p.). Returning to God ("God after God") with the use of this roadmap does not, however, constitute a religious homecoming. Instead, it suggests a hermeneutical homecoming, because it has the potential to transform the wanderer's initial religious doubts, disbeliefs, uncertainties and ensuing disillusionment gradually into a trustworthy, reasonable, contemplative, practical and considered conceptualization of God (Samuel, 2013, n.p.).

Anatheism does not promise any salvation or religious certainties, either. Instead, it demonstrates a particular means through which ordinary people can engage themselves in more significantly hospitable ways in the world (Samuel, 2013, ibid). Having analyzed the Abrahamic tradition(s), as well as the literary tradition of the West, Kearney's thesis (2011) is that the ontological and epistemological gravitas of human kind's home-coming to God ("God after God") is mostly located in the kind of vulnerable[vi], yet authentic hospitality that gets offered to the *Stranger*. Anatheism therefore refers, essentially, to a primordial, original, preparatory, liminal, shared and ineffable genesis point that is located at the center of every great religion, namely a silent, speechless openness to a message that transcends all of us: a surplus of meaning that exceeds all our different beliefs, and a mystical ground of what is most fundamental in each religion and which is not easily translatable into language but rather borders on a common profound, revered silence (Kearney, 2011, p. 179). He demonstrates how it is possible for those who persist in their efforts, to return to a more liberating faith (Burkey, 2010, pp. 160-166).

When we decide to accept God, against this backdrop, it means that we accept him/her fundamentally as *Stranger*. The points of reference of this process of acceptance are not, however, located in any Holy Scriptures, rituals, prayers, existential certainties or even in particular fulfilment of wishes. Instead, they are to be found in the manner in which we are prepared as people to involve ourselves actively, hospitably and purposefully in and with the world (Samuel, 2013, n.p.). For this reason, the remainder of my paper enquires into the pedagogic potential of Cultural-Historical Activity Theory (CHAT)[vii]. It suggests how, for example, simulation games could be used as classroom-based pedagogic tools to accompany learners (on a personal level) in their search for new, authentic and credible religious memories that could, in turn, help to augment their social awareness in an expanding international context of what is now emerging as *neo*-reconciliation pedagogy.

CHAT as pedagogic vehicle for using anatheism

CHAT is based on the neo-Vygotskian notion of activity theory (De Beer & Henning, 2011, pp. 1-2). Modernised by Engeström (2009), it argues that human practice (including life- and worldview, faith-based, religious practice) is always mediated by tools (Mentz & De Beer, 2017, p. 90). It claims that no human activity or interaction can be explained without due reference to the relevant social and cultural contexts that are at play. This implies that also the religious behavior of people will always be embedded in a particular socio-cultural activity system that usually operates on three levels, namely the personal, interpersonal and institutional (or community) level (Van Jaarsveld, Mentz & Ellis, 2017, pp. 805, 806).

Viewed from a CHAT-perspective, a religiously disillusioned learner's search for new, authentic and credible religious memories constitutes "pedagogic activity".

Such pedagogic activities are made up of the shared, coordinated actions of a wide variety of role-players and stakeholders with diverging roles and expertise: the learner(s) themselves, the classroom-based teacher, the subject head, the grade head, members of the professional management team of the school, designated members of the school's governing body, faith-based leaders in the community, parents and legal caregivers, etcetera. A subject (e.g. the classroom-based teacher) initiates and coordinates the searching-activities of her religiously disillusioned learners. While the resultant behavior of all individual role-players and stakeholders have relevance to their respective roles, mandates and objectives, all action is steered by a concerted, conjoint motive (e.g. to assist our religiously disillusioned learners in their attempts to search for new, authentic and credible religious memories) (Van Jaarsveld, Mentz & Ellis, 2017, p. 805).

If the objective of our activities includes the pedagogic accompaniment of learners and development of their knowledge and skills with respect to voluntary exhibition of religious tolerance and vulnerable hospitality behavior, hospitality as way of life, forgiveness, authentic dialogue, authentic listening, always putting the Stranger first and only then thinking of the self, etcetera, then any classroom-based simulated enactment of the above presupposes two outcomes: a deeper understanding of what lies at the root of a different religious tradition, and second, an opportunity for self-critique of one's own religious tradition, of what is undiscovered or underdeveloped in one's own tradition. In any case, the divine Stranger is always an infinite Other incarnate in finite others and through authentic dialogue something more, something unassimilable calls both educator and learner to transcend themselves and to engage in previously unenvisioned, virtually impossible acts of grace, hope, charity, and wonder.

Within a structured teaching and learning environment (e.g. a school classroom) active teaching and learning strategies, authentic dialogue strategies, authentic listening skills, sympathy and empathy training, problem-based interpersonal skills, etcetera can all be safely employed within the ambit of the rules and regulations of relevant curriculum guidelines, the school's code of learner conduct, etcetera, to facilitate the learners' search for authentic and credible religious memories. As critical, reflective practitioners, both educators and learners participate in the simulation games and, in the process, the classroom-space becomes an emancipatory space – for the self, as well as for the Stranger.

Operationalised in this manner, CHAT elevates Anatheism beyond all possible allegations of a method for instigating "super humanism" or "super civil behavior". Instead, Anatheism requires of the educator to teach the learner how to respond appropriately to the radical surprise of the Stranger as an invitation to faith; to make the impossible possible, to bring justice where there is hate, wisdom where there is ignorance.

This brief attempt at highlighting the affordances and versatility of CHAT as pedagogic vehicle in the classroom, hopefully illustrates how Anatheism could be used to develop a more nuanced understanding of teachers', educators' and learners' attempts to search for the possibility of a "God after God" in a post-truth society (Mentz & De Beer, 2017, p. 101).

Conclusion

Complex situations that plague contemporary education, such as pedagogic attempts to assist religiously disillusioned learners in their attempts to return to faith after (their own) loss of faith, is what makes CHAT such a powerful pedagogic resource. It takes the historical, cultural and socio-economic context of the individual learner into consideration when implementing current life- and worldview, ethics and philosophy education programs worldwide. An anatheist approach supported by CHAT-based pedagogy that allows for taking the holistic context of the learner into consideration holds promise to assist educators and educationists alike in proposing solutions to the growing numbers of learners worldwide who are searching for a more authentic and credible idea of God than the one they have been confronted with since birth.

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[i] In the original Dutch, the word "inboorling" was used. The best English translation of this concept is, arguably, either "aborigine" or "native". However, to millions of people across the world, these words continue to communicate derogatory and insulting evidence of the (recurring) reproduction of social division and derision. I have therefore decided to borrow Rudi Visker's phrase *representative(s) of "mineness"* (1994: 91) to refer to the Dutch noun "inboorling". Given the temporal-spatial context in which Den Doolaard had used this concept in 1958, I am satisfied that Rudi Visker's *representative(s) of "mineness"* is not only linguistically more accurate, but socially perhaps a more just and nondiscriminatory translation.

[ii] After, for example, Auschwitz-Birkenau, 9/11 and the farm-murders in South Africa...

[iii] Its captivating honesty requests from theists, atheists and agnostics alike a tempering of the tendency towards dogmatic and confessional certainty and the kind of snobbish, exaggerated and pretentious self-assuredness that more often than not lies in the unspoken monologue between a believer and a non-believer: "You poor, wretched creature. You don't know the truth. Mine is the only true faith…"

[iv] "The God who beheld everything, and also Man: that God had to die! Man cannot endure it that such a witness should live." (Nietzsche, F. 1883, pp. 400-401) (Translation – FJP).

[v] Personally, I find the term "inter-confessional" to be religiously too restrictive. I prefer the term "trans-confessional", instead. Methodologically we are, however, not nearly there yet.

[vi] As opposed to the old-fashioned kind of ritualized hospitality that is fast losing its moral credibility at present. (*Vulnerable hospitality*© – FJP)

[vii] This paper assumes that the reader is sufficiently familiar with Cultural-Historical Activity Theory – both as scientific method, and as methodology (i.e. as theory of science).

Lynette Jacobs

Reflecting on a University Partnership Project in Underprivileged South African Schools

Abstract

Over many years, universities that offer teacher education programmes have been in partnerships of different kinds with schools. Not only are schools sites of research for faculty members, but student teachers get workplace experience during practicums. In the post-modern world, there is emphasis on amelioration at grassroots level, instead of only at systems level. The sentiment is that school-university partnerships should benefit schools as much as their higher education partners. In this paper, we reflect on the first seven years of a university-school partnership project. The purpose of the partnership was in part to improve the school results of potential students from underprivileged feeder areas towards access to higher education programmes. Looking back, some successes can be claimed, as the relative success of learners in the project schools has improved notably. Still, the project has to find ways to remain financially sustainable, and to expand the project to ECD and primary schools, in particular to improve numeracy and literacy skills of young children.

Keywords: mentorship, leadership, access

Introduction

Amongst many other things, it is the task of higher education institutions (HEIs) to work with schools in their regions. Inter alia, HEIs could contribute to staff development and help prepare learners for post-school education (Officer et al., 2013). Examples of such partnerships show the value thereof. In England, one option for teaching students is school-based training (Hilton, 2017). Officer et al. (2013) report on partnerships between school communities and universities in the USA to turn around, what they call, failing schools. Furthermore, around the world, teaching students do their practicum at schools and faculty members do research amongst schools (Walsh & Backe, 2013). Partnerships between universities and schools are thus commonplace.

In the post-modern world, the nature of such partnerships, particularly where there might be a power differential, must be scrutinised. Carnwell and Carson (2009, p. 7) emphasise that a partnership is "a shared commitment, where all partners have a right and an obligation to participate and will be affected equally by the benefits and disadvantages arising from the partnership". They list specific defining attributes to partnership, including trust, working together, sharing vested interests, having common aims and objectives, mutual benefit, and compassion for one another. Walsh and Backe (2013) stress that partnerships between schools and universities should not mainly benefit the latter, and that the needs of schools should be recognised.

The needs in South African schools are very real 24 years into a new dispensation. While certain milestones have undoubtedly been reached, such as over

98% of children being enrolled in schools (Modisaotsile, 2012), the vast majority of schools are still underprivileged and many are under-resourced. Furthermore, the performance of South African learners in international benchmark tests sketches a grim picture, even compared to other countries in the region, and many learners who enter school never complete it (Jacobs, 2016; Jacobs, Stals & Leroy, 2016; Van der Walt, 2016). Moreover, Modisaotsile (2012) found that teachers in many of the lower quintile schools are regularly absent and teach fewer hours than their counterparts in the higher quintile schools. She also highlighted challenges in terms of the management and governance of these schools. In spite of many efforts to change the situation, and a relatively large percentage of the GDP spent on education, what she calls 'the failing standards of basic education' contribute to sustaining the cycle of poverty in indigent communities. There is general agreement about the challenges faced in the South African education system, and many external stakeholders have come on board in an attempt to improve the situation. One such an example is the School Partnership Project (SPP) of the University of the Free State (UFS).

Rationale and statement of the problem

The FSP is one of nine provinces of South Africa. It is a rural province, with its inhabitants forming 5% of the 55.7 million people of the country. The youth population in the province remains at about 37% and, according to Ngyende and Khoza (2016) in 2011, only 22% of persons aged 20 years and older in the province have completed secondary schooling. The latter statistics have profound implications for the children who are still at school, as parental support is limited, and the vast majority of adults in the province certainly never entered higher education. In 2010, 30 516 FSP learners enrolled for the final Grade 12 examination, but only 27 586 actually wrote (Department of Basic Education, 2011). This constitutes a dropout of 9.6%. Of those that wrote, only 5 890 received Bachelor passes, which allow them university access. This is a mere 21.4% of the learners who wrote and 19.3% of those who initially enrolled. If one takes into account the more than 28 500 learners from this cohort who dropped out from the system in earlier years (Department of Basic Education, 2011; Department of Education, 2002), one can argue that we are creating a lost generation in the country. The overall pass rate in the Free State (FSP) for this year was only 70.7%, and the province was ranked 5th amongst the others. Looking at scarce subjects, only 3 422 (12.4%) of the candidates passed Mathematics and only 2 854 (10.3%) passed Physical Science. These statistics do not only have implications for the individual learners and those communities, in terms of breaking the cycle of poverty, but it certainly also had implications for the UFS, which states part of its mission as "[a]dvancing social justice by creating multiple opportunities for disadvantaged students to access the university" (University of the Free State, 2018).

Towards advancing social justice, the UFS engaged with different role-players and in particular with schools in the feeder areas of the institution to change things around. In the summative foundational document (Jansen, 2011) towards the Schools Partnership Project (SPP), seven key problems were highlighted that threaten sustainable change in schools. They were: 1) learners not receiving the required teaching time; 2) lack of subject matter knowledge amongst teachers; 3)

teachers lacking pedagogical knowledge; 4) lack of instructional leadership amongst school principals; 5) lack of parental involvement; 6) lack of necessary resources; and 7) lack of consistent investment by external stakeholders (Jansen, 2011). In this document, the strategic objectives were outlined, which include improving the quality of passes in scarce subjects, developing leadership and management, providing support to schools "to strengthen the social fibre of the school and the community", and to increase opportunities for access to universities (Jansen, 2011).

The project commenced on a small scale in 2011, and by mid-2012 it was up and running. Nearly seven years into the project, it was time to reflect and consider the road ahead. This paper provides an overview of these considerations, and is the first of a number of papers that will follow, focusing on particular issues within the project.

Methodology

I took a qualitative approach, generating data through interviews and documents generated over the 7-year period. The latter provided me with secondary data, both qualitative and quantitative. The interviews took the form of unstructured discussions on the project, with two colleagues (the current project coordinator "Mike", and one administrator "June") from the SPP unit. I requested permission to scrutinise reports generated over time, including annual reports to funders of the project. Afterwards I send the paper to the two participants, as well as the relevant Director, to validate my interpretations.

Findings

Evolvement since the beginning

Initially, a retired colleague was, in 2010, tasked with getting the project off the ground. Mike explained:

Invitations were sent to all the secondary schools in two of the districts. They could apply [to be part of the project], and had to indicate what they would like the project to achieve.

Based on the inputs from the schools, the founding document was finalised. They liaised with the Free State Department of Education (FSDoE) and the South African Democratic Teachers Union. The project then started, with one mentor, a retired school principal ("Harry"), who was also an Accounting expert. Mike explained:

Harry visited the 23 schools who applied, and evaluated the situation at each. His initial target was to assist the grade 12s with Accounting and he based his support on a workshop model. He would get all [the learners] from Thaba'Nchu for instance, in one venue, and present a workshop, and then all those in Botshabelo, and present a workshop again. He would present these in the afternoons.

However, the intention from the onset was that there would be mentors for the school principals and then also specialist mentors for Mathematics, Physical Science, and Accounting, and indeed this was launched mid-2012. Through sponsorships enough funding was available to appoint mentors in clusters of five schools each. This meant that the group of mentors could visit a different school

every day of the week for the whole day and do it on a weekly basis. They assisted different Mathematics, Physical Science and Accounting teachers, as well as members of the School Management Team (SMT). Since those early days, the project matured. It expanded to other schools and other districts.

Mike explained that annually the size of the project depends on the funding secured.

> *The project expanded to also include schools in other areas, not only in the Free State but also in Mpumalanga and the Eastern Cape. However funding limits us. At one stage, we had 30 mentors in the project with more than 70 schools. That was 2014/15. For a while, we had mentors for primary schools just to assist with the management, and that project ran for 3 years. We learnt valuable lessons.*

Currently the project runs at 17 schools (from two districts in the FSP and one in the Eastern Cape).

Modus operandi

At the start of the project, the focus was on pass rate. June explained: "The FSDoE and the sponsors wanted to see an improvement in matric results, and that meant pass rate". Mike however pointed out that currently, the focus is on improving the number of quality passes and increasing the admission points of the learners.

> *From the start of the project the focus was on teachers; by empowering the teacher with content and pedagogical knowledge we could improve the performance of the whole class group.*

The mentors go to the schools once or twice a fortnight. Mike shared:

> *You physically go to the schools; the principal mentor sits in the offices with the principals, and works with the principals and the SMTs, attends meetings, and supports them. The subject mentor goes to the subject teachers; sits in the classes, and assists and supports.*

He stressed that it is important to first build a relationship, so as to not be seen as impostors. He acknowledged that it initially took some time to build such relationships, but that they are now fully accepted. The sustainability of the change was emphasised, even if those project teachers then move to a non-project school, learners will benefit. He share that they "realised that learners with potential to achieve higher marks were being left behind with this over-emphasis on pass rate". Thus learners with Bachelor passes, but low AP scores, and learners that just missed their Bachelor passes, were identified and given extra classes and encouragement. This enabled many learners to successfully apply for tertiary education.

Social support

Mike shared that apart from the principal and subject mentors, there is currently also one mentor who specifically focus on social development. Harry is still involved and dedicated to the social support for the schools in the two townships in one district. In these areas, gangsterism and drug abuse is rife. He works to get the school-based support teams going again, so that learners who need support can be identified. Harry even physically drives the social workers and other professionals to the schools. Mike explained:

A big problem is drugs. We assist to get those kids referred to rehab centres. We work with an NGO, who then goes to the schools, shares information with the learners, and assists to get those that need to, to rehab.

Furthermore, there is one mentor who informs learners about getting access to university. She supports the learners in the process of application, and once they enrol at the institution, she provides support to bridge the gap between school and university. She also provides support for the senior students.

Achievements

Although there are many other similar projects in the province and the efforts of the teachers and the FSDoE need to be acknowledged, a comparison between the SPP schools and a control group of schools suggest that the project is making a significant impact. Overall, in 2017, as in 2016, the FSP was ranked first in terms of their Grade 12 results, with an 86.1% pass (Department of Basic Education, 2018). Comparing the SPP schools to the control group, the percentage pass difference changed from -4.07 in 2011 to +7.06 over a six year period. In 2014, the control group schools had a 19.8% Bachelor pass and the project schools' was 20.2%. In 2017 our schools achieved a 32.4% Bachelor pass, compared to the control group who achieved a 25.2% Bachelor pass. Furthermore, the number of students enrolled from Thaba'Nchu and Botshabelo project schools increased from 33 in 2012, to 88 in 2017.

Challenges

The biggest challenge that the SPP faces is financial sustainability, being fully dependent on sponsorships. Mike explains: "Although we want to stress that we believe interventions should start at an earlier stage, it is something that neither the sponsors nor the Department of Education initially wanted to acknowledge". The focus thus remains on the exit-level examination, although some ground was won: "It was even a battle to convince them to include Grade 8 and 9, but at least that is happening" (Mike). Still, a submission has been made to potential sponsors about a primary school project, and the project management will continue to look for funding.

Touching lives

Above all, the lives of individuals are touched through the project. A current UFS student gave feedback:

I come from a family of five. My mother is unemployed. My father is a car guard. He relies on the generosity of motorists, which means that he sometimes comes back home empty handed and we often sleep with an empty stomach. The mentors at my school provided me with an entry form to enter the "Star of the stars". Because of my outstanding academic performance, I was chosen as one of the top 11 finalists, and came out as the top winner. The support we got from the mentors contributed to me getting a distinction in Maths. I was awarded [a] full scholarship by the UFS to study Actuarial science.

Not only are the lives of youth changed, but the lives of teachers certainly are as well. A project member shared the story of "Mr Mokoena":

> *At the start of the project Mr Mokoena had no knowledge of Expo [a science fair], [but he] immediately showed an interest when [the mentor] introduced it to him. A group of his learners was the first to participate in 2014. By 2016 Mr Mokoena was mentoring 20 learners from three schools, as well as coordinating an Expo community of practise in the area. Under the mentorship of [the mentor] he went from an unqualified volunteer, called in to fill in temporarily for an absent teacher, to a highly valuable member of staff who is on his way to becoming a qualified teacher. He continues to voluntarily allow learners to work on his computers at home. He also provides extra Science and Maths lessons to children in the neighbourhood, and provides ICT skill to anyone who asks him for it.*

Looking ahead

The SPP unit is determined to find sponsorships to continue the support they provide in schools. Furthermore, it is vital to expand to primary schools and ECD units. Expanding the project to also include recreational activities at schools such as sport and drama is a dream, as it could help curb the many social problems that exist.

Conclusion

The SPP at the UFS is a partnership in which the institution, the FSDoE, the schools and individuals benefit. Based on a grounds-up approach, not only does the project contribute to the advancement of quality education in the project schools, whilst opening up access to HEIs, it touches the lives of individual teachers and learners. This is, however, not possible without the financial support from philanthropists and commerce.

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Agnetha Arendse & Juliana Smith

Economic Transformation and Emancipation through Active Citizenship Education

Abstract

The transition from apartheid to democracy necessitated radical transformation within the South African political, socio-economic and education landscape. Black and coloured students were only fit for unskilled or semi-skilled occupations resulting in under-qualified and poorly trained professionals. Since the inception of democracy, there was a need to respond to the needs of a modern democratic South African society. The need for economic transformation emerged from the inheritance of an economy built on exclusion due to racial division and inequalities. There was a need for curriculum and economic intervention to include fundamental principles of citizenship education to promote human rights, democracy and active citizenry. This paper discusses the manner in which active citizenship education can bring about economic transformation in a modern developing democracy in South Africa. Through a conceptual framework, the paper also demonstrates the evolution of citizenship with the notion of critical emancipation through active citizenship education.

Keywords: active citizenship education, global citizenship education, South Africa

Introduction

Since 1994, South Africa has undergone radical transformation making it possible for people to stand together and build one country that belongs to all who live in it. During this period, previously disenfranchised South Africans were enfranchised embarking on transformation from apartheid to a democracy. South Africa celebrates 24 years of democracy embedded in Chapter Two of the Constitution, the Bill of Rights, the cornerstone of democracy in South Africa. It enshrines the rights of all South Africans and affirms the democratic values of human dignity, equality and freedom (Constitution of RSA, 1996, p. 6).

Democracy brought about a need for radical economic transformation due to the inheritance of an economy built on exclusion due to racial division and inequalities (DPME, 2014). The legacy of apartheid still haunts us today in the form of skills shortages and the immense challenge of transforming the education and training system to one capable of producing the skills required by a rapidly growing economy amidst the fourth industrial revolution. Providing young people with economic and social environments that facilitate prosperity, and the skills to thrive in them, impacts the lives of individuals and the communities in which they live (CYFI, 2012).

Education reform became the vehicle for radical transformation responding to a need for the education system to make many curriculum changes (Schoeman, 2006) including principles of citizenship education promoting active citizenry, equality, non-sexism, non-racialism and non-discrimination (Arendse, 2014).

Conceptual framework

Economic transformation

Transformation means to dramatically change in form, appearance or structure (Daszko & Sheinberg, 2005). Economic transformation can be defined as a dramatic change in the economy of a country. Apartheid restricted the majority of South Africans from meaningful participation in the economy. It was shaped by apartheid policies built on systematically enforced exclusion linked to racial division (DPME, 2014). This radically changed in 1994 since the main economic objectives of government was job creation, elimination of poverty and the reduction of inequality. The State of the Nation Address reiterates that political freedom is incomplete without economic emancipation (SONA, 2017). This demonstrates commitment by South Africa to continue driving socio-economic transformation for the good of the country, directly linking to the notion of active citizenry. The state acknowledges that transformation has been slow despite the implementation of legislation relating to the transformation agenda. Despite the slow pace, there is a focus on sustainable economic growth, reiterated in legislation and policies, as captured in the National Development Plan (NDP). The NDP is a 20-year plan for the country, which includes operational plans dealing with socio-economic and political development (NDP, 2012). Radical economic transformation remains a priority (SONA, 2018) with education as a pre-requisite to empower and educate the children to break the cycle of poverty. The ideal is to strive for an equitable society through education especially for the marginalised. The State of the Nation Address (SONA, 2018) adopts the notion of 'becoming agents of change', speaking to the teachings of Paulo Freire stating that schools should become agents of change. For radical economic transformation, citizens should all strive to be agents of change.

Citizenship education

Citizenship can be defined as a set of relationships between rights, duties, participation in the civic community and identity (Delanty, 2000) regarded as a social contract between the individual. It is expressed when individuals participate in the political framework relating to public affairs (Giroux, 1995). Citizens are thus members of a state with access to civil, political and socio-economic rights. Citizenship in developing democracies are challenged with issues such as race, class and represents a complex dynamic involving these social constructs, as they relate to changing social, political and economic imperatives (Spreen & Vally, 2012).

The education system should thus be responsive to the need whereby citizens be informed about their rights and responsibilities that goes with the inherent state membership as a citizen (Schoeman, 2006) for people to contribute as citizens of a democratic society within political and socio-economic contexts.

Education should go beyond the confines of the school and the internet and find its way into homes and the broader community including the global society (Philippou, Keating & Ortloff, 2009). Teaching citizenship in schools empowers citizens from a young age to make meaningful contributions to society and thus becoming responsible and active citizens. Through education, citizens become aware of their environment and the social and economic options available to them (Kuye, 2007).

Citizenship education rooted in knowledge, understanding, skills and competencies, develops capabilities for responsible participation in political, socio-economic and cultural life. Empowered and capable citizens may therefore understand their roles within society, be able to make informed decisions about matters pertaining to their own well-being, and contribute politically and socio-economically to the broader community. The education system, through curricular, is the ideal platform to introduce and nurture the knowledge, skills, values and attitudes of good citizenship by reaching the masses of the children of the nation. Giroux (1995, p. 6) reiterates that public schools must assist in the work of preparing citizens for self-governance in an evolving political, socio-economic environment.

Global citizenship education

Global citizenship refers to a sense of belonging to a broader community and common humanity with an emphasis on political, socio-economic and cultural interdependency and interconnectedness between the local, national and global (UNESCO, 2015). A global citizen is someone who identifies with being part of an emerging world community and whose actions contribute to building this community's values and practices (Israel, 2012). It is about shared identities that cross boundaries and is practiced through voluntary association (Schattle, 2007).

The shift to global citizenship recognizes the relevance of education in understanding and resolving global issues in political, cultural, socio-economic and environmental areas (UNESCO, 2014). In a globalized world, education is putting more emphasis on equipping individuals from an early age throughout life, with the knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviours they need to be informed, engaged and empathetic citizens (UNESCO, 2014).

Citizenship education has evolved within the global context with an emphasis on cultivating a notion of allegiance beyond one's country to universal principles of justice, diversity, and the worldwide community of human beings (Banks, 2004). Education for meaningful democratic citizenship therefore requires citizens to share a subjective sense of national citizenship membership whilst cultivating a common allegiance to the global citizenship (Williams, 2003). Global Citizenship places greater responsibility for the world in the hands of ordinary citizens to ensure it becomes central to the political and economic development of society (Penner & Sanderse, 2017).

South Africa as a member state of various unions economically participates in international trading and has international treaties and agreements with other countries, which inherently makes us global citizens. We therefore participate in global initiatives such as the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) with its Agenda 2030 focusing on Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). Sustainable development is about ensuring inclusive and equitable quality education and promote life-long learning opportunities for all, by ensuring that learners acquire knowledge and skills needed to promote sustainable development for sustainable development and sustainable lifestyles (Osborn, Cutter & Ullah, 2015).

Furthermore, the United Nations Agenda 2030 vision speaks to aspects relating to human rights, respect, equality, education, climate, poverty, health and inclusivity, economic, social, political and environmental objectives. It is encouraging to note that as a member state, South Africa pledged to conform to the

UN Agenda 2030 to ensure key education elements such as quality education for all whereby all citizens should have access to life-long learning opportunities that help them acquire the knowledge and skills needed to exploit opportunities and to participate fully in society (UN, 2015).

Active citizen education

Citizenship is about membership, legal status and practice (Honohan, 2005) and regarded as members of a state who have access to civil, political, socio-economic rights. Active citizenship is not just about access to rights and obligations. It recognises self-reliance, defending social and economic rights and includes wider responsibilities to actively participate in society and democratic processes (Honohan, 2005; Pinnington & Schugurensky, 2009). Education becomes pivotal in that citizens would be able to make meaningful contributions in society when they are well informed and educated which brings about a renewed interest, locally and internationally, in learning for active citizenship (Halpern, John & Morris, 2002). Learning for active citizenship includes access to skills and competencies that young people need for effective economic participation under conditions of technological modernisation and economic globalisation.

Curriculum reform in South Africa has taken the lead in the transformation agenda with its main objective to equip learners with knowledge, values and skills that they can apply meaningfully in their daily lives to participate optimally in society, and is a curriculum based on the fundamental principles of active citizenship education (DBE, 2010). The transition from apartheid to democracy required radical education and economic transformation with new policies and mechanisms to address the inequalities of the past (Smith & Arendse, 2016). The Life Orientation subject was introduced and became compulsory after 1994 to deal with aspects relating to transformation (Sedibe, 2014). Life Orientation is the study of the self in relation to others and society which addresses skills, knowledge, and values about the self, the environment, responsible citizenship, a healthy and productive life, socio-economic engagement, recreation and physical activity, careers and career choices (DBE, 2011a; 2011b; 2011c; 2011d).

Citizens need to be equipped to manage their lives in the cultural and political environments in which they find themselves. By acquiring an education and developing skills, citizens young and old are enhancing their economic competitiveness. Every citizen can do something useful for the development of their country and do everything we can to live in better conditions (Shakaia, 2016).

Conclusion

Economic transformation can be achieved through active citizenship education despite the slow pace of transformation. This is evident in the South African context since embarking on democracy there has been many strides to achieve democratic socio-economic transformation. Since 1994, transformation is evident in almost every aspect with emphasis on curriculum reform based on fundamental principles of active citizenry, human rights, democracy and redress. Education as a prerequisite for any meaningful participation is evident in political, socio-economic emancipation demonstrating the value of active citizenship education beyond the classroom. Citizens will only be able to make meaningful contribution to society if

they are well informed and empowered to do so. In fact, many authors agree that education is a prerequisite for active and meaningful participation in democratic processes and society (Hooper, 2013; Kisby & Sloam, 2012; Cecchini, 2003; European Commission, 2007; UNESCO, 2005; Nelson & Kerr, 2005; Honohan, 2005; Houtzager & Acharya, 2010; Meyer, 1995; UNESCO, 1998; McKenzie, 1993).

Every citizen should be empowered and equipped to participate in political and socio-economic processes and activities that affect their daily lives (Arendse, 2014). Paulo Freire's theory of critical emancipation highlights this need and seeks to empower individuals so that they have the ability to actively participate in and contribute meaningfully to society (Freire, 1971). For people to become active citizens, education and access to resources are required to assist citizens to make their contributions to processes and society whether it be political or socio-economic resources.

Transformation in South Africa heavily relies on citizen participation to build a more equitable society where opportunity is not defined by race, gender, class or religion. This means taking radical steps to build people's capabilities through access to quality education and enabling access to employment and transforming ownership of the economy. This can be achieved through active citizenship education with its primary objective to develop human potential, of the whole person, enabling all citizens to participate as fully as possible in cultural, economic, political and social life (European Commission, 1998). Ultimately, active citizenship aims to educate, equip, develop the learner holistically to empower citizens to participate in a just society by improving and sustain their lives as active citizens politically, economically and socially.

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The Road to Recovery from Alcoholism and Addiction: Retribution or Restoration?

Abstract

According to the National Institute on Drug Abuse, the abuse of alcohol, tobacco, and illicit drugs in United States costs over 740 billion yearly (https://www.drugabuse.gov/related-topics/trends-statistics, accessed March 2018). However, statistics like this rarely include the toll that alcohol tobacco, and illegal drugs takes on family members, employers, educators, or the incredible number of accidental deaths from overdoses, car accidents, etc. This paper examines the historical ways that substance abuse has been dealt with in the US, and includes Portugal's and Germany's new policies toward addicts as a possible way forward. It focuses on education as a vehicle for restorative means of dealing with the addiction pandemic.

Keywords: alcoholism*, addiction*, substance abuse, retribution, restoration, harm reduction, the Twelve Steps, Alcoholics Anonymous, treatment

> *It should be noted that alcoholism is an addiction and that the two words are used somewhat interchangeably throughout this paper.*

Pete Schneller's vignette

I am an alcoholic and addict. Trust me, it was not a goal that I set for myself when I was in elementary school. It started out innocently enough; in fact, my first experience with alcohol at age twelve was like an answer to a prayer. My extreme shyness (aka social anxiety) disappeared, and under the influence of alcohol the world simply seemed like a better place. The comfort that alcohol gave me gradually dissipated, but by age twenty-two, I was a full-fledged alcoholic. Eventually my alcoholism and addiction cost me my family, many friends, and my sanity. Fortunately, after more than twenty years of heavy drinking and drug abuse, I sought help (perhaps in an odd way it sought me), and I'm now a recovering alcoholic and addict with almost thirty years of sobriety. I'm one of the lucky ones.

Introduction

It is estimated that twenty-three percent of Americans over the age of twelve have abused alcohol; additionally, more than ten percent have abused illicit drugs (US Department of Health and Human Services, 2014). Predictions for 2018 forecast over one hundred deaths from opiate overdose per day in the United States (Trust for America's Health, 2017). The US has already lost more people by overdose than in the Korean War, the Vietnam Conflict, and Desert Storm combined. Worldwide each year 3.3 million people die from alcohol (Smith, 2017). Dire statistics are endless and staggering; they signal an ongoing pandemic perhaps more devastating than the Black Plague, the Spanish Flu, and HIV combined. This

paper examines the history of alcoholism and addiction in the United States and briefly outlines the 'curative' measures, also known as treatment, harm reduction, and rehabilitation, that the US and other countries have taken to defeat this destructive disease of the mind, body, and spirit. It concludes with recommendations for proactive measures that may be help battle this overwhelming international problem and recommends several possible solutions involving education.

Brief history of alcoholism and addiction in the United States

The history of America not only celebrates inebriants, but also laments their destructive power. Susan Cheever's *Drinking in America* (2015) chronicles the United States' monumental history with alcohol. Her text starts with the alcohol rationing on the Mayflower and then details alcohol's use during the American Revolution through the Twentieth Century. Her book includes the Whiskey Rebellion, John Adam's family history with alcoholism, Susan B. Anthony (and the suffragettes), Prohibition, and concludes with the evolution of more modern temperance movements such as Alcoholics Anonymous.

Perhaps the most widely known part of America's history with alcohol is the 18th Amendment to the United States Constitution. The nationwide prohibition of alcohol began on December 29, 1920 and ended with the passage of the 21st Amendment on December 5, 1933. During the later part of the 19th Century and early part of the 20th Century, widespread attention had been drawn to the alcohol problem in the US; however, the country was divided on the issue of prohibition. 'Wets' and 'Drys' battled over the practicality of prohibiting alcohol, and state and local laws were enacted and repealed with some rapidity prior to the 18th Amendment's ratification (White, 1998). During this period of time the source of the problem shifted from the problematic characteristics of alcohol to problems within the character of alcoholics (White, 1998). Prohibition made the distribution of alcohol illegal and personal use forbidden. Like narcotic drugs alcohol use went underground; however, there was still widespread use and misuse.

By 1960, America's counter to alcohol and drug addiction, the War-on-Drugs, a byproduct of alcohol's prohibition, was well under way. When the *Archives of General Psychiatry* reported that the almost twenty percent of the US soldiers in Vietnam were addicted to heroin, American politicians were terrified by the notion that when the Vietnam War ended a plethora of addicted veterans would roam US streets. Ironically within a year, ninety-five percent of the addicted veterans who returned from Vietnam stopped using heroin (Hari, 2015). Despite this, alcoholism was still an endemic problem, but drug use also increased as the hippie generation touted their newly found freedom, which was complicated by an experimentation with a preponderance of 'new' drugs such as marijuana, cocaine, mescaline, LSD, et al. Addiction was on the rise; the "War-on-Drugs" intensified.

Opiate use in the US is the current addictive curse. Beginning in the 1990's and continuing into the 21st Century, the escalation of America's drug problem was created by the unforeseen confluence of several circumstances, including: 1) the American Medical Association's claim that freedom from pain was a patient's right; 2) Dr. Jick's letter to the *New England Journal of Medicine* in 1980 which asserted that that patients being treated for pain rarely, if ever, became addicted; 3) the rise of smuggling of cheap black tar heroin to the US from Mexico; 4) huge profits and

advertising campaigns of pharmaceutical companies for oxycodone and other opiates; 5) the government's focused attention to the problems with addiction caused by doctors' over prescribing of pain medications; and 6) the introduction of pill mills (Quinones, 2015). When doctors were compelled to stop prescribing so many opiates, their pain patients found access to cheap heroin, and heroin addiction reached epidemic proportions, which increased the need for treatment.

Brief history of treatment of alcoholism and addiction in the United States

The precursor to treatment for alcoholism was the attention that Dr. Benjamin Rush brought to alcohol's use in the 18th Century. Dr. Rush, who was one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, conceived the notion that alcoholism was a disease. He also condemned alcohol use among soldiers of the American Revolution and recommended that farmers halt rationing alcohol to their workers. During the early part of 19th Century, despite temperance movements among the Washingtonians, a mutual-aid society organized by alcoholics as well as religious effort by Methodists, Congregationalists, and Presbyterians, treatment for alcoholism was generally an individual struggle with the goal of moderation, not total abstinence. In the mid-1800's Dr. Samuel Woodward, one of American's leading authorities on mental illness proposed that inebriate asylums be used for drunks as an alternative to jail, and the institutional care for the addicted began (White, 1998).

There have been many starts and stops to treatment for alcoholism and drug addiction. Economic forces, social and political factors, patient selectivity, environment bias, conflict within the field, ethical abuses, and problems with leadership all played a part in the way that inebriate homes and asylums were marginalized in respect to medicine, law, and religion. There were also two broad philosophies at work; one philosophy touted recovery as the recouping of physical and mental faculties, while the other required moral conversion. Methods of recovery also varied widely; some institutions focused on isolation and self-reflection, some concentrated on religious inspiration, while others included induced aversion and hydrotherapy. In the late 1800's aftercare for the predicaments that patients faced when they left the institution was considered in some humanitarian institutions. The franchising of treatment for alcoholics also became an issue; frauds as well as miracle remedies were publicized without attention to actual results (White, 1998).

Throughout the 20th Century, US problems with addiction and alcoholism escalated. However, the founding and evolution of Alcoholics Anonymous (AA) by Bill Wilson and Dr. Bob Smith increased treatment for alcoholism. Wilson and Smith devised a program of recovery that utilized Twelve Steps for restoring alcoholics to a more normal lifestyle. AA began in 1935 with just two members and by 1955 had 133,000 members, who based their sobriety on a psychic change and treated alcoholism as a disease of the mind, body, and spirit; AA asks its members to follow the Twelve Steps which are based on spiritual principles, such as relying on a higher power, seeking forgiveness, making amends to those harmed, and helping others in their pursuit of a better and sober life (Kurtz, 1978). Today's membership

in AA exceeds two million members with roughly 100,800 groups that meet in approximately 150 countries (Wilson, 2001).

In spite of the rise of AA, beginning in 1986 and running into the 90's, newspaper reports of crime and violence caused by cocaine and methamphetamine addiction combined with the federal money generated from the War-on-Drugs increased dollars available for treatment of drug and alcohol addiction (White, 1998). Rehabilitation became a booming business; in fact, according to the National Survey of Substance Abuse Treatment Services, by 2010 there were 13,339 rehab facilities that served 2.6 million people (Fletcher, 2013). Rehab facilities cater to a variety of alcoholics and addicts and offer in-patient and outpatient care. Most facilities use the Twelve Steps of Alcoholics Anonymous and tout individualized counseling; some utilize motivational enhancement therapy, medication, and cognitive behavioral therapy, which requires the trained therapists and doctors (Szalavitz, 2016). Unfortunately, the reporting of results is tenuous; other ethical issues regarding autonomy, compassion, privacy, honesty, confidentiality, and legal implications confound the success of rehab facilities.

Today's treatment for alcoholism and addiction - can the US learn from other countries?

As has been true in the past, treatment for addiction is mired in controversy. It is evident that America's War-on-Drugs has done little to stop, or even inhibit, the problem in the US. More harsh treatment of addicts has not stopped this problem in the Philippines, where President Duterte's War-on-Drugs demonstrates the inhumanity and futility of the violent treatment of suspected drug users. In 2017 over 12,000 lives have been lost during operations led by Philippine police at Duterte's command (Human Rights Watch, 2018). However, newer ideas such as Harm Reduction, which values compassion over punishment, and the decriminalization of drug use, offer hope. New Zealand is in the process of enacting a policy that regulates nationally approved recreational drugs. Uruguay has legalized all drugs. The United States could look to other countries that have managed to handle addiction proactively. Portugal and Germany are good examples of what a more humane approach to minimizing the damage created by the misuse of alcohol and drugs might entail.

In Portugal reforms include prevention programs, social education, harm reduction, treatment, and assistance in reintegrating addicts into society (Domostawki, 2011). Instead of imprisoning addicts and alcoholics, the Commission for Drug Dissuasion (CDD) processes their offenses as misdemeanors and applies sanctions according to the various conditions, such as what substances were used, the circumstances and place of use, and the economic situation of the user (Soares, 2016). Community service is utilized as a way to ease offenders back into society; health care (treatment) is also an option, but the individual must pay for the health care and the service provider must report to the CDD to determine whether or not the treatment must continue. "The highlight of Portugal's drug system is steering addicts away from the isolation of jail cells, to the more open arms of doctors, psychologists, social workers and therapeutic communities" (Bushak, 2016, p. 4). The Portuguese are hopeful that their unique way of handling addiction will continue to be effective.

Germany also provides a beacon of hope for those who break the law when either alcohol or drugs are involved. Their goal for prison is to rehabilitate prisoners and not to punish them. German prisons allow inmates to choose their clothes, prepare their own meals, and have romantic drop-ins. Furthermore, their view is that if a convicted criminal recommits a crime after having been incarcerated, it is the fault of rehabilitation and the staff of the prison (Chammah, 2017). The staff of prisons is highly trained and seeks to help each individual prisoner with their mental and physical well being; whereas, in US prisons, guards are authoritarian and trained to use force when confronted by inmates. Unlike American schools, German schools deal with students who show signs of mental illness (including addiction or traumatic stress) proactively. Once a child is identified with any special needs German schools make every effort to change the environment to fit the child. Humane strategies are inclusion and offsetting disadvantages through individual support, therapy and therapy-based assessment (European Agency, 2017).

A proactive way forward

Treatment and rehabs are reactive measures for curbing addiction. It is possible that more proactive methods can be developed. One of the bright stars in respect to proactively treating addiction is Maia Szalavitz, who contends that alcoholism and addiction are learning disorders that are actually developmental. Szalavitz (2016) posits "…if addiction is a learning disorder, fighting a 'war on drugs' is useless" (p. 4). She asserts that if addiction is a learning disorder, it is not necessarily a problem that demands life-long treatment, but rather better education. Researchers have known for years that 90% of all substance addictions start in adolescence and that it is much less likely if use starts after the age of twenty-five. It follows that if there was a way to recognize potential addicts, there may be preventive ways to help stop addiction before it starts. Education may be the key to reducing addiction in the world.

Fortunately, there are new trends in education that may be at least part of the solution. Unfortunately, in the US public school teachers tend to teach skills that are oriented to school and workplace success rather than teaching skills that promote well being. Martin Seligman's (2011) Penn Resiliency Program (PRP) teaches topics rarely touched upon through mandated state standards of education in the US. PRP students are taught how to handle common problems of adolescence, and trained educators of PRP teach optimism as well as decision-making, relaxation, assertiveness, and flexibility. Turning trauma into growth is also a focus. The instruction that Seligman (2011) has devised includes positive psychology and not only teaches it, but embeds it in students. The acronym PERMA (positive emotion, engagement, meaning, positive relationships, and accomplishment) becomes the students' measure of prosperity.

However, much too often American students feel discontented rather than prosperous. *Better Than Carrots and Sticks* (Smith, Fisher & Fry, 2015) offers fresh insights into classroom management. Instead of making classroom management a set of routines and procedures, the authors discuss two aspects of an effective learning environment: 1) relationships and 2) high-quality instruction. Their view of discipline is focused on restoration and self-discipline rather than punishment. "The social and emotional development of students is often poorly articulated in schools –

relegated to an assembly and a few accompanying lessons. Traditional tools for addressing behavioral issues among students – rewards and consequences, shame and humiliation, suspensions and expulsions – run counter to a restorative culture and do not result in lasting change, much less a productive learning environment." (Smith, Fisher & Fry, 2015, p. 6). Discipline can turn into self-discipline if learning is focused on how to be a better person, rather than how not to get caught. Incorporating restorative classroom management procedures would be an excellent step toward helping young people avoid the perils of drugs and alcohol.

Conclusion

Ultimately, the choices regarding the solutions to the problem of addiction come down to reactive and proactive measures. Generally the legal reaction to addiction has been guided by violence. Johann Hari (2015, p. 32) writes "…everybody who has ever loved an addict – everybody who has ever been an addict – has this impulse in them somewhere. Destroy the addiction. Kill the addiction. Throttle it with violence." However, newer ideas revoke retribution and seek to restore or habilitate (or rehabilitate) the addict to society. This can be done, but only through less punitive and more healing channels. Unfortunately, the common treatments of addiction further damage people who have already destroyed themselves. Hopefully, an educational curriculum that deals with remediating children who have experienced toxic trauma and stress and that includes coping skills to preventing the self-destructive nature of drug or alcohol use can be integrated into middle and high schools. This curriculum would emphasize gaining skills that utilize emotional intelligence and positive psychology, and with the help of trained teachers educators could help children avoid the lure of drugs and alcohol for handling the perils of adolescent development.

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Nationality and Culture as Factors Influencing Creativity Levels in Candidate Teachers: A Comparative Study between the United States and Turkey

Abstract

Through this study, students in their corresponding countries were led in identical activities allowing them to express themselves freely. The study observed differences in creativity among diverse students. The findings of this research challenge fundamental assumptions concerning levels of creativity displayed by particular cultures.

Keywords: creativity, culture, teacher preparation internationally, Turkey, United States

Introduction: Rationale of the study

The recent exponential increase in globalization, requires higher levels of creativity and competitiveness not necessary in our recent past. In order to meet the new demands of education in a global society, teacher preparation programs must provide students with opportunities for the development and nurturing of a natural approach to creativity. Yet, creativity must also be understood within the context of nationality and culture. Relating culture and creativity requires in-depth examination. Often, individualist and collectivist cultures are coupled with particular perceived levels of creativity. For instance, individualist cultures are perceived as cultures fostering creativity through independence and personal inquiry, while collectivist cultures might be perceived as formed by groups of individuals conforming to the norms of the majority, and consequently, less creative.

In general, the development and implementation of educational systems promoting creativity, regardless of their cultural context, result from intentional transformational changes involving functioning processes, mission, and culture of entire organizations. However, in numerous contexts, the idea of independence and creativity in education has not been regarded as a priority from an institutional perspective. In these cases, individuals still have the capacity to promote the integration of creativity in the particular context of their department or classroom. These small changes may be derived from minor adjustments and improvements in one or few dimensions of leading, teaching, and classroom management (Goodman, 1982; Law, 2007; Levy & Merry, 1986).

During the 2013-2014 – 2014-2015 academic years, university students in teacher-training programs in Turkey and the United States were provided with an opportunity to display their creativity as they were asked to work in small groups and explain the concept of differentiated instruction. The participants were provided with large-size sheets of paper, regular pencils, color pencils, color markers, and

given unlimited freedom to define the term, the reasons for its existence, and provide practical examples of its implementation.

The following sections provide the contextual and educational backgrounds of both, Turkey and the United States, and a brief review of the meanings of culture and creativity. We also provide our findings, a discussion of these findings, and additional sections addressing the conclusions of our study, and its implications for teachers and leaders in education.

Contextual background

Country profiles: United States and Turkey

United States
Geography

The United States is located in North America, bordering both the North Atlantic Ocean and the North Pacific Ocean, between Canada and Mexico. With an area of 9,826,675 square kilometers, the United States is roughly 12 times the size of Turkey.

Demographics

The United States has a total population of 326,625,791 inhabitants (July 2017 estimates); roughly four times the population of Turkey, with a median age of 37.8 years. The country's age structure is as follows: 0-14 years, 18.73%; 15-24 years, 13.27%; 25-54 years, 39.45%; 55-64 years, 12.91%; and 65 years and over, 15.63%. The most highly represented ethnic groups living in the United States are: White, 79.96%; Hispanic, 15.1%; Black, 12.85%; Asian, 4.43%; and two or more races, 1.61%. 82.1% of the population of the United States speaks English as their first language, 10.7% Spanish, 3.8% other Indo-European languages, and 2.7% of the total population speak other Asian and Pacific Island languages as their first language (The World Factbook, 2018).

Turkey
Geography

Turkey is located in both Southeastern Europe and Southwestern Asia (the portion of Turkey west of the Bosporus is geographically part of Europe), bordering the Black Sea, between Bulgaria and Georgia, and bordering the Aegean Sea and the Mediterranean Sea, between Greece and Syria. The country is strategically located, as it controls the Turkish Straits (Bosporus, Sea of Marmara, and Dardanelles) that link the Black and Aegean Seas. With and area of 783,562 square kilometers, Turkey is roughly the size of Texas and Arkansas combined.

Demographics

Turkey has a total population of 80,845,215 (July 2017 estimates), roughly one quarter of the total population of the United States, with a median age of 30.2 years. The country's age structure is as follows: 0-14 years, 24.68%; 15-24 years, 15.99%; 25-54 years, 43.21%; 55-64 years, 8.58%; and 65 years and over, 7.53%. The most highly represented ethnic groups living in Turkey are: Turkish, 75%; Kurdish, 18%; and other minorities, 12%. Turkish is the official language, with other minority languages spoken, particularly in the east (The World Factbook, 2018a).

An overview of the requirements to join the teaching profession in Turkey and the United States

Teacher training in Turkey

In order to become a teacher within the public education system of Turkey, it is necessary to have a bachelor's degree from an accredited higher education institution. Candidates to the teaching profession must have an academic major and teacher training courses.

Upon graduation and, in order to be certified to teach in public schools, candidates must successfully complete and approve the Public Personnel Selection Examination. Once candidates have approved this exam, they must complete a one-year-long internship program. Following this internship, candidates must also complete and approve the Teacher Candidacy Education Exam in order to be granted a fully-qualified teacher status.

Furthermore, candidates with academic backgrounds other than education, and who wish to join the teaching profession, may enroll in pedagogical formation certificate programs approved and monitored by the Higher Education Council. This model has recently increased its popularity, as contributes to the meeting of the increasing demand for qualified teachers in the country.

Currently, there are 180 higher education institutions in Turkey, 112 of which are public, and 68 private. Traditional teacher training programs are provided by Faculties of Education within universities. At present, there are 65 Faculties of Education in public universities and 7 in private universities throughout the country (Turkish higher education management system, 2018; Turkish higher education council, 2018).

Teacher training in the United States

Given the decentralization and independence of every state with regard to the provision of public education in the United States, and since the American component of this study was conducted in Texas, the following section addresses the requirements necessary to join the teaching profession in the state of Texas.

In order to become a teacher in the public education system of Texas, it is necessary to have a bachelor's degree from an accredited higher education institution. Candidates to the teaching profession must have an academic major and teacher training courses. Upon completion of a bachelor's degree, and a six-month internship as a student-teacher in a recognized learning center, the candidate must successfully complete and approve the teacher certification tests for the subject and grade level of their interest established by the State Board of Education (Texas Education Agency, 2018).

As in Turkey, candidates with academic backgrounds other than education, and who wish to join the teaching profession in the state of Texas, may enroll in alternative certificate programs. At present, there exist a total of 144 institutions providing teacher training programs in the state of Texas. Of those institutions, 76 are provided as university based and post-baccalaureate programs by higher education institutions and 111 are alternative/accelerated certification programs offered to individuals already holding advanced degrees (Texas Education Agency, 2018a).

Culture and creativity

At this point, we believe it pertinent to acknowledge the fact that much has been written concerning the notions of culture and creativity. These two terms are often defined in broad, and often conflicting, terms that involve an overabundance of factors influencing their development and existence. The following section provides a brief analysis, and succinct definitions, of culture and creativity from a standpoint relevant to our study.

Culture

Culture is formally defined as the customary beliefs, social forms, and material traits of a racial, religious, or social group (Merrian-Webster, 2018). The notion of culture is often analyzed from the perspective of not only objective, but explicit and implicit factors connected to acquired behaviors, which are, in turn, transmitted through traditions and symbols (Kroeber & Kluckhohn, 1952). In other words, culture is a rather organic, fluid concept permeating all aspects of society and transferred through language, art, and accepted patterns of behavior and socialization (Masemann, 2003). Culture, and group affiliation "are not things we are born with, but are formed and transformed within and in relation to representation" (Hall, 1994, p. 292).

Now, if culture includes everything, it explains nothing. In order to create a clear, basic understanding of this complex term, we suggest culture to be arbitrarily defined as the values, attitudes, beliefs, and assumptions generally accepted by a particular group within a society (Harrison & Huntington, 2000).

Creativity

Like culture, creativity is a notion with immense and conflicting approaches to its understanding and definition. In its most basic form, creativity is the "ability to create" (Merriam-Webster, 2018a). Some argue that creativity is a general characteristic displayed by all. Others say that creativity is domain specific. Some conceptualize creativity within the context of control, ownership, relevance, innovation, possibility thinking, problem-posing, inventing, questioning, and self-confidence, among others (Jeffrey & Craft, 2001). Some understand creativity as a changing agent; an act or idea that changes an existing domain into a new one (Csikszentmihalyi, 1996). Consequently, from this particular perspective, an act of creativity is only relevant if its results are accepted as paradigm change agents by the gatekeepers of the domain (e.g. art critics, teachers, scientists). Creativity is also understood as the capacity for invention of innovative ideas or products having an appropriate value to the cognitive demands of specific, particular situations (Weisberg, 1993).

For our purposes, creativity may be subjectively defined as the tendency to generate or recognize ideas, alternatives, or possibilities that may be useful in solving problems in ways acceptable by either a particular society or humanity as a whole.

Culture and creativity in Turkey and the United States

Turkey is traditionally considered as a collectivist society, and the United States is typically classified as individualist (Leong, 2013). Based on this assumption, Turkish culture, being group oriented, could be considered less conducive to creativity and freedom than American, and individualist, culture. However, studies comparing creativity levels between Turkish and American students suggest that creative abilities are similar among both groups (Oral et al., 2007). In this study we observe which one of these visions Turkish and American students conform to.

Methodology

Comparisons are an essential requisite to understand others' positions but, ultimately, a requisite to understanding ourselves. Also, and as stated by Robinson in his seminal work in 1969, we understand that international comparisons contribute to the integrity, and promote the challenging of the principles and structures of national education systems. With these principles in mind, the present is a descriptive, qualitative study conducted through a functional observation of two systems by means of comparative analysis (Lauterbach & Mitter, 1998). Furthermore, the criteria for the selection of the activities conducted through this comparative study were based upon the fact that they provide space for pedagogical innovations. The study required a significant change in the traditional roles of teachers and students; promoted active, independent, and self-directed learning (i.e. creativity); engaged students in collaborative work; and allowed for the expression of individual and cultural learning differences (Law, 2007).

The *setting* of this study took place in academic years 2013-2014 – 2014-2015, at universities in the two countries observed. The authors communicated through electronic media in order to consolidate and analyze the data gathered from Turkey and the United States. The *actors* are the authors themselves, as they facilitated the activities conducted, as well as the students in teacher-training programs in the two different countries, as they formulated the responses to the activities assigned to them. The *events* in the study refer to the conducting of parallel activities between students and professors in Turkey and the United States with regard to students' definition of differentiated instruction through freedom to display their own creativity by means of group collaboration. The *process* involved the corresponding provision of materials (large sheets of paper, pencils, color pencils, and color markers) to students in both countries, the consistent presenting of directions on the part of the instructors, the matching set of expectations for students in both countries (definition of "differentiated instruction" in groups of three), as well as the collection and comparison of responses provided by students (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

Categories of comparison

Aim

We have ventured into the comparison of issues concerning creativity levels displayed by students in the United States and Turkey. The aim of this comparison is to gain a better understanding of different educational systems embedded in two different cultures, and their effect on creativity levels displayed by candidate teachers. Consequently, through this comparative study, we intend to make a

contribution to the improvement of education and schooling in our countries, and subsequently, to international educational policy, resulting in the betterment of national and local education systems.

Base

The base of our comparison, determined by the comparability of the subjects taken into account (Lauterbach & Mitter, 1998), rests upon two teacher preparation programs with students of similar ages housed in parallel learning environments and educational institutions. Additionally, the events and activities compared were led and conducted by instructors with similar academic backgrounds – both holding PhD degrees from institutions in the United States.

Process

The *process* of comparison followed by this study is the investigation of "educational issues and conditions that exist in more than one national educational system … or in the world" (Rust et al., 1999, p. 94). In order to conduct this process of comparison, students were arranged in groups of three, provided with similar materials, and given complete freedom to generate their own definition of differentiated instruction. This process was conducted with the purpose of observing the differences between creativity levels displayed through similar processes enacted in two educational systems.

Findings

United States

Students in the United States used colors, and drawings sparingly. Although few drawings where included as part of their assignment, American students chose to use mostly words, with few illustrations. The students were careful with their writing and formation of letters. Care was taken to proper spelling. US students chose to use words more abundantly than drawings. Although some did not stray from using words in the totality of the assignment, American students added color to some of the written words mainly by alternating colors of words or letters. Color was also used in drawings and illustrations. Illustrations included the creation of a table for some students, and actual pictorial drawing for others but, as stated above, these were used sparingly. Most students chose to use illustrations and drawings to give examples of differentiated instruction. However, no group of students utilized illustrations throughout the entirety of the assignment.

Turkey

Contrary to the expected results, most students in Turkey used colors and illustrations abundantly with a less frequent use of words than their American counterparts. Turkish students, for the most part, chose to use different colors, even when their responses were fully submitted in writing. And although some students concentrated in completing this activity through words only, these represented a minority among the totality of the participants. Whether as added decoration to the basic requirements of the assignment, or as illustrations fully answering the questions posed without any text included, most Turkish students relied on the use

of colorful and creative illustrations as part of their responses to the assigned task. Out of the totality of Turkish participants, only one group of students completed the assignment using a single color pen in the entirety of their final product. The rest of the participants used different colors ranging from the organization of the sections, to decorations, to drawings representing their views. When given the freedom to choose self-expression, most Turkish students did not rely on the use of words for the completion of the task. And those Turkish students whose main medium of expression is writing, still chose to add color to their writing and complementary colorful decorations surrounding their text. Most Turkish students, although not required to, incorporated different illustrations/drawings as part of their assignment. These illustrations ranged from drawings of differentiated classrooms, diverse students, different activities, body parts representing different learning styles, plants, forests, and decorations in the form of flowers and stars.

Discussion

Through this study, our pre-conceived notions of creativity and culture have been challenged. The assumption that American culture, being more individualist, would produce more creative individuals, and that Turkish culture, being more collectivist, would produce less creative individuals, has been put to the test.

Many questions remain. The study, conducted within the realm of formal education, undoubtedly limits our ability to generalize across cultures and nations. Nonetheless, within the framework of the requirements of both national education systems, and particularly, within the context of meeting the requirements necessary to enter the teaching profession both, in Turkey and the United States, the findings of this study shed new light into the pre-conceived ideas of the freedom, or lack thereof, students are permitted to enjoy as they take responsibility for their own academic development.

The findings of this study demonstrate the existing dissonance between our self-perceptions and the reality observed in our local environments. The study challenges the results of our self-assessment, and self-perception with regards to our level of creativity. The study begs us to review our answers to the questions of "am I as creative as I believe I am?" and "do my culture and education system limit my creativity in the ways I believe them to do?".

Also, from an educator's point of view, this study questions if our understanding of academic achievement functions as a block for our students' creativity and personal development. For instance, our findings demonstrate that, within the context of our study, American students were concerned with following directions, although brief, exactly as they perceived them. While the intent of the study was for the students to feel that any method of expression was acceptable, they did not exhibit this in completing the task. Whether or not the message was conveyed as intended is something the researcher in the US grappled with when reflecting on the students' work. When observing the work of both American and Turkish students, it is evident that the Turkish students, for the most part, used a wider variety of means to express themselves as they completed the activity. They were less likely to "color inside the lines" than the American students.

We also understand that writing is certainly a creative way to express ourselves. Nevertheless, we understand that, in the traditional educational setting, writing tends

to be one of the more highly respected means to academic achievement. Consequently, writing, when compared to drawing, singing, or dancing, tends to be more highly revered as a measure of academic achievement and success. Academic growth and development are paramount, and yet, we must consider the importance of not limiting our students, in our case, the future educational leaders of our countries, by imposing pre-conceived notions of what academically acceptable standards and creativity should look like. We must observe our own teaching practices and self-assess the pre-conceived ideas of our own level of creativity -high or low- resulting from our particular national and cultural contexts.

Conclusion

This study chronicles the experiences of two university professors, one in Turkey and the other in the United States, as they observe their students in teacher preparation programs complete the same assignment. The purpose of the study was to observe how students chose to exhibit different levels of creativity as they demonstrated their understanding of the meaning of differentiated instruction. The students were given the same supplies and guidelines and were then given the freedom to interpret and report their knowledge as they chose.

The professors then studied the students' work and observed the similarities and differences in their products based on the levels of creativity displayed by members of two distinct cultures. The study relied on defining creativity as a tendency to generate and organize ideas in ways useful to solve problems, and culture as the specific attitudes, beliefs, and assumptions of a particular group.

Although it is perceived that students in the United States are more individualist, and therefore, more creative than students in Turkey, who are believed to be more collectivist, and therefore more easily conformed to group standards (Leong, 2013), the results were not as expected. Contrary to general belief, in our particular context, Turkish students displayed considerably higher levels of creativity than their American counterparts.

This study served as a model of comparisons constituting an essential requisite to understand others, but ultimately, an essential requisite to understand ourselves. The study also provided a space for pedagogical innovations since, as an additional unexpected result, the researchers, fundamental actors in this study, were confronted and challenged to reexamine their role in the classroom as promoters, or suppressors, of creativity.

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Teachers and Education for Global Citizenship in a Mexican University

Abstract

Since the turn of the century, universities have to cope with demands of internationalization; and more recently to cope as well with demands to educate for global citizenship, especially after the United Nations Secretary-General's Global Education First Initiative (GEFI) launched in September 2012. This paper reports an experience of training teachers to promote these aspects in a Mexican university. More precisely, to explore how far a group of university teachers, that were trained to promote internationalization, were from the main principles of global citizenship education. Their answers to a questionnaire specially designed for this purpose, were compared with the answers of a group of teachers, from the same university, who have not been trained in the mentioned matter. A test "U" of Mann-Whitney showed a significant difference between the two sets of answers, from which some reflections are derived and related actions are suggested for training university teachers.

Keywords: education for global citizenship, internationalization of education, international education

Introduction

Universities are incorporating an international dimension in their activities for two main reasons: on the first hand to improve and sustain quality by promoting collaboration between institutions from different countries; on the other hand, to promote education as the main tool for the construction of a strengthened and benign social system, as expressed by Ban Ki Moon (Secretary General of the United Nations Organization) when introducing the Global Education First Initiative (GEFI).

For UNESCO, the promotion of global citizenship involves researchers, teachers and university administrators, as well. According to Cobern (1991), Lovett (2008), and Miller and West (1993), programs of global education help teachers and students to acquire a better comprehension of human existence and a better perception of social, cultural and economic factors that impinge in populations around the globe (Torres & Dorio, 2015).

The Universidad Autónoma de Tamaulipas (UAT), a public state university in North-East Mexico, with the support of the Ministry of Education, devised a course for training teachers to become internationalization promoters in their schools and academic units. The purpose was to increase the work of internationalization that is usually concentrated at the corresponding administrative department of universities.

The deans of faculties and academic units were asked to appoint a member of the faculty to become part of a group to be trained for that activity, in such a way that the group was mainly integrated by full time professors who, in many cases, had the opportunity to earn a graduate degree from abroad.

This group went through a Diploma Course for the Professionalization of University Promoters of Internationalization. It was designed and implemented by the Organización Universitaria Interamericana (OUI), through the Colegio de las Americas (COLAM), with the purpose that the university actors appropriate "concepts and tools for the management of projects for international cooperation and research".

Later on, especially after the Incheon Summit, universities, as part of the education systems were demanded to educate for global citizenship, but as this institutions usually don't have enough resources to hire personnel with all kind of profiles, questions arose about the possibilities that the same teachers who were commissioned to internationalization activities could also cope with student's education for global citizenship. Hence, our research question was whether the group of teachers who earned the Diploma as Promoters of Internationalization were aligned with the principles related to education for a global citizenship?

Theoretical elements

The research question deserves some reflections, since there are different theories that suggest divergences between international education and education for global citizenship that could interfere in the alignment of both sets of activities and could make difficult for the teachers to participate in both of the working lines. Next paragraphs are dedicated to explore the concepts.

The term internationalization of education is used in different ways in the literature. Different approaches can be identified: comparative international education; internationalization of higher education; international schools; international educational research; and some authors use it interchangeable with global education.

The international education includes internationalization of education, globalization of education and international expansion of education institutions (Dolby & Rahman, 2008). Courses on international education at universities have the objective to develop knowledge, abilities and attitudes that are foundations to participate in a world characterized by cultural diversity, inequity, interconnectivity, cooperation and conflict (McFadden, Merryfield & Reeves-Barron, 1997, p. 8).

It is clear that internationalization of education is no longer exchange or mobility, but promoting an international dimension of the university activities at large. The structure of institutional management should facilitate the interaction of universities from different countries to promote collaboration for enhancing quality in programs of education, research, extension and services. The term internationalization *in-situ* is used to refer to curriculum development, research networks, activities oriented towards comprehension of different cultures, inclusion of diversity and respect for difference (Navarro-Leal, 2017).

Some authors (Navarro Leal & Navarrete Cazales, 2016) suggest that internationalization and globalization are not convergent terms. From the perspective of the former, students learn that there are respectable national sovereignties in the interactions between countries; from the perspective of the latter students learn that there are world systems with no national boundaries. This argument challenges the idea that international education and global citizenship education are convergent pedagogical approaches, and furthermore, this can

jeopardize the possibility that the same teachers may develop educational activities to promote divergent perspectives.

But if we look at the discourse of education for global citizenship we can find that it is not so divergent, as the above paragraphs raise it. In a world where it is widely accepted an intensification of social relations that connect remote localities, in such a manner that local events are influenced by events happening thousands of miles away (Giddens, 1990), an interconnected world imposes on individuals adaptation requirements. Adaptation to a world with a wide diversity of values and of living styles, capacities for interaction with people from different cultures, abilities to response to new demands of quality and flexible requirements of work, to be aware of social and environmental consequences of consumerism, political individuals who think globally, global citizens (Diendorfer et al., 2012). A new education is needed, and this new education is the education for global citizenship.

Education for Global Citizenship is a pedagogical field internationally acknowledged. In the English speaking world the term citizenship is the most important category in civic education, just in the same way it is in education for democracy in German speaking countries (Diendorfer et al., 2015).

UNESCO (2013) assumes that Education for Global Citizenship aims to empower teachers and students to get involved and take active roles either in local or global levels to face global challenges to become a proactive agent for a more pacific, inclusive and sustainable world. For potential areas are identified as relevant: educational policies and the introduction of global citizenship education; organize committees for the design, development and promotion of education programs; training teachers of basic education, training of multiplayer's out of the schools; research and development; multidisciplinary teaching, international collaboration between schools; transnational school projects.

Methodology

As it can be seen, in theory there is not a big gap between pedagogical perspectives of internationalization of education and education for global education, which is precisely the point to explore through empirical procedures. To test the alignment of the teachers who earned the diploma in internationalization with the principles of global citizenship education, some methodological steps were carried out: 1) the sections related to values and behaviors of a questionnaire designed by Torres and Dorio (2015) for the UNESCO Chair of global education citizenship, were applied; 2) their results were compared with the results obtained by another group of teachers from the same university who did not take the diploma course; the hypothesis was that the former would obtain a better score; 3) since in the diploma group was a number of teachers who had studied abroad, their answers could bias the results, so that the whole of the data was reorganized in two groups: the group of teachers who have never been abroad and the group of teachers who have been abroad for academic purposes, regardless of having or not the diploma on internationalization. The hypothesis was that the latter would score higher.

Once the questionnaire was applied to both groups, a Shapiro-Wilk Test allow to find out that there was a significant difference between the two groups, and the hypothesis was accepted with a 95% of confidence. The diploma group was more aligned with education for global citizenship. Additionally, as it was explained, to

check a possible bias resulting from the number of teachers who have been abroad for academic purposes, the comparison between the group of those who have been abroad and the group of those who have not, resulted in a lack of difference, hence the null hypothesis could not be rejected.

A non-parametric test "U" of Mann-Whitney for two independent samples was used to determine whether there was a significant difference in every one of the items of the sections of values and behavior of the questionnaire. The only differences were found in five out of twenty items of "preparing for civic life", "diversity of religion", "involvement in religious services", "involvement in meditation", "boycott to trademarks"; but when a global analysis was made, results were different, either for values or for behaviors. Diploma holders had a more positive perception towards education for global citizenship.

Conclusions

Despite the exceptions of the individual analysis of the items, the global analysis has shown a remarkable difference between the teachers who earn the diploma and those who don't, proving that there is a high sense of global awareness on those who went through the diploma. It can be said that the diploma course has promoted on them a sound initiation in education for global citizenship, and that it would be a good idea to continue offer this diploma course to more teachers and staff of the university.

It is to highlight that in the Diploma group 7 out 26 teachers have not been abroad, the other 19 do have. Meanwhile in the non diploma group, only 2 have not been abroad while 18 do have. Anyhow there was not a significant difference when comparing answers of those who have gone abroad against those who have not.

This empirical exploration suggests certain kind of closeness, or maybe a complementary relation between internationalization of education and global citizenship. After all, it would be a deplorable display of spiritual poverty to limit the mission of universities to a simple training of professional labor force with capacities to work in international or global markets. The end of internationalization of universities makes sense when the collaboration among universities looks for intercultural comprehension and for reciprocal attention to cope with common problems.

The purposes of international education are related to education for global citizenship and the findings suggest that particular and common issues be identified to be especially promoted as relevant factors for implementing global citizenship education. One of the elements of the latter that should never be absent is the promotion of an attitude supported by the comprehension of the multiple levels of identity and the potential for building a collective identity to go beyond cultural, religious, ethnic, or any other individual differences; a deep knowledge of universal values such as justice, equity, dignity and respect; behavioral capacities to act in a collaborative manner and to be responsible with finding solutions to global challenges and to the search for the collective good. It is in this point that bridges have to be built between internationalization of education and education for global citizenship. For higher education institutions, internationalization acquires a wider and relevant sense in which case the diploma course could be reoriented to training teachers to act as educators for global citizenship.

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Mashraky Mustary

Comparative Analysis of Educational Systems in Japan and Bangladesh

Abstract

This paper evaluates the educational systems of Japan and Bangladesh. The educational systems of both countries intend to provide quality education to their students. The Japanese educational system is inclined toward global trends, striving to produce citizens who are aware of current changes around the world. The Bangladeshi system, under the Madrasah education scheme, aims to provide their students with sufficient information to face the world. The similarities of the two educational systems lie in the input of the governments in facilitating the systems that provide education to children who have come of age. The foundations of the systems are rooted in the cultural practices of the respective countries, along with the provision of the staff and government policies that guide the work in the schools. The differences between the two systems are defined by their policy directives. The policy directive in Bangladesh is based on the UN Child Rights Convention which ensures that the rights of children form the major area of consideration. The policy is geared towards the cultivation of human values. It works as a basis for a system that is available, universal, science oriented and one that seeks to counter all problems. The Japanese education system is based on its national laws as well as the Constitution. It provides for free compulsory education for all the children in relation to their abilities. The law sets policies geared towards creating moral and able members of the society. This paper argues that the government of any country should lay emphasis on education, as it forms the basis of a country's economy and helps to shape students into responsible, competent global citizens of the future.

Keywords: Japan, Bangladesh, education system, comparative analysis, government

Introduction

An educational system is a set of activities that are said to facilitate the acquisition of knowledge by an individual. Each country has an educational system that their schools are expected to follow to ensure that the intended skills, knowledge and information are passed to the learners. The educational system is intended for public schools and for private education, and is said to cover the stages of preschool, basic education and secondary school. Each system is comprised of regulations that govern it and funding provided by the public and its government to fund all resources, staff and learning materials.

Comparative analysis

Views and visions

This report will analyze the similarities and differences between the educational systems in Bangladesh and Japan. This first section discusses the views and visions of these systems.

The Japanese educational system strives toward global trends, which are aimed at producing citizens that are cognizant of the current changes. The Japanese educational system holds the view that the system is to be used to the advantage of all students, despite their age, color and gender. Therefore, it provides equal learning opportunities to all children willing to learn. The system envisions continuing to be the best in the world by constantly improving the curriculum to fit global changes.

The Bangladeshi educational system holds the view that students receive an education solely based on the cultural and religious beliefs of the country, hence the production of citizens who are morally upright. Their vision expects that the education system will produce students with the necessary skills to successfully engage with the challenges of daily living (Murad & Hossain, 2014).

Similarities

The educational systems and policies that govern Bangladeshi and Japanese education have a number of similarities. The two countries acknowledge that education is the backbone of a successful economy; therefore, they put education matters first. For instance, Bangladeshi system buttresses on the ability to maintain the culture and religious beliefs (McQuiggan & Sapp, 2014). Their policies state that basic education should be available to all children of school age. Thus, the two systems have adopted primary and secondary education to provide basic education to their children (McQuiggan & Sapp, 2014). This policy is supported by the laws and regulations developed by the countries' governments, whereby all parents and guardians are responsible for ensuring that their children acquire basic education through the public or private system.

Another similarity is that the governments have firsthand input in ensuring that their schools are financially supported with the help of the public. An educational system requires that many resources be allocated to it (Prokop & Michelson, 2012). The governments therefore assist in obtaining resources and finances for books, classrooms, and learning materials.

Additionally, the public schools of both countries need a workforce that constitutes teachers and support staff to offer curriculum and activities in the schools. Therefore, employment policies have been put into place (Snider, 2014). These governments ensure that, before an individual is employed as a teacher in their institutions, they must have completed the tertiary part of the country's education system. Teachers in the two countries are expected to be sufficiently qualified to provide quality education to their students.

The policies and education systems of the two countries also base their education systems on their respective cultures and practices. In this regard, their institutions have adopted behaviors and teaching practices in line with their particular cultural beliefs. For example, Bangladesh has adopted the Madrasah form of education, whereby students are taught Islamic beliefs and culture. In Japan too, the education system is best understood from its cultural perspective.

Another similarity is a governing body that regulates the workings of the education systems. Both in Japan and Bangladesh, a Ministry of Education ensures that the school curriculum is correctly followed. Also, the two educational systems have policies that student assessments and standardization of examinations are

public. Upon completion of one class or grade, a student is expected to sit for an examination (Taylor & Klein, 2015).

Differences between Bangladeshi and Japanese educational curriculum and policies

Despite the similarities in the educational systems and policies of Japan and Bangladesh, differences are easily visible. Funding is one of these major differences. In Bangladesh, only 2% of the total GDP is allocated to education; hence, it cannot sufficiently fund its programs and policies. By contrast, public spending on education in Japan was 3.5% of GDP, according to a 2015 Education at a Glance report. However, even this percentage is below the recommended OECD estimate of 4.7% (OECD, 2015).

Another difference in the education systems of the two countries is the relevance of the education provided. Curriculum is the connecting force between the educational system and the social/political events in the public sector. Japan has programs that regularly review the curriculum; therefore, the education system is generally in line with current events. By contrast, the Bangladeshi curriculum programs are not frequently reviewed; hence, the education system does not relate to the current happenings in their environment (Brooks, 2011).

The third difference revolves around the quality of education made available to the students. The education system in Bangladesh does not have an effective employment program for school staff, because they lack a good human resource system (Chan, 2011). This shortcoming leads to a poor education system. On the other hand, Japan has a good human resource system, with employment based on merit. A workforce system that hires workers on the basis of qualifications leads to a higher quality education.

Fourthly, the oversight of higher education differs in these two countries. This can be determined by noting whether the number of seats found in a college is similar to the number of present and potential students (Hannum, Park & Butler, 2010). For example, the colleges in Bangladesh do not meet the international standards that govern education systems. On the other hand, Japan's colleges and universities are governed according to the international standards of education. Thus, the number of seats in the lecture halls is greater than the number of students attending.

In Bangladesh, the policies that govern the conduct of teachers and the school workforce are not well defined. Additionally, the governing bodies that are responsible for monitoring the behavior of teachers are not active. This shortcoming allows for the unethical behavior of teachers, which includes absenteeism (Hedtke & Zimenkova, 2013). According to a study done here, primary school teachers record an approximate 15.5% rate of absence. On the contrary, the Japanese government applies very strict policies to the conduct of teachers. The bodies that regulate teacher behavior hold a teacher responsible in cases of absence or low quality instruction. Due to this factor, the rate of absenteeism is very low; hence, students receive high value for their time in class.

The last difference between the two countries is the foundational basis of the education systems and policies. Bangladesh has adopted the Madrasah form of education, whereby students are taught Islamic beliefs and culture, along with other

subjects that focus on improving the way students handle various situations (Hannum, Park & Butler, 2010). The education system of the Japanese, however, is based on current developments in the world. For instance, the students are provided experience in the development of IT systems and the use of technical knowledge in the production and manufacturing sectors, among other experiences. Also, Japanese students are exposed to extracurricular activities to increase their innovation and experimental abilities.

Practices and policies in Japan that Bangladesh should borrow

Japan has been rated as the best educational system in the world. It is noted to have the highest number of children going to school, thus its literacy skills are also high. To improve the systems of education of Bangladesh then, the Japanese system must be adopted (Snider, 2014).

The first practice that the Bangladeshi educational system should borrow from Japan is the foundation of the educational curriculum (Dautenhahn & Saunders, 2011). The educational system in Bangladesh is based on religious activities, thus omitting the relevance of education in today's world. Therefore, the education system of Bangladesh should include global trends and perspectives alongside their religion-based system.

The second agenda that would benefit the Bangladeshi education system would be the Japanese regulations that govern the conduct of teachers in and out of the classrooms (Tatto & Bruner, 2012). The implementation of similar regulations would ensure that the rate of absenteeism among teachers in the primary school sector is greatly reduced, thus the quality of education improved. Moreover, the government of Bangladesh should develop a hiring process that is based on the qualifications of a teacher.

Additionally, the government of Bangladesh needs to provide more financial resources to ensure that quality education is possible. Bangladesh needs to borrow the aspect of standardization of structures and learning facilities for all students (Hedtke & Zimenkova, 2013). The Bangladeshi government should also ensure that sufficient vacancies are available in their colleges for students who are willing to continue with higher education. In addition, the government needs to allocate sufficient resources to ensure that schools can adequately function, as well as offer scholarships to the poor families who cannot afford school fees.

According to studies, the government of Japan sends its students to other countries on scholarship programs and also allows foreign students to enroll in their schools, hence providing population diversity (Horiguchi, Imoto & Poole, 2015). This is an issue that the government of Bangladesh should consider, in order to enhance its education system. The absorption of foreign students into the Bangladeshi educational system is currently chaotic, as the government has not put in control measures.

Bangladesh could improve its teacher instruction by emulating the Japanese model of classroom teaching. Teachers in Japan use an interactive teaching method, allowing students to interact with their fellow students and also with their teachers, rather than lecturing to students who are not actively involved. Bangladesh has adopted a lecture method in their teaching, whereby the interaction of students and

teachers during class time is limited; this is negatively affecting the performance of their system (Trifonas, 2015).

The inclusion of international aspects in the curriculum should form the basis of education improvement in Bangladesh. This would require that curriculum be reviewed and a global perspective added in a way that expects children to be involved practically, as well as in theory. Adopting an international perspective helps education remain relevant to current trends and improves the quality of education in the country.

Strengths of Bangladeshi system

According to the international educational system requirements, the role of an educational system is to produce students who are morally upright and uphold the highest standards of ethics. The Bangladeshi educational system has its roots in the Islamic behaviors and practices of the people in that country, the Madrasah education system. Therefore, the students produced by this education are a pride to their nation and their parents in terms of good behavior. The Madrasah education system and its adaptation in the public school curriculum is a strength that supports the culture of Bangladesh, hence its sustainability in an ever-changing environment (Ida, 2015).

Limitations of Bangladeshi system

The limitations in the Bangladeshi education system greatly surpass its strengths. The following are noted, in addition to those weaknesses already described in previous sections.

Firstly, *The UN Convention on the Rights of the Child* require that girls and boys are given equal opportunities for education and skill development. The first limitation is that the government does not take gender equality into consideration in the school system; girls are not allowed the same opportunities as boys (Hannum, Park & Butler, 2010). This is a clear violation of the UN Convention and the international standards on education.

The second limitation is based on the hiring process of teachers, as well as the remaining workforce in the school environment. The international standards that govern educational systems demand that hired teachers should be competent and fully skilled. Bangladesh hires teachers and support staff in terms of recognition by the authorities and by bribes. Due to this situation, Bangladesh needs to develop an established system of teacher recruitment and employment to ensure that only qualified persons are hired to teach. When the system is governed by individuals who are competent and trained, then the quality and standards of the entire education system increase, to the advantage of the country's economy.

Strengths of Japanese system

Japan is known to have the best educational system in the world, thereby having more strengths than weaknesses. According to the international standards, the educational system of a country should take into consideration rapport between the individuals involved, aimed at improving the learning processes. Japan has emulated

this strategy, whereby the learning and teaching processes have been made interactive, rather than lecture based (Dautenhahn & Saunders, 2011).

The international standards of education expect parents and teachers to be involved in all aspects of a student's life. Thus, Japan's second strength is the motivational spirit that is cultivated in students by their parents and teachers. Teachers play an important role in promoting this, as they allow their students to express themselves through learning. Parents also play a vital role by constantly encouraging their children to perform well, to be physically and mentally involved in their school work. As a result, Japan reports very minimal student absenteeism, late arrival and low performance.

Limitations of Japanese system

In relation to the standards of educational systems that are internationally recognized, students are expected to have break periods between their school terms, so as to allow them to rest and bond with their family and friends away from books (Brooks, 2011). However, in Japan, children are always in contact with books; for instance, during weekends, they are expected to attend classes that teach them life skills, i.e. knitting and cooking. Also, during the summer and spring holidays, students are expected to complete several assignments to submit when the next term begins. This can result in a student being psychologically and mentally fatigued, hence affecting their academic performance.

Findings

This report has determined that an education system is the driving force of an economy; therefore, many aspects need to be present to determine its success. Evidence shows that when a country's education system is aware of global trends, then the students reap the best education to steer their lives towards success (Chan, 2011). Thus, the number of well-informed people increases, which results in a better workforce and an increase in GDP.

Another finding that is derived from the report is that teachers are the main drivers of an education system, as they are wholly involved in the development of the curriculum that governs the system. Teachers are the main beneficiaries of a good system and the main losers in a bad system, so they ought to be involved in every decision that relates to education (Begum, 2015). Their well-being should be safeguarded and their interest taken into account to protect the competency of a country's education system. Their hiring and training processes should be developed with care, and quality should be the main agenda driving the planning. Moreover, their remuneration should be greatly considered to help them satisfy their personal needs and avoid the frustrations that may affect their performance in schools.

Conclusion

An educational system is an organization of procedures, programs, and policies that are expected to govern the learning and teaching processes of schools in a given country. Many factors may hinder or promote the success of a system. For instance, curriculum development provides the framework for education. The country's

government also plays an important role in ensuring that the educational systems are successful.

Bangladesh and Japan are two distinct countries that have educational systems based on their cultures; however one is more successful than the other. Bangladesh does not have well-defined policies, producing a number of weaknesses in its education system. By contrast, Japan's policies and agendas are carefully crafted, thus it has become the world's leading country in terms of educational policies and systems.

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German Dual System: A Model for Kazakhstan?

Abstract

This paper deals with borrowing the German dual vocational training model in Kazakhstan. The aim of the paper is to identify the key issues and challenges of the transfer process. The analysis is based on the model proposed by Phillips and Ochs (2003, 2004) which outlines four stages of policy borrowing: (1) impulses, (2) decision, (3) implementation, and (4) internalization. Within this theoretical framework, a descriptive and comparative-historic method as well as content analysis are used to point out the development in Kazakhstan.

Keywords: vocational education and training, Kazakhstan, German dual system, policy
           borrowing

Introduction

For the last twenty-five years, the Kazakh vocational education and training system (VET) has undergone significant change. The dynamic economic development has led to structural changes in the labour market and an increased demand for skilled manpower. These conditions have challenged the education policy in Kazakhstan as well as the economy. The VET – in Kazakhstan, this type of education and training is more commonly known as technical and professional education (TPE) – has become the link between two national strategies of utmost priority: reforming the whole educational system and increasing the competitiveness of the country's economy.

The German dual VET system has historically been associated with economic progress and a prospering society. It is considered a model of success which many countries have used as a template. Kazakhstan, too, has turned to this model to modernise its VET system.

Theoretical framework

The transfer of vocational education and training structures, curricula or best practices (summarised as *education policies*) between Germany and numerous other countries has been taking place for several decades. In the late 1980s, David Phillips and Kimberley Ochs introduced the concept of *policy borrowing*. They describe 'borrowing' as "…the 'conscious adoption in one context of policy observed in another'" (Phillips & Ochs, 2004, p. 774). How do transfer processes take place in Kazakhstan? Can this project succeed? What steps have already been taken and what obstacles still need to be overcome? This paper attempts to answer these questions based on the four-stage model of policy borrowing in education proposed by Phillips and Ochs (2003, 2004) which facilitates the analysis of complex transfer processes. According to the authors, the exploration of other countries' education systems is often triggered by domestic *impulses* elicited by political change, economic

development or an unsatisfactory external evaluation (e.g. PISA tests by OECD or TIMSS by IEA). Within the framework of this model, a *decision* is taken in the second stage as to which elements from the other country's system are to be adopted. In the third stage, the chosen elements are *implemented* in the country's own system. They will either be met with approval or rejection. In the case of approval, *internalization* i.e. integration into the existing structures of the national education system takes place in the fourth stage. In the event of rejection, the decisions taken in the second stage need to be revised.

Socio-economic context

The Republic of Kazakhstan is one of the five former Soviet Central Asian republics. The ninth largest country in the world with a population of about 18 million people encompasses a multitude of languages, cultures and traditions. While earlier observers predicted this diversity to become a source of conflicts, Kazakhstan has achieved the highest political stability in the troubled region. The country is endowed with natural resources, most notably petroleum and natural gas reserves, both of which have great economic potential. Since its independence in 1991, Kazakhstan has been undertaking comprehensive reforms in order to dismantle the command economy and to develop a market economy which is integrated into the world economy. Its positive growth trend started towards the end of the 1990s. Driven mainly by the oil and gas sector, the real GDP grew by an average of nearly 10% per year between 2000 and 2008, making Kazakhstan one of the fastest-growing economies in the world.

Borrowing the German dual vocational training model

Impulses: Economy, labour market and vocational education until 2008

The rapidly expanding economy has generated changes in the composition and size of the labour market. The majority of enterprises have been privatized. Between 1998 and 2001, the privatization rate amounted to 70%. Many of these companies expanded or reduced the range of their products. Small and medium-sized businesses flourished. These changes have significantly increased the demand for a skilled workforce, especially in the main sectors of the economy, notably the oil and gas industry, the manufacturing industry, and the service industry. More complicated technological processes and increased competitiveness, however, have led to continuously increasing requirements concerning skills and competences. A 2008 World Bank labour market survey of 500 firms reported a shortage of skilled labour. 64% of the respondents quoted the insufficient level of education and a lack of skills as two of the principal obstacles for business development (BISAM, 2008). Most of the qualifications offered by the vocational education and training system in Kazakhstan were considered to be neither relevant to the job market, nor future-oriented.

In the first years of independence, most of the state's efforts in Kazakhstan were focussed on basic and higher education while the VET system suffered from a lack of attention and low investment. This has made the system inefficient and lead to a

significant mismatch between the skills imparted at the VET institutions and the needs of the labour market (Kenzhegaliyeva, 2010).

Decision: Reform strategies since 2008

Since 2008, we can observe a new development in the Kazakh VET. By 2008, the shortage of sufficiently qualified workers, particularly on the medium level, had begun to impede the economic development and the competitiveness on the world market. The government recognised an imperative for action and launched the 'State Programme for the Development of Technical and Professional Education for the years 2008-2012'. In 2010, a 'State Programme for the Development of Education for 2011-2020' (MESRK, 2010), declared by a presidential decree, was launched. The present educational policy in Kazakhstan is based on the latter, which aims to increase the competitiveness of the education system and thereby promote sustainable economic growth. The programme states the following goals for VET:

- the modernisation of the system of technical and vocational education in order to meet the demands of society and to facilitate the industrial-innovative development of the economy as well as
- the integration of the national education system into the global educational space.

Prior to its independence, the Kazakh VET system was subjected to a Soviet-style vocational education engineered to support a command economy. Greinert (1995) distinguishes three models for VET systems: a) the liberal market economy model, b) the state-regulated bureaucratic model, and c) the dual-corporatist model. According to this classification, the Soviet model could be identified as one that is strictly regulated by the state. Over the last years, the primary goal has been the establishment of cooperative forms of vocational education modelled on the German dual system. Like the German model, the new Kazakh system of vocational training aims to provide young people with the skills required to find employment suited to their preferences and to integrate them successfully into society.

Above all, the programme anticipates that a high-quality vocational education and training will create an environment for the successful implementation of the 'State Programme for Accelerated Industrial-Innovative Development of Kazakhstan' that was launched to make Kazakhstan one of the world's most competitive economies.

Implementation

This important goal could best be achieved by changing the contents of vocational education and training. For this purpose, the National Qualification System was designed in 2012. It was meant to include a National Qualifications Framework, Sectoral Qualifications Frameworks, occupational standards (qualification requirements), educational standards and curricula as well as a system of examinations and certifications. The OECD (2014) identified its adoption as a positive result of the reforms in Kazakhstan. It is similar to the European Qualifications Framework, however not all the qualifications have been mapped into this new framework yet. With the support of experts from the World Bank, the German Development Agency (GIZ) and other international institutions, new occupational standards have been developed, first of all in the main economic

sectors like the oil and gas industry or agriculture and engineering. Based on the occupational standards, the educational standards, which are mandatory for each occupation, should be updated. To meet the demands for a modern and practice-oriented workforce, the extension of vocational practice is essential. As the previously limited scope of practical training has been the subject of considerable criticism, the Decree on the Dual Training System from 21 January 2016 will increase the percentage of curriculum time spent on vocational practice to 60%.

The development and the renewal of occupational and educational standards and curricula can, however, only be successful if employers and professional associations are involved. In the Soviet era, the connection between enterprises and training institutions was regulated by the administrative leverage of the command economy. The collapse of the old economic structures has caused a lack of interest in the VET issues by the employers. To improve the links between the world of education and the labour market, the authorities created the National VET Development and Personnel Training Council, a new platform to communicate with representatives of employers and business associations, which is supported by regional and sectoral councils. These mechanisms are required to provide a balance of forces, a system of close cooperation between the state, private businesses, trade unions and educational institutions. It will help to attract investment into vocational education. Despite best practices – predominantly in the oil and gas sector, and in big national companies – this model has not yet spread nationwide. Small and medium-sized enterprises in particular need stimuli to reinstate their position.

The involvement of employers is also needed to increase the attractiveness of vocational training for young people. Driven by prestige-oriented considerations that are encouraged by their families, many young people prefer higher education: "VET was seen as a channel for young people who had not completed compulsory education, who were unsuccessful in general or higher education or who had dropped out" (OECD, 2014, p. 326).

Internalization

Thus far, a number of steps have been taken to permanently establish the cooperative model through legal measures, the foundation of new institutions as well as structural reforms within existing institutions. However, the cooperative training model has not yet become an extensively used, integral part of the Kazakhstan education system. This development needs to be further monitored.

Conclusion

Obviously, the economic strength of a country and its success in international competition are closely related to the level of development of its system of vocational education and training. Furthermore, the vocational education and training system should provide people with the skills needed on the market while at the same time meeting their individual needs.

The Kazakh government recognises the role of the VET system for the economic and social development of the country and has identified the problems the system is facing. In recent years, great efforts have been made to implement the dual vocational training system. A number of challenges still need to be addressed, some of which have been mentioned in this paper.

In comparative education, we can find examples of countries hoping to find a solution for their own problems by implementing individual elements of a model that has worked and proved to be successful for another country already. If we take a closer look at the German example, the success of dual vocational training lies not so much in its organisation and structure. Rather, it is the result of sensible control mechanisms safeguarding responsible interactions of all parties involved who benefit, in different ways, from qualified vocational training: entrepreneurs, employees and the state. It is therefore of crucial importance for Kazakhstan to develop models and mechanisms compatible with its own historically evolved structures so that a level of success can be achieved that is comparable to that of the dual vocational training in Germany.

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John Ieronimakis & Aggeliki Efstathopoulou

Greek Language Education in Egypt: An Example in the Field of International Education

Abstract

The educational content of the Greek language education in Egypt is drawn from the metropolitan centre (Greece) with the aim of developing a national consciousness based on a single ethno-cultural identity (see Greek). Such a choice is debatable as to its feasibility and results in the sense that it contrasts with the conditions of Greek children socialization in the host country (Egypt), which are bilingual, coming from two different cultures, while their education is ethnocentric or oriented around Greece. In our research we examine the reasons that led to an education cut off from the sociocultural reality of the Greeks of the Diaspora, as well as its consequences, given that the Greek community has lost its past dynamics and it is on a declining path.

Keywords: Egyptian Hellenism, Greek Diaspora/colony, ethno-cultural identity, intercultural education

Introduction

In the present study the Greek language education in Egypt is examined at a diachronic and a synchronic level. Our theoretical tools for this purpose derive from the contents of the ethno-cultural identity and the way of legitimizing Greek language education in the Diaspora. Our analysis, finally, takes into account the historical context in which the specific educational policy was shaped.

Research framework and methodology

Hellenic diaspora has a long history in Egypt and Greek children education is part of this history. In the present paper we will be concerned both with the forms and the content of Greek language education in this particular country. In order for the context of this survey to be understood, it should be borne in mind, first of all, that Egyptian Hellenism fluctuated according to the political and social conditions in this state with extension to education, and secondly, that particular importance was attributed to the Greeks of diaspora in order to cultivate the national consciousness and to preserve the common ethno-cultural elements with the Greeks of the metropolitan center.

Our study covers the period from the 1930s to the first half of 2010s. Methodological reasons require this period to be distinguished in individual periods or segments, knowing in advance that there is a time sequence and a sequence of events among them. A criterion for such a distinction is the established historical conjuncture or, in other words, the spatial-temporal context (political, social and economic developments), linked to the position of the Arabic language in the Greek school and the role of the Greek community in the educational activities of the

diaspora (see indicatively: Dalahanis, 2015; Efstathopoulou, 2015; Soulogiannis, 2000, 1999). Specifically, we refer to three periods, with the following qualitative characteristics:

1930-1970:

- Nationalization of the economy resulting in the limitation/termination of the Greek commercial and economic power.
- Introduction/strengthening of the Arabic language into Greek schools, at the request of the Egyptian authorities, while being undermined by the Greek community under the tolerance of the Egyptian authorities.
- Creation of a migration wave from the Greek community with negative consequences for its dynamics.

1970-2000:

- A part of the Greek community become aware of the importance of the Arabic language for the new generation's educational and professional career while simultaneously undermining it by the majority of the diaspora.
- Continuous weakening of the Greek community due to young people's departure for studies or work in Greece and other countries.

2000-2015:

- Disturbing the balance of the social system from the "Arab Spring" and after.

A total of seventeen (17) subjects were selected for research purposes, distinguished as follows: a) graduates of the Greek school in Egypt or in the Egyptian school in all the above periods except the last one; b) students and teachers of the Averofius Lyceum of Alexandria in the period 2000-2015. The survey took place in the second half of 2017 after a two-month exploratory / pilot phase. A semi-structured interview was used to collect the data.

In this context the following research questions are being discussed: a) what is the content of Greek language education in Egypt and how it evolved over time; b) which factors influences it and how it is legitimized ideologically; c) what are the results of the Greek language education in the new generation and the community as a whole.

The formation of ethnic identity in the diaspora

The term *ethno-cultural identity* means a collective / social identity based on general cultural categories or taxonomic schemes such as origin / ethnicity, language, religion, history and customs (Gotovos, 2002, p. 13). These elements can be directly detected or otherwise can be *synchronous* or documented in a specialization / mythology of the past in a symbolic or imaginative way, so we are talking about *diachronic* elements (Damanakis, 2009, p. 219). Below we will link ethnic-cultural identity to the term *diaspora*, in an attempt to interpret theoretically the tendency of rallying the alien residents around a distinct ethno-cultural identity (Brubaker, 2005, p. 6).

On the one hand, someone who is away from his/her homeland is naturally wishing to speak his/her own language and to maintain his/her cultural roots. On the other hand, its socialization takes place in an intercultural / bilingual environment. In this context, the concept and approach of diaspora involves the ethno-cultural

dimension. Such a definition is given by Damanakis (2007, p. 45), according to which,

> the term "diaspora" means the geographical separation of ethnic groups that are detached but not necessarily alienated from their origin / reference group or ethnic group, live as ethnic groups or as ethnic minorities within a culturally diverse society, move between two reference groups and between two cultural systems and therefore their identity is shaped under particular circumstances.

As a result of this definition, the diasporic identity is constituted in a dialectical relation to the place of origin and place of residence. That is, it takes place under bilingual or multicultural conditions. Consequently, the individual's socialization should draw on this multicultural reality. In our case, an alien resident can participate as an active citizen in the social reality of the host country and at the same time maintain his Greek identity. In other words, it has a complex or multi-level identity that will co-exist with ethnic-cultural elements from both countries.

A privileged space for developing a collective identity is education. The creation of a national identity is linked to the above function as a consequence of the conditions created and consolidated by the national state, as through school there may be the necessary homogeneity based on common origin, language, religion, history or, otherwise, the common cultural content. By the same recipe, the national consciousness for foreigners abroad would be ensured as a prerequisite for achieving the unity of all Hellenism (Damanakis, 2001, p. 7).

However, the desirability of an ethnocentrically oriented education in the diaspora is debatable. While the purpose of the school is to transmit the socio-cultural standards of society and the culture in which the individual is developed, ethnocentrically oriented Greek language education seems to ignore the overall socio-cultural influence of the student. The result is that the latter's identity is not synthetic but partial, and therefore non-functional in multilingual diaspora.

Greek language education of Egyptian Greeks

1930-1970 Period

The Greek element has been benefited from its long-standing privileged position in the Egyptian economy, but in the course of time, from the inter-war period onwards and especially after Nasser's assumption of power, domestic capital has been strengthened and the Egyptian state "*protected and supported its citizens through the Egyptian labor market*" (Dalahanis, 2015, p. 180). Under these circumstances the education of Greek children was a major issue for the Greek communities in the sense that through it "*the contact points of the community with the formation, labor, and cultural environment of Egypt*" (Dalahanis, 2015, p. 178) could be strengthened. However, since such a strategy would not have immediate effects and required time to reward, a more short-term solution was chosen to link education to the labor market by providing technical knowledge from vocational schools, as well as by teaching the Arabic language to students who attended Greek schools (Markantonatos, 1957, p. 30).

At the same time the Egyptian school attracted students from Greek families who wanted greater contact with the society of the host country or did not have the financial comfort to attend another foreign private school. At the end of the 1940s,

the percentage of Greek students in Egyptian schools reached 6.5% (Dalahanis, 2015, p. 180). By far the first choice of the colony was the Greek school, the second was the French, followed by the Egyptian, Italian, British and American schools.

An indicative of the distance that the Greek community wanted from the Egyptian element was the exemption of Egyptian ethnicity students from Greek schools at least until 1960. The question that arises is how such practice is legitimized since the status of the Greek schools in Egypt (privately) allowed for the study of pupils of different nationality from the Greek. The causes of this "closeness" should be sought in the ethnocentric ideology of Greek language education, according to which any interference with different ethno-cultural elements is considered harmful to language, culture and national identity.

The same ethnocentric concept was followed as far as the Arabic language was concerned. How else the marginalization / degradation of Arabic language in Greek language education could be explained, when by Law 40/1935 students of foreign schools (see Greek) had to learn the Arabic language (the Arabic language had been included in the curriculum since 1926) (Cochran, 1986, p. 29, in Dalahanis, 2015, p. 209). Greek students were relieved of this obligation in various ways with the tolerance of the Egyptian authorities – these are the so-called "loopholes" as reported in the interviews, such as facilities for students who did not start their first-class studies in Egypt (attended classes in Greece) or pupils whose parents were transferred to a public service in Egypt from Greece, and this also justified their exclusion from being taught the Arabic language.

It was only in the early 1960s that the need to learn the Arabic language had become entrenched by part of the colony. The change of attitude occurred as a consequence of the disadvantage of the Greek element at socio-economic level since the nationalization period, and the wave of immigration that hit the Greek colony. In the late 1950s, three out of four candidates in public sector or business companies were excluded due to language deficiency (Dalahanis, 2015, pp. 209-215).

The residents of the colony should now have adequate proficiency in the Arabic language as it was the only way to have access to jobs and to be able to compete with the domestic workforce. However, the project faced many problems and was led to failure for two main reasons. The first was about the difference between the classical Arabic (Fusha), which is the written form of the language officially used in the institutions, etc., and the Egyptian dialect used in everyday communication. The problem of the students was that they had become familiar with the oral dialect and when they started learning the official language they felt confused. The second reason was that the teachers of the Arabic language in Greek schools were not properly trained.

To sum up, we can see that the more extrovert the Greek communities were in terms of trade and economic activity, the more introverted they were in relation to the education of young people, which meant that they did not perceive the socio political changes that had begun to emerge in Egypt since the late 1920s and peaked in the early 1950s. Since then, two basic views have been formulated within the community on the learning of Arabic language and the education of Greek children in general. The one side was directed towards studies that helped graduates seek employment and integrate into the host society, so their education had to be bilingual and emphasized in foreign languages. The other side believed that the

purpose of Greek language education abroad was the transmission of Greek language and culture and the development of national consciousness as a defense against assimilation. As it is known, the second view prevailed with the results we described above and we will see how they evolved over the coming decades.

1970-2000 Period

The introversion, educational and cultural, of the Greek colony in Egypt has undermined the viability of the diaspora since the 1960s. In the early 1970s Egyptian Hellenism had shrunk considerably. Those who continued to reside in the country had maintained their companies or were working in the public sector.

As far as Greek schools are concerned, the content of education continued to be the same with the exception of changes in the teaching of the Arabic language, which was compulsory for 8-10 hours a week, while French and English were also taught.

In other words, in the given period, the Greek school provided the opportunity to the students to learn the Arabic language and, by extension, the possibility for its graduates to have an academical / professional career in the host country. This, of course, was theoretical, as only a small number of Greeks continued their studies at an Egyptian university. Most of them, as reported in an interview, "*were afraid of engaging with the Arabic element, considered it to be a kind of hindrance, harassment, and insult to their culture*".

It is worthwhile to clarify the reasons that led to such an attitude / choice for the Greek community. The first reason is that the socio-economic context may have made it necessary to learn the Arabic language, but this was not accompanied by a similar culture within the colony and school. Its Greek language curriculum did not differ in anything from that of Greece, and on the other hand, the Arabic language was being taught instrumentally, isolated from its cultural (and inter-cultural) elements.

All the above are not independent of the powerful role of communities in educational matters and this is the second reason for ethnocentric oriented education.

Thirdly, a strong incentive for students to stay in the Greek school was their easy access to Greek universities or Technological Educational Institutes. More specifically, the Law 1351/1983, *Admission of Students in Higher Education and Other Dimensions* (Government Gazette 56A), introduced special measures for the admission to higher education of the children of Greek civil servants working abroad and of Greeks who live abroad. The pupils from abroad were taking special examinations, generally speaking, easier than the state examinations that Greek students had to take, with a special rate (4%) of posts covered by them.

And thus, for the second time, the position of a minority part of the Greek colony, has been undermined, although in the given phase it was acknowledged as practically useful, that education could "*create and strengthen the contact points of the community with the working and cultural environment in Egypt, which was still being developed*". And even if at the first time this position was first put forward, it was obvious that there was justification that "*it takes time to bear fruit*", the second time after three decades there was no excuse (Dalahanis, 2015, p. 178). To sum up, we can see that a strong legitimizing basis for Greek language education other than

ideology, which is always present, provided the utilitarian criterion of easy entry of pupils into higher education in Greece.

2000-2015 Period

In the 2000s Greek schools had shrunk to such an extent that the number of pupils in some of them did not exceed 10-15. As far as the orientation of graduates is concerned, the trend towards returning to Greece has been strengthened. The result was that since the early 2000s a tendency for young people to be autonomous has emerged from Egyptian social and cultural standards.

At this stage, the predominant view of the Greek community for Greek language education is almost identical to that of previous decades, with the exception of a pragmatic view of the Arabic language. In 1970-1990 the young people were leaving mainly due to (financial) need, and in such a case "*everyone is trying to save what they can and the collective spirit weakens*". On the contrary, young people in the 2000s were, at first, more conscious as "*they could not stand the pressure that existed in the Egyptian everyday life*".

The 2011 events constituted an overturning of what the Greeks in Egypt had taken for granted (the 25 January 2011 revolution, also known as the "Arabic Spring", began from Tahrir Square as a follow-up to the Revolution launched by Tunisia and continued in other Arabic countries). The Egyptian society has gone through revolutions and internal conflicts, which have gradually shaped a new social and political context. The main feature of the new era, at least at its beginning, was the prolonged insecurity.

The choice of pupils attending the Averofio Lyceum to continue their studies after high school by 50% in Greece and 50% in Egypt should be taken into account at this point. Egypt's high percentage should not surprise us as it is due to the increase of mixed marriages. Children of Greek origin could acquire Egyptian citizenship and this changes the data we have been discussing so far.

As far as the Arabic language is concerned, not all students seem to have a satisfactory level of knowledge. The above view is also supported by the fact that there has been no change in the attitude of the Greek community on how it addresses the education of Greek children. The teachers we have talked to had the same opinion about the nature of education: "*It is purely Greek-centered*", they pointed out.

Conclusion

The development of national consciousness was the driving force for the Hellenocentric nature of the education of Greek-Egyptian children in Egypt. This choice was strongly supported by the colony and its institutions through years, and the Greek state, in the name of the unity and continuity of Hellenism. Its results however can be evaluated and they are negative, since the new generation of Greeks in Egypt was unable to be integrated in the host society in a creative way. The students of the Greek schools, deeply absorbed in an educational system with a strictly Hellenocentric orientation, did not have the opportunity to come into contact with the culture of the host country and mainly with the Arabic language, which deprived them of professional chances and alienated them from the society and the country which later they would abandon.

In other words, Greek language education has led the community to an economic and social weakening. The number of a formerly thriving community is now shrinking. The pursuit of the creation of an artificial collective identity in greenhouse conditions, ignoring the conditions of socialization of the individual and the wider social reality (in this case the country of residence), has produced the opposite of the expected results and proved to be meaningless.

The answer to the question of what education ought to be in diasporic/multicultural environments, therefore, cannot be other than the inclusion of all ethno-cultural elements in the school, bearers of which are the students of different ethnic groups, with the full awareness that the school must take into account the conditions of people's socialization and develop synthetic identities (Arvaniti, 2013).

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Part 2
Teacher Education

Juliana Maria Smith

Challenges and Opportunities of Professional Development in Teacher Education at a South African University in a Pre- and Post-Democratic Era

Abstract

The nature of teacher education in South Africa and institutions of higher learning, like the University of the Western Cape (UWC), is reflected by the country's history. The history of the Faculty of Education is intimately tied up with the anti-apartheid and social reconstructionist history of UWC and the apartheid policies of educational segregation. This paper therefore reviews the historical context of the history and manifestations of teacher education within the Faculty in a pre- and post-democratic South Africa. Challenges and opportunities for growth are knotted with the history of the University itself. Although the democratic dispensation had the ambition to produce well trained and professional teachers, the impact of the country's teacher education history has remained visible within institutions of higher learning such as UWC. Teacher education and development in South Africa harbours challenges due to the country's history, therefore time and resources would be required to adjust the educational sector to expected standards.

Keywords: teacher education, University of the Western Cape, South Africa, apartheid, challenges, opportunities, democracy

Introduction

The story of teacher education at UWC is entangled in what transpired around the country and in other historical black institutions of higher learning. Lewin, Samuel and Sayed (2003, p. 161) note that: "The history of the Faculty of Education is intimately tied up with the anti-apartheid and social reconstructionist history of UWC" and the apartheid policies of educational segregation.

Historical context of UWC

UWC was established in 1959 as the University College of the Western Cape, which was an integral part of the University of South Africa (Wolpe, 1995; Vos & Brits, 1987). This happened at a time when teacher education in South Africa was undergoing major forms of transformation in various universities and teacher

training colleges, including the clamour for autonomy, one UWC obtained 10 years after its inception (Behr, 1988).

At UWC two orientations to teacher education emerged between the 1970s and the 1980s, all shaped by the national agenda. A scientific-technical approach was adopted in the 1970s followed by a more practical and deliberate approach in the 1980s. The then leadership of the university adopted a declaration of nonracialism and "a firm commitment to the development of the Third World communities in South Africa", a route that was cemented when the institution gained total autonomy in 1983, through the UWC Act of 1983 (Wolpe, 1995). In the later part of the 1980s, UWC politicised its agenda, and aligned this with the mass democratic movement under the banner of "an intellectual home of the left" being described as consisting of "those persons, institutions and organisations seeking and working for a fundamental transformation of the settler-colonial dominated order which prevails in South Africa today" (Gerwel, 1987, p. 2).

UWC put in place an 'open' admissions policy to admit students irrespective of race, colour or creed in 1985 (Vos & Brits, 1987), in defiance of the 1984 constitution that forbid the admission of other races in a university designated for a particular race, and in the case of UWC, for people classified as "Coloureds" (Bunting, 2006). UWC, under these circumstances, aimed to build a distinctive character of the university.

Teacher training and development before 1990 in South Africa were influenced by the policies of the apartheid government coined in the Christian National Education (CNE) policy document of 1948. In the 1990s then emerged a critical-emancipatory ideological approach towards teacher education at UWC in response to South Africa's new found democracy, which necessitated the need to build an education system that was contrary to the segregationist tendencies of apartheid.

Challenges of teacher education at UWC between the 1970s and the 1990s

Teacher education in South Africa prior to 1994 was embedded in the limited number of disciplines of Historically Black Universities (HBUs) namely humanities and arts subjects (Sayed, 2002). To ensure that universities complied with these expectations of government prerogatives, courses that were designed for them were by all means not aligned within the broader social, political and economic realities of the South African broader society at the time (Wolhuter, 2006). The government's agenda was to train graduates with a mind-set that would orientate them to maintain the socio-political agenda of the apartheid government.

The technical approach at UWC in the 1970s was influenced by the then Fundamental Pedagogics (FP) and the Christian Nationalism of the apartheid regime (Byrnes, 1996). This was further cemented in the 1980s through the infiltration of the leadership and academic staff of all public higher institutions, including UWC with white Afrikaners who were trained at historically white Afrikaans-medium universities to ensure that the apartheid ideology was kept alive.

Teacher educators were faced by challenges and the demands imposed by existing teacher education policies to which the Faculty of Education in particular and UWC in general were bound to follow. Teacher education programme through its dominant FP and the resultant scientific approach was eminent. Within this

paradigm, Giroux (1988, p. 123) emphasises the negative implications of the approach by arguing that: "Underlying this orientation to teacher education is a metaphor of 'production', a view of teaching as an 'applied science' and a view of the teacher as primarily an 'executor' of the laws and principles of effective teaching". This kind of teacher training at UWC orientated student teachers to maintain and perpetuate the ideology of the apartheid government with little interrogation (Smith, 2006).

Black students grappled to cope in terms of studying independently at the University, due to the handicapped nature of the black schooling system (Behr, 1988). This negatively impacted on the quality of teachers trained at UWC, producing teachers that did not know their work well, hence sustaining a cycle of low quality education within the Black communities.

Training for both primary and secondary school teachers was made the sole mandate of colleges of education. UWC was only afforded the mandate to train secondary school teachers, in effect limiting the number of graduates that could be trained (Behr, 1988). In 1982 UWC offered a four year Diploma in Education to train teachers for secondary schools, and only a one year Higher Diploma in Education for postgraduates (Vos & Brits, 1987). In 1990 teacher education colleges were closed and education was incorporated into higher education following the institutionalisation of the 1996 Constitution. The constitution made tertiary education a national competence, and the Higher Education Act of 1997 made teacher education an integral part of the higher education system.

Funding provided by the government for students at UWC like other HBUs was far less compared to predominantly White universities (Behr, 1988), and this restricted the intake and training of student teachers who could not afford to pay school fees. Although the government financed the university in terms of buildings, equipment, salaries and maintenance, students were obliged to pay school fees (Vos & Brits, 2010), an aspect that restricted many student teachers from enrolling at UWC.

UWC's Faculty of Education focused on the traditional approach which was prevalent in similar institutions. Student teachers at UWC were also offered alternative, critical theoretical discourses focusing on critical discourses on education through Liberal and Marxist perspectives, often revolving around apartheid politics (Nkomo, 1990).

Teacher education should give student teachers a foundation and an opportunity to make original contributions to the development of pedagogical theory. This was not possible because the apartheid government was firmly in control of the curriculum, and therefore dictated what could or could not be taught to student teachers, in an endeavour to enforce its ideology of African subservice, particularly through FP (Welch, 2002; Adler & Reed, 2002). These circumstances made the teacher education programme at UWC and other HBUs so obscure to an extent that teachers could not take any rational decision or initiative based on their own analysis of the teaching and learning context (Welch, 2002).

Attempts were made in the late 1970s and early 1980s to address some of these concerns within the teacher education programmes, by improving the qualification of teachers, but still the quality of such qualifications remained a matter of distress,

due to the restrictive nature of the curriculum and the philosophies of the fundamental pedagogies that were in place (Welch, 2002).

Non-White universities experienced disruptions and unrests characterised by student boycotts. Students in non-White universities saw their campuses as the perfect ground to express their grievances against the government (Behr, 1988), and in the process experienced government oppressive measures against institutions including UWC (Wolpe, 1995).

The political realities of the 1990s aggravated and necessitated a total overhaul and transformation of teacher training programmes in institutions of higher learning, a move that intensified after 1994. However, this government overhaul programme rather resulted in a reduction of the number of student teachers that were being admitted. Surprisingly, this ideology was prompted by the growing numbers of unemployed teachers in the country and the government was determination to curb that trend in order to create a more stable and manageable system.

Opportunities for teacher professional development at UWC between 1970 and 1990

Although UWC struggled to cope with the influx of Black students due to the post 1985 open door policy, this path led to the University's rapid growth in terms of numbers, with a boost in the numbers of graduates from disadvantaged communities. These conditions combined fermented UWC's position in the late 1980s and early 1990s as an internationally acclaimed hotbed for intellectual and political resistance to the apartheid regime in South Africa (Lewin, Samuel & Sayed, 2003).

Another trajectory for growth within the teacher education programme at UWC stems from the university's critical opposition to the apartheid government's teacher education policy. The University conveniently forged ahead in union with the democratic government regarding its teacher education policy matters. This foundation was literally laid in the 1990s, following the incorporation of teacher education into higher education, as a result of the closure of colleges of education. Although this was meant to reduce the cost that was being accumulated as a result of the fragmentation of teacher education by the apartheid government, it gave institutions like UWC the opportunity to expand its teacher education portfolio (Adler, 2002).

Although UWC like any other public university in South Africa somewhat supported the basic ideology of the National Party government, the decision to change its position in the late 1980s and early 1990s provided an opportunity for growth (Bunting, 2006). Considering that UWC was specifically designated as a Coloured institution, the decision to open access to students from historically disadvantaged backgrounds gave the university an opportunity to grow intellectual and to amass ammunitions to oppose the apartheid government.

In addition to being earmarked to train secondary school teachers alongside providing services in specialised youth guidance, remedial education, amongst others, UWC was also allowed to offer courses for in-service teachers on an ongoing basis. This in itself was prompted by the higher number of uncertified teachers in coloured schools. Samuel and Stephens (2000) are of the opinion that pre-service

teacher preparation programmes play a significant role in their ability to deconstruct, construct and reconstruct teacher identity.

There were opportunities for the higher education sector to contribute, "… in partnership with community and other organizations, to the development of counter discourses to Fundamental Pedagogics" (Nkomo, 1990, p. 89). UWC's ability to benefit from such opportunities was only possible based on the degree of resistance among alumni teachers. However, the fundamental challenge of progressive teacher organisations and other bodies was to counter the dominant discourse by challenging its presuppositions, and restoring the political from its position as forbidden speech, and overthrowing the divisive practice of depicting the teacher as the expert scientist (Nkomo, 1990).

In the late 1970s there was that grave need to expand the teacher training base due to the increasing number of unqualified teachers. Out of 94,575 teachers that were employed in 1984, only 22,732 possessed a matric certificate or a higher qualification (Vos & Brits, 1987, p. 114). This was one of the reasons why UWC cultivated the need to keep professional teachers abreast with new developments in their respective teaching subjects, by introducing an in-service training programme for professional teachers.

In the 1980s, due to pressure for reforms within the educational sector, the de Lange commission was put in place and tasked with reporting on the state of the county's education system. Although the government only made some minimal adjustments in response to the commission's findings, by accepting only the basic principles of equality of opportunities and of standards in education, it still created opportunities for growth for non-white institutions, including UWC (Hartshorne, 1985).

The path adopted by the teacher education programme in the 1990s and 2000s was geared towards strengthening the student teachers' ability to reflect on their own practices in order to change it, and to be able to examine the relationship between schooling and societal inequalities with the purpose of addressing inequalities through their teaching and other professional activities at school.

Teacher education in post-apartheid South Africa

From the 1990s effort was made to ensure that teacher education reform in terms of curriculum was based on sound research. Attempts were made to construct new qualifications and curriculum. Hence, the revision of the Norms and Standards of Teacher Education Policy document in the 1990s was meant to enable teacher education qualifications and programmes to be able to transform practice, as opposed to what was in existence before 1990 (Welch, 2002). The democratic government positioned its first mission to be that of restoring equity, equality and fairness in the educational system.

The establishment of the National Teacher Audit at the dawn of democracy was tasked with the responsibility to research, and analyse teacher demand, supply and utilisation nationally (Chisholm, 2009). The intention was to do away with the education structures of apartheid regime that were discriminatory. Although the government introduced the Tirisano plan in 2000 with the intention to develop the professional quality of teachers, this unfortunately focused on less intensive developmental aspects of teacher education.

Deacon (2010) notes that 23 universities were tasked to train teachers in the post-apartheid era, however their capacities were questionable, because few offered the full suite of educational programmes. Although provinces were required to use 1% of their budget for human resource development, including the training of teachers, it did not reflect in the budget allocation for teacher education (Deacon, 2010). As a result it impacted negatively on teacher education at UWC. Soudien (2010) notes that the democratic government's decision to regulate the teacher education programme throughout the country contributed to: the loss in the prestige formerly attached to the teacher profession and a reduction in the number of youths interested to become teachers.

The period before and immediately after democracy in 1994 saw numerous changes within the education core in South Africa in terms of policy development. The democratic government aware of the potential of education to address the country's inequalities (Mogliacci, Raanhuis & Howell, 2016; Schafer & Wilmot, 2012) embarked on a mission "to overhaul a highly segregated, dysfunctional and costly education system by building a foundation of quality and equality in South African schools" (Lajewski, 2015, p. 15).

Ideally, teacher education should allow student teachers to critically question existing knowledge structures and become agents of change contributing in a meaningfully way to knowledge construction.

Conclusion

Different political forces shape the views and approaches towards teacher practice at any institution of higher learning. Although the democratic dispensation had the ambition to produce well trained and professional teachers, the impact of the country's and UWC's teacher education history has remained visible with institutions of higher learning, particularly at UWC. Time and resources would be required to adjust the educational sector to expected standards.

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Analysis of the Activity of Preservice Teachers and Trainers on an ePortfolio Platform

Abstract

The Reunion Island teachers training school has decided to set up an ePortfolio platform to validate the "C2i2e" certificate for trainees. This certificate confirms their competencies in technology enhanced learning and digital education. Trainers and trainees of the school have been using this platform for the past three years. Here, we study their activities to understand the real use of the platform that has been done. To analyze their behavior, we look at the traces they left on the platform. These traces show that, while all trainees go on the platform to get the certificate very few of them do it for their own goals and when they do it, it is usually for sharing documents. For their part, only a few trainers of the school work with the platform. When they do it, it is to make documents available to their trainees or to collect their students' work.

Keywords: teachers training, traces analysis, ePortfolio

Introduction

The Reunion Island teachers training school (Ecole Supérieure du Professorat et de l'Education de la Réunion, "ESPE") trains preservice teachers of elementary and secondary school. This training alternates according to two periods throughout the year, a period in the ESPE when trainees follow the courses and a period in schools when they are in charge of a class. In their cursus, trainees have to validate a certificate – Certificat Informatique et Internet Niveau 2 Enseignant (C2i2e) – that confirms their competencies in Technology Enhanced Learning (TEL) and in Digital Education. To do this, they have to perform a set of activities and to deposit the results on an ePortfolio platform. Trainers evaluate these works and propose whether or not to award the certificate to the trainee.

We have chosen Mahara as our ePortolio platform. This platform is a complete system of e-portfolios, curriculum vitae and social networks that allows connecting users and creating online communities. This platform is very intuitive and very easy to practice. It takes less than two hours to train trainees and trainers to its use. The ESPE has set up this platform for the TEL courses but the platform is also at disposal to all stakeholders of the school to meet their own needs. Thus, some volunteer trainers and all trainees have followed this training. The goal of this study is to see if this platform has been used only for the TEL courses as preconized by the institution or if actors have used it freely for other goals. In the latter case, we try to understand how they use it and what these goals are.

When they use the platform, actors can create groups. In these groups, they can share views of portfolios, but also files in folders or launch forums. A view contains blocks that can contain text or artefacts (files, pictures, movies, and so on). All these

objects and all the activity on these objects leave traces on the platform. Thus, to understand this activity we analyze these traces. In a first step, we explain the methodology we employed. In a second step, we present the results we got. Finally, in a third step, we propose an interpretation of these results.

Methodology

Users have left more than 800000 traces on the platform. To study these traces, we preprocess them according to Activity Theory (Engeström, 2014). This theory provides a theoretical framework that makes it possible to identify easily the various aspects of human activity. It is often used to analyze computer supported collaborative work. In the Activity Theory, to achieve his goal, the subject uses tools and relies on a community. This community follows rules and some division of labor. Thus, we linked all the traces we find on the platform to the user who has left them and to the group in which he was. The traces we got are the traces of "objects": users, views, forums, blocks, artefacts, and so on. They are also the traces of actions on these objects: creation, modification, and so on.

In a first time, we will distinguish two categories of users: trainees and trainers. Then, among trainees, we will distinguish between preservice elementary teachers and preservice secondary teachers. We will also consider two types of groups: with or without a trainer. We want to see if a trainee has the same behavior in a group with a teacher than in a group without teacher. For all these categories of users, we have computed the average number and the coefficient of variation of a whole series of indicators: average number of sessions they have opened, average number of views they have created, average number of blocks and artefacts they have deposited in their views and in their folders.

Results

There are 2111 users on the platform: 2081 trainees and 30 trainers. Trainees can stay on the platform during three years, maximum duration of their training, whereas there is no limit of duration for trainers. All the trainees of the school have to use the platform to validate the C2i2e certificate but only trainers in charge of this certificate have to use it. There are only 13 trainers in charge of the certificate, thus we could consider that the 17 others use it for their own needs: it is not really the case. In the following, we present the users activity according to different indicators.

Number of opened sessions

Trainers go on platform 6 times more than trainees do. The average number of sessions for a trainer is about 120 and, for a trainee, only 20. However we have to be careful because the coefficient of variation for trainers is very high (189%). It means that some trainers go on platform very often and others very rarely. Indeed, when we look at data, we can see that one trainer have opened a session on the platform 975 times whereas 14 others less than 10 times.

Among trainees, there is also a difference but much smaller. On average, a preservice elementary teacher has opened 23 sessions and a preservice secondary only 14. This difference indicates probably a different behavior according to the category of trainees. Inside each subcategory of trainees, the coefficients of

variation, that are around 90%, show that their behaviors are more similar to each other than the ones of trainers. Only 10 preservice elementary teachers among 1330 went on the platform more than 100 times and 18 secondary, among 751, more than 50 times. This similar behavior is due to the C2i2e that preconizes a regular use of the platform. However, the little average number of sessions (20) seems to indicate that most of the trainees use it only for this purpose.

Number of views, blocks and artefacts

The number of views, blocks and artefacts gives an idea of the production of the user on the platform. For example, a trainee has to create at least one view with 10 blocks and eventually 10 artefacts to validate his C2i2e.

Once again, there is a big difference between trainers and trainees. Trainers have created five more times views than trainees (11 vs 2) and two more times blocks (49 vs 21) and artefacts (57 vs 22). Once again, the high coefficient of variation for trainers (143%) indicates that from one trainer to another there could be very big differences. It is the case; if we look at data, one teacher has created 72 views with 134 blocks and 159 artefacts and another one, respectively 73 views, 331 blocks and 255 artefacts whereas, on the opposite, another trainer has only created 2 views with 9 blocks and 15 artefacts.

What is very surprising is the homogeneity of the results of the trainees. Whatever the degree, elementary or secondary, the average of views, blocks and artefacts are the same. They have created on average 2 views with 21 blocks and 22 artefacts. Moreover, the coefficients of variations are low, around 30% for views and blocks and 50% for artefacts. Therefore, the behavior of one subcategory of trainees versus the other is very similar, but also inside each subcategory, from one trainee to the other, for most of them. Other information that we got, is that on average each trainee has created one more view than the C2i2e view. This additional view shows that the ePortfolio is not used only for the C2i2e.

Groups: creation, membership

As we have stated before, in the Activity Theory, we consider that the subject will rely on a group to perform his goal. Therefore studying the creations of groups or the memberships is necessary to understand the activity on the platform. For example, to validate their certificate, trainees will have to participate to one C2i2e group and to deposit in this group a view of their ePorfolio. Thus, each trainee has to participate at least to one group. If he participates to more than one group, it means that the platform is used for other goals than the C2i2e. As we will see, it is the case.

Concerning creation of groups, trainers create 70 more times groups than trainees. The average number of creations of groups by a trainer is 12 whereas it is only of 0.17 for trainees. It is easy to understand why. If they want to work with their trainees, trainers have to create groups otherwise, they will not be able to see the productions of their students. On the other side, trainees have just to deposit their work in the group created by the trainer. They do not need to create group. Thus, the average number of creations of groups by trainee (0.17) means that some trainees have freely created groups for their own needs and not for their trainer. However, 0.17 creation is very few. It means that not all trainees have created groups.

If we look at subcategories of trainees, elementary vs secondary, there is not a big difference between them. The average number of creations for preservice elementary teacher is 0.18 and 0.16 for secondary.

Whatever the category of users, the very high coefficient of variation is to point out: 211% for trainers and 258% for trainees. When we look at data, we see that only 11 trainers among 30 have created more than 5 groups and 5 of them have created more than 20 groups. More interesting is that 3 of these "active" trainers are not "digital" trainers because they do not have in charge the C2i2e. Thus, we can consider that these trainers use the ePortfolio platform for their own needs. Only 311 trainees among 2018 have created at least one group, 36 of them have created more than one group and 5 more than 2 groups. For them also, we can consider they have used the ePortfolio for their own needs.

Group membership is another useful indicator. The average number of memberships of a trainer is 7 times more than the one of a trainee (14 vs 2) and the coefficient of variation is much higher (209% vs 91%). If we look at the data for trainers, we see that the number of memberships in a group is more or less the same than the number of creations what is not surprising. Therefore, we find the same differences between trainers according to the membership indicator than according to the creation one. For trainees, the results are more interesting. First, there is a difference between elementary (2.71 memberships) and secondary (1.42 memberships). Therefore, on average, one preservice elementary teacher belongs to more groups. To understand this difference we have looked at the membership in groups without a trainer. A preservice elementary teacher belongs to 0.35 groups without a trainer whereas a secondary belongs to 0.25. Thus, they belong more or less to the same number of groups without a trainer. The difference in group memberships (2.71 vs 1.42) comes necessarily from the groups with a trainer. It means that trainers for elementary training use the platform more than the ones for secondary training.

Trainees' membership in groups without a trainer is an indicator that they have used freely the platform for their own needs. However, the high coefficient of variation shows that not all the trainees belong to such groups. Actually, they are only one third out of them to do it; near seven hundreds trainees out of 2081.

The analysis of the group creations and the group memberships shows that trainers and trainees use the ePortfolio platform for their own needs. However, it is clear that this is only a small part of the trainers and a third part of the trainees. Among trainers, those working in the elementary courses use more the platform than those working in the secondary courses.

Forums and posts

Forums and posts are good indicators of the type of work on the platform. Here, these tools are very little used. It means that the work on the platform should be more cooperative than collaborative in the sense of Dillenbourg (Dillenbourg, Baker, Blaye & O'Malley, 1995). The average number of forum creations is 0.19 and, for once, trainees create, on average, more forums (0.19) than trainers (0.13). However, trainers deposit more posts (2.13 on average per trainer) than trainees do (0.58). Here also, the coefficients of variations are very high: 347% for creations and 282% for deposited posts. The very little number of creations or deposited posts and

these very high coefficients of variation indicate that only a few actors use the forums. If we look at data, we see that only 2 trainers and 211 trainees have created forums. 14 trainers and 414 trainees have deposited posts. Preservice elementary teachers create ten times more forums (0.28 creation per user; 191 creators) than secondary (0.03 posts; 20 creators) and deposit posts 6 times more (0.84 posts; 363 creators) than secondary (0.13 posts; 51 creators). As we can see, the use of the forum by elementary teachers is much more important than the one of secondary school teachers. Anyway, these figures are very low. The fact that the training is a hybrid formation could explain this; most part of the negotiation and discussion take place during face-to-face courses.

Interpretation of results

If we summarize the previous results, we see there is only 16 trainers who really used the platform. The use by the other 14 trainers is too insignificant to be taken into account. It means that among all the trainers of the ESPE, around 50, only a third of them use the platform. Among the 16 "active" trainers, 13 of them have to use it to train the students in TEL courses and to validate their certificate C2i2e. Most of the time, these "digital" trainers have also used the platform for other goals than the C2i2e. If we consider the "non-digital" trainers, only 3 of them have used the platform for their own needs. So, we can consider that most of trainers who do not teach TEL, tend not to use it themselves.

We wanted to understand for which purpose trainers use the platform when it was not to validate the C2i2e. Thus, we have looked at the name of their groups, the title of the views in these groups and who has deposited the views. There are two major kinds of use. The first consist for the trainer to make available to trainees documents they use in courses in face-to-face, or documents that trainees can exploit in their own class during internship at schools. In this case, the platform replaces the photocopier: the ePorfolio platform is rather a sharing platform. This is the way the 3 "non-digital" trainers use the platform. They are the creators of most of the views and artefacts in the groups they have created and shared with their trainees.

The second type of use is done essentially by a few "digital" trainers who must provide other courses than the TEL courses. They ask their trainees to return their work to them through the platform. In this case, we can consider that the platform is actually used as an ePortfolio platform. In this case, trainees deposit most of the views and artefacts in the groups shared with their trainers.

Concerning the trainees, most of the time, they go on the platform to validate their certificate C2i2e or because one of the previous trainers asked them to do it. However, we have seen that there are only a few trainees who have worked on the platform among themselves in groups where there is no trainer. To understand which usage of the platform they have, we have looked at the name of the groups and the title of the views. It appears that most of the time the platform is used as a sharing platform where they deposit documents useful to teach when they are in internship: the words "sequences", "lesson" or the name of the lessons appear in many titles.

We have seen that there was a difference between the subcategories of trainees: preservice elementary teachers use the platform more than preservice secondary teachers do. We have seen also that this difference comes from the trainers. In fact,

the three "non-digital" trainers work only with preservice elementary teachers and the difference comes from them. It means that "non-digital" trainers of preservice secondary teachers do not use the platform for their own needs.

Conclusion

We studied the traces left on an ePorfolio platform by trainers and trainees of the Reunion Island teachers training school. The analysis shows that if all trainees use the platform to validate their certificate C2i2e, few trainees use it for their own needs and when they do it, it is to share documents for their traineeship. A third part of the trainers, only, uses it. When they do not use it to award the C2i2e, they do it either to make documents available to trainees or to retrieve their students' work.

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Part 3

Education Policy, Reforms & School Leadership

Gillian L. S. Hilton

Thinking 'Outside of the Box' in Modern Education Systems: Working across Cultural and Language Boundaries with Student Teachers in Lithuania

Abstract

This paper explores the challenges of working with non-native speakers of English, on areas pertinent to the successful education of trainee teachers of young children in Lithuania. The challenges faced were numerous, as the two week programme was not specifically related to the young child's education, covering subjects such as quality assurance of programmes, induction processes for new teachers, the characteristics of teacher educators and mentors and the skills required by teachers in the twenty first century. The conclusions reached were the following; subject matter more directly related to young children's education, though this would not have stretched the students in the way desired by the researcher; and translation of the material used into Lithuanian, originally suggested by the researcher would have without doubt aided the comprehension and learning of the students, many of whose standard of English was often not sufficient for the tasks set. Struggling with the language of instruction definitely affected content learning. However, students despite the difficulties made very successful efforts to embrace the end of programme's challenge, involving group work and group presentations of a new curriculum for training pre-school teachers and pre-primary teachers.

Keywords: learning and teaching, teaching in English with non-native speakers, Lithuania, group work, peer assessment

Introduction

The writer, a native English language speaker, was asked to work for two weeks with Lithuanian college students who were completing a three year degree to become teachers in pre-school and pre-primary. Funding was sought and provided by the Lithuanian government and a programme was devised in consultation with the college senior staff and agreed. The daily teaching sessions were in English and followed by consultation time for the students, individually or in groups. All the reading material, power point presentations and the final task instructions with assessment criteria, were given to the students weeks in advance to allow preparation time.

Working in English has become popular with many universities in Europe, as they perceive it to be a way of attracting international students. Labia (2011; 2014) has raised concerns that this threatens native languages. Students she believes face cultural differences that are both wide and deep, which affect their ability to respond. She asserts that it is not just a question of language, but understanding the behaviours of students from different cultures. Ideas such as universities expecting a critical response by students to reading matter and course content, which is not however favoured in some parts of the world, where repetition of knowledge given in lectures is preferred, or admitting to not understanding, seen in some cultures as shameful can be problematic. It is essential to ensure students interact with material presented and in this author's case this was true, but highly challenging, due to the restricted English of many of the students. Belhiah and Elhami (2014) in their research in the Gulf profess that students fail to learn content when taught in a foreign language, as they struggle with understanding. Labia (2011) also believes that the wide vocabulary of a native speaker can add to the difficulties for students, not native speakers and used to accented English used by non-natives. In addition, she points to the problem of the poor English language skills of many professors in European universities, complained about by many students, with universities reluctant to impose English tests on their staff. However, the drive for internationalisation is continuing to grow and 'become an end in itself' (Leutwyler, Popov & Wolhuter, 2017, p. 66).

The researcher has for years, worked for the quality agency for higher education in Lithuania (SKVC), leading teams of international experts assessing the quality of education programmes in Higher Education Institutions (HEIs). Quality therefore, was high on the agenda for this programme. Henard and Roseveare reporting to OECD (2012), suggest teaching quality in modern HEIs is influenced by a wide variety of issues, foremost being the internationalisation of higher education and changes in pedagogy, such as technology and pressures of global competition. They assert that transmission models are no longer valid as a sole aid to learning and that there is need for a variety of pedagogical approaches. In addition, a report to the European Commission (High Level Group on the Modernisation of Higher Education, 2013, p. 12) suggests the need to 'comprehensively professionalise its teaching cohort as teachers' (rather than as researchers), a somewhat damming indictment of the standards of teaching in HEIs across Europe.

Economist Intelligence Unit (2017) presented research into schools, curricular and teacher training, whose focus was to ascertain how countries were preparing future workers with the skills required namely, interpersonal skills, problem-solving and critical thinking and being able to survive and understand an automated, digital world. The report concludes that countries are not doing enough to change students' experiences of teaching and learning, to prepare them to cope in such a world. Governments' efforts in producing globally aware citizens are poor and there is a lack of team working on projects that require cooperation. Knowledge needs application to real life concerns, not merely being acquired and tested and learning has to constantly change. In addition, education for the future needs to be linked to a harmonious tolerant society, where diversity is accepted and equality is the norm. Skills required the report asserts are, inter-disciplinarity, creativity, entrepreneurial ability and to be analytical and leadership oriented. To achieve these objectives

students will require a high standard of literacy and understanding of science, technology, engineering and maths, plus the ability to be resilient and cope with stress.

Years of experience of assessing standards of teacher education programmes in Lithuania made the researcher realise that much of the above future thinking would be a challenge to staff and students, as change does not come easily, despite Soviet control of processes being for students, old history. Hilton (2014) pointed out the need for change in the learning cultures of Lithuania and Latvia from a focus on teaching, to one of learning and a need to embrace change. Cerych (2002) had asserted that advisors in countries shaking off communist regimes need a working knowledge of the language, but Hilton (2009a) from wide experience rejected this idea, providing good translation and a willingness of all to cooperate were firmly in place. This author believes that the outsider can often perceive more than the insider in such situations. Hilton (2009b) asserts that the move towards a more western approach to learning, for example group work, peer assessment, critical questioning of theories, has proved a challenge as teachers in HEIs in these countries have been used to a more didactic approach to teaching. Ryan (2011) discusses the need to change teaching approaches when working with international students, such as giving clear introductions and repeating key points, offering pre-reading, all of which was done in this exercise. She also discusses how cultural and language challenges can be confusing, as behaviours of staff and students in the classroom differ and language, which is informal or subject specific, may cause problems for non-native speakers. In addition staff student relationships can be a source of concern, if different to the locally accepted behaviours, as can new forms of assessment.

Research

The respondents

These were thirty nine students from years one to three of a programme for training pre-school and pre-primary teachers. It was decided to include year one students, despite their experience of the programme having been merely of one month's duration as their English was, in the opinion of staff, better that that of the older groups. All students had received material for the planned teaching, including a day to day session breakdown, pre-reading, power point presentations for each of eight days and instructions about the presentation task set for days eight to ten, the criteria for assessment and a peer assessment sheet. Many students brought their laptops and had the advantage of reading the material as it was presented in the lecture/seminars. Students were assured that there were no 'right answers' to the final task, but a chance for them to think what they felt should be included/not included in their programme, bearing in mind the information given to them in the lecture/seminars. Each day students were given questions to discuss in groups and feedback their answers to the whole group. In addition, consultation times were set to allow students to meet the researcher in groups or individually. The final presentations of their ideas for a new programme for pre-school and pre-primary education were delivered to the researcher and to some of the staff team in English. Each group received feedback from all the other groups after presenting.

Initially students had completed a pre-programme questionnaire asking about their feelings about what they were to undertake. During the two weeks the researcher made daily notes of student responses to the questions set, the challenges of teaching and learning in English and when and if students came to consult the tutor in the times set aside. A small volunteer group were involved in a group interview after the first session. In addition the researcher had constant discussions with the staff team, particularly about student reaction to the programme and their ability to understand and speak in English. After the programme was concluded staff asked students to complete questionnaires and the researcher analysed their responses to questions about their experiences.

Initial questionnaire results

Thirty nine students, all female, completed the initial questionnaire, sixteen in year one, twelve in year two and eleven in year three. There had been considerable drop out from the programme in recent years. Staff thought that some students were not suited to being teachers, but applied as they wanted a degree. They had all passed the government's motivation test which most staff agree is a total waste of time. Most were between eighteen and twenty one, only one student being over thirty and two twenty two to twenty five. They had all found the pre-reading difficult, most admitted to dipping in and out and some to reading nothing at all. Most said they would have read more if it had been translated into Lithuanian.

Group interview

The initial interview took place with nine students three from each year. The main concern expressed by the group was their ability to undertake a programme in English. They were worried that the tutor would judge them harshly. There were tentatively looking forward to the experience, but afraid they would not understand as it would be a new experience, maybe difficult but worth it. They were looking forward to something new despite the difficulty, but worried that the work might impinge on the demands of other modules that counted towards their grades. They were hoping to, as a result of the programme, improve their ability to speak in and understand English and learn more about teaching. The idea of there being no right answers was difficult for them, not something ever experienced before. They all concurred with the view that foreign teachers are different to Lithuanians, in that they are more personal and relaxed. Asked about the pedagogical approaches they expected, one said she had 'no expectations' and another it was 'better to wait and see'. Others however, said 'group work as foreign teachers use it a great deal'.

Staff concerns

Again the main concern was the ability of students to understand English and also the challenge of the subject content chosen, which was outside the students' experience. There was a definite over-estimation of the students' ability to read and speak in English though first years had a better grasp than their older colleagues.

End of programme questionnaire

Fewer students, twenty three, completed this as it was done after the researcher had left. The majority of students again mentioned the difficulty with English, but

most said that had found the sessions very or quite interesting, though two thought them a waste of time (this correlated with not reading the material provided and problems with understanding English). Most had really enjoyed the final project group work and were pleased with their efforts. Several found the material challenging and two irrelevant to their proposed career, but the majority considered the sessions interesting, even though covering material so new to them, which two described as 'very scary'. Many considered the final sessions the best as 'we had got used to the teacher' and it was 'fun to work together to think about changes needed to our programme'. Several liked that everyone had been made to speak in the final session. First years found the session about practice least useful as they had not yet been into schools even to observe. One third year refused to choose one session as best and one as least useful, saying they were all of great interest and made her think about her career. This student had a fairly good command of English, having lived in Ireland for some time. Several of the respondents said that the group work had been interesting but difficult, as 'different people had different ideas' and this was a challenge for the final project. However, it was good for them, as it made them 'work together and above all 'think'.

Visits to practice places

Two visits were made to kindergartens, taking children up to age six. Discussions with staff there underlined their concerns about their lack of responsibility in assessment of practice and students spending too much time observing rather than doing. They wanted to be more involved and wished college staff would visit the placements and see the students working, something not in place at the present time as assessment is by student report.

Conclusion

Initially communication was a real problem, the students shy and finding the need to listen to and speak in English very challenging. At first some students helped by translating material and on occasions a member of staff did the same, but getting the students to really discuss and question the tutor, admit to a lack of understanding was very difficult. It appears that they were ready for group work as 'foreign teachers always do it'. However, it was apparent that my relaxed style of walking around the groups, insisting that they attempted to talk to me was not considered 'normal'. Additionally, the set tasks were seen as a real challenge, as students were required to question the efficacy of the programme they were following, 'we have never done anything like this before'. Many years of experience in talking to students in the country, whilst undertaking subject quality reviews, proved invaluable to the researcher, who has a good level of understanding of the local cultures. Persistence was rewarded and by the time students were under pressure to prepare their final presentation they were much more vocal, finding it easier to ask 'what does this mean' or 'I don't understand this' so much more progress was made. A great deal of effort was put into the final work and the results were a revelation to the staff, who were delighted by the quality of the ideas presented. Students really had thought and discussed amongst their groups and as a result had presented a series of challenges to staff about their programme, its modules, the place of practice, how they were assessed and the role of the college

staff and teachers in schools as teacher educators. Student comments seriously questioned the way practice was assessed, a highly paper based approach, as students wanted to be judged by what they did with the children, not by what they wrote. The Dean in charge of the programme admitted that the students had raised serious questions for the staff to answer and that all the power point slides produced by students would be collected and used for staff discussion and development. The staff were it appears, astonished how much the students, despite their difficulties with English, had taken from the input into the programme. So, despite the language problem, the 'thinking outside the box' approach demanded by the final project helped students demonstrate that they were thinking, using material and ideas given to them during the programme and producing work which astonished the staff who taught them. If as a result, moves are made by staff to question and alter teaching and assessment methods as has been promised, then the whole project can be seen as a success and the quality of the programme the students follow should be enhanced. In addition, as one student said 'we have really been made to work hard at our English and I am glad we were', whilst the Head of Department admitted that more had to be done to increase the use of English in the three year programme to help students build on what they had learned in school. Therefore the experiment may have successful outcomes in the future.

Whatever the concerns about teaching in English to non-English speakers considered by previous researchers, to some extent this experiment was a success. However, if the content had been essential for passing assessments on the normal programme, some students would have been seriously affected. The 'thinking outside the box' approach was for most students and certainly for the staff who observed the results a real success, taking students into territory not normally considered in their programme and giving them a voice which so far had not been heard, as to what they wanted to learn and how it should be taught and assessed.

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A Grounded Theory of ECD Principals' Self-Care and Workplace Wellness-Promotion Practices

Abstract

The purpose of this grounded theory study is to discover the self-care actions, habits and attitudes, which contribute to occupational wellbeing of ECD crèche principals in a disadvantaged community. Failure to take care of one's own wellness and self-care jeopardises occupational functioning and the business. I explore the participants' self-care practices along different dimensions of living, to establish how they take care of themselves personally as well as in the workplace.

Keywords: health, wellbeing, job satisfaction, early childhood principals

Introduction

The notions, wellness and self-care, are ubiquitous in the popular media and in the workplace, it presents as wellness programmes. A deficit in universally accepted definitions (Sieberhagen et al., 2011) necessitates clarification of relevant concepts in the context of this study focusing on the actions, habits and attitudes of the Early Childhood Development (ECD) owner-principals to support self-care and to improve workplace wellness.

Wellness builds on the World Health Organization's definition of health: 'a state of complete physical, mental, and social wellbeing and not merely the absence of disease and infirmity' (WHO, 1998, par. 1). It is seen as a subjective evaluation of life satisfaction and emotional reactions (Fisher & Boer, 2011) and a conscious process of being continually exploring, choosing and questioning along multiple dimensions of living (Sieberhagen et al., 2011). Wellness contributes to reaching maximum but realistically feasible potential. This requires self-development, personal improvement and growth (Sieberhagen et al., 2011).

The term *employee wellness* (EW) used in literature is associated with EW programmes promoting health and life skills, preventing illness and injuries and managing diseases (Sieberhagen et al., 2011). However, I prefer the term *workplace wellness* (WW) as the participants in this study are both principals and crèche owners, posing different challenges to their self-care and wellness approach. *Self-care* as an objective of companies' EW programmes, is based on a utilitarian premise that improved health and wellness leads to decreasing costs for the company (Sieberhagen et al., 2011). Besides mental and physical self-care, WW strategies include self-reflection, active networking and setting boundaries to improve job engagement, efficacy, resilience and satisfaction (Sanchez-Reilly et al., 2013). Typically however, self-care is described as a holistic approach for a healthy lifestyle (Sanchez-Reilly et al., 2013).

The purpose of this grounded theory (GT) study is to uncover the lived experiences of ECD principals' actions and attitudes contributing to occupational wellbeing by developing a GT about self-care to support physical, mental and emotional health; prevent burnout and compassion fatigue; manage stress and promote job satisfaction and good quality of life. GT is useful in social settings to develop theory rooted in observation, experience and 'real world' expressions (Willig, 2011).

Method

I purposefully selected four female ECD crèche owner-principals from disadvantaged areas in the Western Cape. They had been identified by an NPO which trains and mentors ECDs from marginalised communities. Pseudonyms were used throughout. I drew on Glaser's Classic GT (Kenny & Fourie, 2015), and generated data through unstructured interviews; field notes; and memo writing (Willig, 2013). Following the inductive approach of GT, concepts were not pre-defined, and the literature served as another data source reviewed only after data saturation had been reached and themes developed (Ramalhoet et al., 2015). After acquiring informed consent, interviews commenced with one broad question: *Which actions, habits and attitudes do you use every day to take care of yourself and that make it possible for you to do your work?* Discussions became progressively probing. The abbreviated GT coding procedure followed, using only the original data set (Willig, 2013) and data collection and analysis happens continuously and simultaneously (Kelly, 2006). Theory is constructed through an iterative process of constantly comparing data while identifying and integrating categories as the GT emerges (Gabriel, 2013). Analysis followed a two-stage open-coding process, first sifting through the data to identify core categories, related concepts and emerging themes followed by theoretical coding, moving away from description towards conceptualisation, abstraction and integration and a substantive theory (Kelly, 2006; Willig, 2013).

Discussion

When identifying emerging themes, I considered WW as a conscious, deliberate and active process of being, along multiple dimensions of living while relating self-care to the physical, mental, emotional, spiritual, social, occupational and environmental wellness (Sieberhagen et al., 2011). Specific themes emerged as actions, habits and attitudes participants employed to care for themselves and to improve workplace wellness: making work meaningful; investing in self-development; actively building relationships and keeping the faith.

These themes differ greatly from the popular depiction of self-care and wellness as feel-good, inward-looking and self-indulging behaviour encouraging retreating from this world and resulting in 'every social problem collapsed into the quest for a good life' (Penny, 2016, par. 3). Self-care rather resembles the radical understanding of the 1970s feminist movement and Lorde's (1988, p. 130) declaration: 'Caring for myself is not self-indulgence, it is self-preservation, and that is an act of political warfare'. Self-care is thus associated with determination, empowerment, resilience and self-worth (Ahmed, 2014). It is the struggle for survival and self-preservation to

take control, being resourceful and discovering what you can do for your own wellbeing (Evans et al., 2017). Sometimes it is simply coping, getting by and making do (Ahmed, 2014). It is about actions rather than feelings; hardiness rather than hiding.

The emerging themes show similarities with the thematic components of Narrative Identity Theory (NIT) explained in the third level of McAdams' life story model (2001), namely narrative identity (NI), and link with psychology studies exploring the relationship between personal narratives, and psychological wellbeing (Ryff & Keys, 1995).

NIT holds that we are self-aware, embodied beings compelled to make sense of our lives by integrating life experiences into internalised and ever-developing stories of the self with a reassembled past, perceived present and an imagined future (Singer et al., 2013). We use stories to situate ourselves in time and place (Woodruff-Burton & Elliott, 2005); to better understand our own and others' actions. We develop strategies to create a structured, credible and above all meaningful whole giving purpose to our lives (Singer et al., 2013). The relationship between constructing life stories showing the ability to adapt, reframe and make meaning can support wellness (McAdams & McLean, 2013; Singer et al., 2013). NI identifies eight thematic elements of personal narrative (McAdams & McLean, 2013), four of which correspond with the themes I identified.

Making work meaningful

NI explains meaning-making as the degree to which we make sense of life, events, emotions, relationships and ourselves (Lips-Wiersma & Morris, 2009). The participants demonstrated the ability to reframe their often-tragic life experiences and difficult circumstances to give their lives meanings, illustrated by frequent expressions of the joy children bring to their lives. Katriena, who had a difficult childhood, says "*I just want them to be happy, when they are happy, so am I*". Having work that has meaning facilitates personal growth, making it significant - an essential aspect of wellbeing (Alan et al., 2016). The decision to care for children and the subsequent choice to open a school-business is directly linked to this ability to make meaning from their own life stories.

Agency

Self-determination contributes to having meaningful work but it is also a consequence thereof. People from lower social class backgrounds often have limited career choices due to lack of access to education and finances (Alan et al., 2016). The data indicates however, that all four participants defied these odds and became agents in the Bandurian sense to intentionally shape their own narratives and to influence their life circumstances by giving it meaning and creating meaningful work. Says Fezeka, after losing her work: "*I was the one who said to others let's start our own business. Now is the time to stand by myself. I feel strong to everything that was happening. [I told] myself this is a job that I like, can't do any other job*". Agency is strengthened through (McAdams & McLean, 2013, p. 234):

- **Self-mastery**: Mandisa saw the need in the community and, despite having sustained severe injuries in an accident, took control of her life because she

"*wanted to help kids who are suffering by opening my own crèche in my own house*".

- ***Increased status or prestige amongst peers***: Comments on how community members value the work done at the crèches, contribute to giving meaning to their work. Elsie says: "*People say they appreciate me, and that we must never close the school*".
- ***Achieving a goal***: Katriena is inspired as she feels: "*I don't want to hide my talent under a bushel. I am making a difference in the community*".
- ***Empowerment through interacting with something larger than the self***: Elsie explains that what keeps her going is getting out of bed every day for a purpose. Running their own businesses, and having their own money, offer the participants a sense of control over their lives and allow them to intentionally initiate and carry out activities (Bandura, 2001). Personal autonomy improves wellbeing and reduces negative psychological symptoms as they develop their talents and potential (Fisher & Boer, 2011). Katriena considers her business part of her self-care. "*It is something I do for myself. It gives me the world of pleasure*" and Mandisa says: "*No one tells me what to do. I get ideas on what to do. Creativity, that is who I am*".

Redemption

One of the meanings of redemption in NI (Alan et al., 2016) refers to personal growth and learning new skills. The participants indicate that their involvement with teaching, their ECD training and continued professional development has led to personal growth and skills leading to positive psychological responses when evaluating job experience (Judge & Klinger, 2008) and contributing to wellbeing (Connolly & Myers, 2003). Fezeka says: "*I get support and information from doing courses and workshops, so I feel I can do what is needed*". Despite some complaints, participants agree to experiencing job satisfaction, some even considering it a calling (Geldenhuys et al., 2014).

Communion

Communion refers to caring for and helping others from close family to the broader community for optimal wellness (Prilleltensky & Nelson, 2000). Communion implies striving for unity, sharing, building affiliations, belonging, supporting and communicating with the self and with others (Lips-Wiersma & Mills, 2014; McAdams & McLean, 2013).

The women's ***relationship with self*** however is lacking. Elsie says: "*[There is] not much I do for myself, I just go on. There isn't time for myself*". A lack of work-life balance, boundaries, leisure time and resources lead to a lack of personal self-care. Katriena says: "*I don't take time to spoil myself … attending to my hair and nails. When I do have money, I think, I can use it somewhere else*".

Physical wellness (nutrition, exercise, rest and hydration) is not prioritised. Katriena, who suffers from a range of lifestyle conditions, says she tends to eat infrequently, often only because she has to eat before taking medication. Also, personal healthcare takes a backseat to work and earning a living. When Mandisa sustained serious injuries, she continued working: "*[I]f I stopped, who was going to*

help me? There was no choice. How am I going to survive, how am I going to live? I was helping myself. Because of my love here I am, I keep smiling every day". Whether from exhaustion or not, the majority of participants said they sleep well at night, Fezeka indicates "*I pray before I sleep*" but Katriena admits to struggling to "*switch off at night*", leading to conflict with her husband.

Some ***personal relationships*** appear to be troubled. Family wellness according to Prilleltensky and Nelson (2000) refers to meeting the needs of everyone in the family. Although spouses and family members offer emotional support (Katriena's daughter sometimes treats her mother to a massage or meal), and practical support (Elsie's daughter helps with the crèche's bookkeeping), help with housekeeping chores is less forthcoming. Fezeka's husband supports her business "*but housework is my responsibility*". Extended families offer little support either by choice or because they live far away. According to Elsie she is "*the pillar of strength in family, not the other way round. (I ask no-one and rely on no-one. I love giving and rely on God)*".

The majority of participants are actively involved in their ***wider community***, caring for the elderly, running a soup kitchen, involvement with youth groups, and organised religion. Katriena says it is her love of young people, including gang members, which prompts her to engage with them while doing patrols for the local neighbourhood watch. Often community engagement ensues from identifying needs and wanting to empower their community. Elsie started the crèche when she "*saw a lot of children on the street. I said to God: now I see where I am going*". Achieving self-care through building relationships features strongly. Elsie stated: "*We can't just exist for ourselves*".

Professional relationships provide support and they value the role of the NPO as mentor: "*They make my life easier*" (Elsie) and "*(E)very time I have a problem at the crèche, they help me*" (Fezeka). Colleagues become friends who support one another. Fezeka attends weekly ECD forum meetings: "*if you have a problem [you] share and get solutions*". Also, church attendance serves as professional support for her. "*There are some other people … they know about business. We share ideas, I can pick up some points*."

All the women expressed the central role ***faith*** plays. Katriena knows that God helps her achieve her vision. "*He tells us to bring the children to Him; He blesses me without end*". Elsie explains that she gave up full-time work because God commanded her to start a school. "*I am a very religious woman, I don't despair. If you follow the Lord's plan, He will provide*". Fezeka says: "*Sometimes there are trials and tribulations but I have faith that there is God, even when I feel that now I can't do it, I know that there is hope for tomorrow*". Mandisa agrees: "*I keep on praying, reading, the Bible gives me hope. I have to be strong, can't lose faith. Nothing can stop me*".

Conclusion

Running a crèche and business is demanding, particularly in a sub-economic area. Failing to properly take care of wellness and self-care, places one-self and the business at risk. However, I found that self-care in the context of many ECD principal-entrepreneurs in indigent societies does not equate to self-indulging pamper parties. Instead, self-care is part of a stubborn battle towards personal and

professional self-preservation and self-empowerment to prevent burnout at best, and despair at worst. Although the participants in this study have, mostly, created ways of meaning-making and job-satisfaction, physical wellness in particular is neglected. Intentional guidance of ECD owner-principals to integrate actions, habits and attitudes promoting workplace wellness and self-care, can enhance resilience, and better quality of life.

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Re-Contextualization of Effectiveness and Efficiency in Post-Socialist Education

Abstract

Transformation of post-socialist educational systems is perhaps one of the most interesting and at the same time underestimated in its importance, developments in the history of comparative education. After the three decades of post-socialist development one can note significant differences between the countries which once had identical or very similar educational systems. Perhaps the most interesting topic for comparativists to explore is the question: why instead of convergence do we observe the increasing divergence of education in the post-socialist area? One of the possible answers is that post-socialist countries perceived the new ideology, namely, the ideology of neoliberalism, in their own specific way, which was determined by their historical, cultural and religious heritage. The concepts of effectiveness and efficiency in education can be considered as one of the typical cases of re-contextualization. The paper provides several examples showing that these concepts are still interpreted in different ways in the East and in the West.

Keywords: effectiveness, efficiency, post-socialist education

Introduction

Transformation of post-socialist educational systems after the great changes of 1989-1991 is perhaps one of the most interesting and at the same time underestimated in its importance, developments in the history of comparative education. The post-socialist educational area includes thirty countries in Europe and Asia. Educational systems in most of these countries have become a testing ground for many innovations which Western European countries with well-developed systems of free public services considered too radical or too risky to implement, e.g. privatization of educational institutions or introducing market mechanisms in education. During the first decade of post-socialist development all ideas which came from Western experts and counterparts were perceived rather uncritically and introduced or at least promoted without any significant critical analysis (Rado, 2001). The second decade was marked by a more balanced nature of reforms and growing differentiation in the post-socialist world. Global tendencies, including GERM (Global Education Reform Movement) prevailed, however, in each region and even country they were interpreted and implemented differently. Most of the Central and Southeast European countries became a part of the EU integration project, while some others, namely, Russia and its satellites, started looking for its own way of development. During the third decade one can observe the continuously increasing divergence and difference between the countries which once had identical or very similar educational systems.

After the fall of the Berlin wall in 1989 the trajectory of educational transition to many researchers both in the East and in the West, seemed rather simple and linear

in nature. Silova (2010) notes that as a conceptual framework post-socialism was relegated to the sidelines of comparative education. The post-socialist condition has been incorporated into the existing framework of convergence theories. The 'underdeveloped' former socialist countries were supposed to modernize their systems of education in order to catch up with the contemporary educational ideas and to fit the more 'advanced' Western standards. 'The belief of many researchers was based on the assumption that 'there is one Western educational model that needs to be replicated in the post-socialist countries and that there is only one way of implementing this model' (Bain, 2010, p. 31). In this respect the application of convergence theory to education seemed quite rational and evident. The term 'countries in transition' was applied to the post-socialist region having in mind the transition from a 'failed' socialist system to a 'superior' model of Western capitalism. The term 'transition' implies the temporary nature of reforms, which should last until the process of changing one model into another is completed.

Different trajectories of educational development

More than a quarter of a century has passed since the collapse of the world socialist system; however, today we have to admit that the process of transition is not over. Moreover, it seems that at least part of the post-socialist world is not moving closer to the previously desired Western model, and in some cases the tendency is quite the opposite. Silova (2010, p. 8) observes that 'notwithstanding the claims of the global convergence, post-socialism remains a space for increasing divergence and difference, where complex interactions between the global and the local persistently undermine all linear predictions'.

How could this happened and why? Before the end of the socialist era the systems of education in countries of the socialist world had very many common features. Reforms in former socialist bloc countries started more or less at the same time – at the beginning of the nineties of the last century. Consultants and donors came also practically from the same global or regional organizations – the World Bank, Asian Development Bank, OECD, European Commission, etc. No wonder that all these countries received more or less similar 'post-socialist' reform packages. Pace of the reforms could be different, but the final result was expected to be more or less the same. However, that did not happen and one of the most interesting topics for comparativists to explore is the question: why instead of convergence do we observe the increasing divergence of educational systems in post-socialist area?

Neoliberalism and post-socialism

The collapse of the previous social model led to a series of crises, the consequences of which are felt even nowadays. Each country tried to find solutions in its own specific way, which was predetermined by the previous historical, cultural and religious heritage, mentality of the people, interpretation of current global tendencies, etc. In other words, one of the typical reactions to emerging difficulties was 'returning to the roots' and the pre-socialist 'roots' for many of these countries were different. Another possible reason was the impact of neoliberal ideology, which started to prevail in leading Western economies and global organizations

during the last decades of the twentieth century. 'Borrowing from abroad' was another dominant model of behavior for the post-socialist world besides 'returning to the roots' (Anweiler, 1992). Neoliberal ideas for countries which just started to build capitalism were almost unanimously perceived as an unquestionable set of recipes necessary to follow in order to get rid of the socialist heritage. 'Caught in the tumult of changes that condemned the past and celebrated the future, we bought post-socialism together with neo-liberalism and other Western products' (Cervinkova, 2012, p. 159).

Neoliberalism introduced the concepts of effectiveness and efficiency in education. Van der Walt (2017, p. 12) notes: 'Neoliberalism could be described as a worldwide drive to be more effective, efficient and productive in whatever is undertaken, even to the extent that non-commercial activities such as education are being subjected to norms normally associated with business corporations'. Post-socialist society, which during the soviet period did not think in commercial terms about domains of social activities like education, arts or sports, was eager to take the neoliberal rhetoric for granted.

However, although the 'global' reform agenda is clearly visible, it is being continuously re-configured into new (and often unexpected) arrangements across the region. When socialist and post-socialist histories interact with the Western reform projects, the outcomes are often contradictory. Not only are Western neoliberal reforms modified in post-socialist contexts, but they are also directly challenged (Silova & Eklof, 2013). The concept of effectiveness and efficiency in education was one of the concepts, which each country interpreted and introduced in its own post-socialist way.

The concepts of effectiveness and efficiency

After the collapse of the socialism the 'outdated' educational model inherited from the past was to be replaced by a more effective Western one. The key question was: what education system is effective in accordance with the Western standards? One of the most popular explanations heard from the World Bank and OECD experts – one can judge about the effectiveness of education systems by PISA results. OECD Secretary-General Gurria notes that 'the OECD Programme for International Student Assessment, PISA, has become the world's premier yardstick for evaluating the quality, equity and efficiency of school systems' (OECD, 2013, p. 2). Besides effectiveness, according to experts, one should also think about efficiency – effectiveness at the lowest possible cost. These were the two key concepts, which underwent re-configuration in the post-socialist context. In what way? Critique of methodological nature and arguments that PISA is not the only one international students' achievement study does not work. Nor does the argument that there are many other explanations of effectiveness in education and that this particular approach assumes the economical mission of education and ignores the socio-cultural one. Gurria clearly states: 'Equipping young people with the skills to achieve their full potential, participate in an increasingly interconnected global economy, and ultimately convert better jobs into better lives is a central preoccupation of policy matters around the world' (OECD, 2013, p. 2). Effectiveness of educational systems is measured by the extent the skills the young people are equipped with fit the needs of the global economy. Instruments of

measurement, are, of course, provided by the PISA project team. Post-socialist context requires simple answers to complex questions, and PISA eagerly provides them.

Simple answers in their own way suggest simple ways of 'raising the effectiveness' of education. Chapman et al. (2016) warn that one of the deficiencies of PISA is the ability of the countries to play with the results by entering data from a limited range of social and geographic areas within them. For example, results of Russian Federation in PISA 2015 survey are not at all impressive. Results in reading, mathematics and science literacy are below the OECD average. In order to play with the results, Russian educational authorities separately calculated results of the best 300 and 100 schools in Moscow and declared that the capital's education system was one of the six best educational systems in the world on levels of reading and mathematical literacy. According to them, the top 100 schools of Moscow provide education of higher quality than required by the world's best standards. These schools occupy the first place in the world. Another 300 of the best schools are in first and second places in terms of reading and mathematical literacy (5 Hot News, 2016).

Politicians used the chance to boast of their success: for example, Moscow Mayor told Putin that school education is Moscow remains among the best in the world (Moscow Mayor, 2016). Even if we tend to agree that PISA results in some way show the effectiveness of the system of education, does the exercise of comparing the results of the best Moscow schools with student achievements in other countries (not cities) really prove the effectiveness of education?

China uses a similar way of demonstrating effectiveness. Chapman et al. (2016) observe that China played with PISA 2009 results by limiting the geography of their survey to the Shanghai district. In PISA 2015 China was already presenting the data from four districts – Beijing, Shanghai, Dziangsu and Guangdong. Kazakhstan chose a somewhat different approach: PISA results showed significant improvement since 2009 but were considered unreliable due to an insufficient number of participating students and were not included in the overall country rankings. One can only guess how these students were selected.

Russian Federation was not happy with world higher education rankings as well. Russian universities complained that they were discriminated against and in fact deserve higher places in world rankings. Finally their own world university ranking system was designed – Round University Ranking – with headquarters in Moscow. With the appearance of the new ranking system the dream finally came true – Lomonosov Moscow State University is 38th in the world's university reputation ranking (Round University Ranking, 2018). No other ranking system but the Moscow-designed one could place two Russian universities (Sankt-Petersburg State University is 97th) on the list of world's top 100 universities.

Efficiency is usually defined as effectiveness at a lowest possible cost. The efficiency question can be formulated in two distinct ways:

- How to improve outcomes, without increasing costs,
- How to produce the same level of outcomes at lower costs (Sheerens, 2016).

Both options are favoured by post-socialist politicians as cost reductions in education in this case can be explained as seeking for a more efficient management of public services, completely in line with the neoliberal ideology. A combination of

PISA results and *Education at a Glance* can be an especially useful tool for demonstrating the efficiency of post-socialist education. *Education at a Glance* provides cumulative expenditure per student in primary, lower secondary and upper secondary education, including both OECD member states and candidates. In Chapter B we can also find a graph illustrating the relationship between cumulative education spending per student and reading performance in PISA (OECD, 2017, p. 173). Judging by the graph, Russian education seems to have the most efficient education system, while Chinese Taipei takes the second place, and Lithuania – the third. The graph shows the countries investing less than USD 50 000 per student. Russia and Lithuania invest almost USD 50 000, Chinese Taipei – about USD 46 000, and the reading performance scores of their students are highest among the less than USD 50 000 countries. *Education at a Glance* observes a positive link between cumulative expenditure per student and PISA reading scores across the countries investing less than USD 50 000 per student. Above USD 50 000 per student, the relationship between performance and cumulative expenditure per student disappears (OECD, 2017).

In other words, Russia, Chinese Taipei and Lithuania have found the most efficient formula of investment, which comes close to USD 50 000 per student. From this point of view educational systems of Switzerland, Austria or Luxembour should be qualified as highly inefficient, because they invest several times more than Russia, but the level of the reading performance of their students is lower (OECD, 2016). Similar comparisons can be used for praising the achievements of a national education system, and country officials like to exercise in these kinds of activities. However, I have not heard anything about Swiss students trying to get into Russian or Lithuanian schools in order to receive a better education.

A similar exercise can be done with the university rankings. When we compare the budgets of Western and Eastern universities, which are in similar ranking positions, post-socialist higher education institutions will seem highly efficient as they train doctors, engineers and teachers for costs much lower than in the West. When we compare achievements in the field of world culture or research, the situation is different, but most probably for the economically-oriented experts of higher education the academic achievements in arts and science will not be considered as the most important criteria of efficiency.

Conclusion

In the search for answers to our key research question – why similar socialist education systems chose different trajectories of development – we found out that one of the possible explanations is the differences in ways the countries interpret and introduce neoliberal concepts in education. We demonstrated just several examples when, under the influence of neoliberal ideology, post-socialist countries were re-contextualizing the concepts of effectiveness and efficiency and applying it to their specific context. Similar definitions like accountability, result-oriented management or performance-based assessment still have different meanings in the East and in the West. Western-type educational monitoring is usually based on trust, Eastern-type – on control. In post-socialist world we still see the shortage of trust and the abundance of control, and it will take some more time to diminish these differences.

Acknowledgements

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'A New Way for New Talents in Teaching' or the Impact of Targeted Recruitment, Rigorous Selection, Innovative Training, and Ongoing Professional Support on Beginner Teachers' Performance

Abstract

'A New Way for New Talents in Teaching' (NEWTT), an Erasmus+, Key Action 3: Policy Experimentation project, explores alternative pathways into the teaching profession for highly motivated graduates and professionals. The project is inspired by prior research that compares traditional teacher education programs to alternative pathways to the profession based on teacher and student performance and on key competencies and mindsets demonstrated by the teachers in both tracks. The key hypothesis tested is that rigorously selected career-changers or top-performing graduates with a strong commitment to teaching could combine their first two years at school with practical, on-the-job training and a university teacher certification program and perform at least on par with traditionally trained beginner teachers. If this proves to be true, NEWTT could potentially address a few major EU-wide education challenges. An impact assessment team have been tracking the competence, motivation, and mindsets of the alternative training group and have been comparing them to the competence, motivation, and mindsets of control groups – traditionally trained beginner teachers also working in underperforming schools. The impact evaluation interim report for Bulgaria outlines a few key trends: NEWTT trainees and beginner teachers enter the profession with different job motivators – the main one being social responsibility for NEWTT trainees and job security for the control group, teaching competences increase for both groups over time, and traditionally trained teachers feel a higher need for support in the three main teacher tasks of tracking student progress, giving students feedback, and establishing classroom routines.

Keywords: alternative pathway, teacher training, career changers, rigorous selection, policy experimentation, multi-national collaboration

Introduction: Prerequisites for 'A New Way for New Talents in Teaching'

The results of student assessments such as PISA, TIMSS, and PIRLS have led to close examination of the quality of teaching as well as to the implementation of measures to increase school effectiveness. In search of different levers to improve education, teacher training and development and specifically teacher induction (Ingersoll & Strong, 2011), prove to be promising starting points. In the last decade, there have been numerous studies examining the effectiveness of existing teacher education programs.

Hutchings et al. (2006) conducted a broad evaluation of the Teach First programme in England during its first two years of existence. The main objective of the study was to identify innovative aspects of the programme which could be beneficial to initial teacher training as a whole. Data were gathered through

interviews of different stakeholders, focus groups, questionnaires and observations. The authors identified a number of innovative aspects, such as the selection criteria for individuals to participate in the programme, the recruitment of high-achieving graduates who otherwise may not have considered teaching, the development of a strong community among trainees, continuity from initial training to induction year, and strong ongoing support structures. Schools also reported back various ways in which trainees had a positive impact: imaginative teaching, initiation of extra-curricular activities, and stimulation of professional dialogue among teachers. Additionally, trainees evaluated the programme positively, with 40% of those completing it staying at their placement schools for a third year (Hutchings et al., 2006).

In 2015, Abs, Eckert, and Anderson-Park evaluated the training program of a similar alternative pathway program, Teach First Germany. They followed one cohort of Teach First Germany trainees over a period of eight months. In addition to collecting data on the quality of the different training modules, the researchers examined different outcome variables: teacher self-efficacy, teaching competence, and teacher performance on a pedagogical knowledge test. The results showed that Teach First Germany trainees assessed their teaching competence and their teacher efficacy highly. However, though they felt increasingly competent over time, their teacher self-efficacy slightly decreased over this same period. The test results also indicated a significant knowledge gain for the program content specific questions, as well as for The Teacher Education Development Study in Mathematics (TEDS-M) questions. A descriptive comparison of the average proficiency between alternative pathway trainees and traditional pathway teachers in the TEDS-M study revealed that alternative pathway trainees possessed higher proficiency at the beginning of their program than traditional pathway teachers at the beginning of their studies in teacher education. At the end of the program, alternative pathway trainees possessed a similarly high or higher proficiency than beginning teachers within the regular pathway.

The findings of the different studies underline the potential for innovative approaches to teacher recruitment, training, and professional development. In particular, research suggests that alternative pathway programs that employ practices such as rigorous selection criteria and practical on-the-job training can be effective in bringing into the profession new entrants without prior teaching experience and training them to achieve positive outcomes. Still, the research in the field has been limited, including to only select (mostly English-speaking) countries in the European Union.

About 'A New Way for New Talents in Teaching'

'A New Way for New Talents in Teaching' (NEWTT), an Erasmus+, Key Action 3: Policy Experimentation project is inspired by this research and by the remaining need for greater investigation of alternative pathways into teaching to comprehensively study the effects of implementing and scaling such approaches across the EU and in different cultural settings. The project consortium is comprised of fifteen organizations from seven EU member countries, namely Bulgaria, Romania, Latvia, Spain, Austria, the UK, and Germany. It is important to note that besides the multinational level of cooperation, the consortium brings together non-

governmental organizations, national ministries of education, universities, and stakeholders from the industry sector. It includes five non-governmental organizations which are part of the global network Teach for All, Teach For Bulgaria, Teach for Romania, Teach for Austria, Empieza por Educar (the Basque country, Spain), and Mission Possible (Latvia). The ministries of education in these five countries are also part of the consortium and the resulting collaboration between the government and the NGO sector is groundbreaking and quite promising for scaling the results during the exploitation phase of NEWTT. Plovdiv University (Bulgaria) and University of Bucharest (Romania) are also partners in the consortium and their role is crucial as they provide NEWTT trainees with teaching certification. The Federation of Austrian Industries provides the much needed perspective of the business sector, and an impact assessment team from the University of Duisburg-Essen is responsible for the external evaluation of the project. The global network for expanding educational opportunities, Teach for All, also supports the consortium in their effort to prove the effectiveness of alternative pathways to teaching in order for national educational institutions to have a solid ground for policy reform. It is important to note that whereas the consortium is comprised of partners from seven EU member states, the policy experimentation pilots are tested in only five of these seven countries: Bulgaria, Romania, Latvia, Austria, and the Basque region in Spain.

Main hypotheses tested

The policy experimentation project sets out to test four main hypotheses as outlined in this paragraph. The recruitment, selection and initial training methodologies of the NEWTT alternative pathway pilots will generate trainees who are suitable for teaching (with regard to teacher competence, e.g., pedagogical knowledge, teacher attitudes, and self-efficacy). The trainees starting teaching in each national pilot will overall perform at least as well on initial measures of teacher competence as beginning teachers in traditional programs. Trainees who enter through the NEWTT alternative pathway pilots will improve their competence as teachers over the course of the NEWTT pilots. The overall competence of trainees within the NEWTT alternative pathway pilots will compare positively with those of beginning teachers in traditional programs. At the end of the program, at least a proportional share of trainees from the NEWTT national pilots will finish their second year at school and will be willing to continue teaching or contributing to the impact of schools for the students they have taught, as compared to beginning teachers from traditional programs.

If these hypotheses are proven, NEWTT has the potential to address a few major EU-wide challenges outlined by the Council of the European Union in 2013. One major challenge is related to teacher shortages, as the teaching profession does not attract top talent and is not viewed as an attractive career. This shortage is especially acute in schools working with vulnerable communities, which need motivated teachers who are prepared to adequately address the additional challenges that impede students from lower socio-economic backgrounds in their pursuit of quality education. The aging teacher population (in Austria and Bulgaria in particular) and low interest in the teaching profession among young people raises concerns of impending teacher shortages.

The partner universities in the consortium and the tailored certification programs they provide for the NEWTT trainees tackle the necessity for an updated teacher certification curriculum to address the needs of 21st century students. Teacher certification curricula across Europe do not evolve as quickly as the needs of today's learners. As numerous studies have demonstrated, 21st century students need to develop literacy, numeracy, critical thinking, and other skills that boost employability and enable them to stay competitive in an ever-evolving economy. NEWTT pilot certification programs are shorter than the traditional four-year tracks because a basic requirement for applying to participate in any of the five pilot programs is to hold a bachelor's degree. This made it possible for the partner university in Bulgaria, for example, to develop an innovative teacher certification master's program for the NEWTT trainees.

The training program of the NEWTT trainees addresses yet another challenge, namely the insufficient practical training for teachers prior to entering the classroom. Research demonstrates that teachers-in-training in some countries, spend very little time in the classroom and, as a result, often begin their careers without the preparation necessary to meet the needs and challenges of their students.

The final challenge that NEWTT sets out to address is retaining teachers past their first two years in the classroom. Beginner teachers tend to leave the profession because they feel that they lack the preparation and support to deal with the challenges with which they are confronted. NEWTT aims to address that by providing trainees with ongoing professional support, mentorship and coaching.

Key shared elements of the pilots

Alternative pathways to teaching tested in this policy experiment comprise of several key shared elements which are different from the traditional pathways for entering the profession. These elements include the proactive recruitment of promising university students and professionals from various fields into a teacher training program; the rigorous selection of candidates (trainees) to enter into the training program based on a predefined set of competencies associated with high-quality teaching; the placement of trainees in a preselected school, with a focus on placement in schools that serve disadvantaged students; a comprehensive training and professional development curriculum, typically for a period of two school years and characterized by school-based on-the-job training, mentorship and coaching for trainees, and a set of theoretical and practical courses provided in person and online; a learning community created amongst the trainees. As these elements unfold, there is continuous monitoring and evaluation of trainees' performance and competence levels and their impact on student outcomes (academic and non-academic).

Objectives

In short, the objectives of NEWTT are to define innovative, value-added ways to bring new talent into teaching, to prove their effectiveness and viability, and to identify the necessary conditions for such pathways to be integrated into formal policy and to be scaled up within the consortium countries and across the EU.

The policy experimentation in conjunction with the evaluation design allows for three different types of comparisons. First, preconditions of the participants as they

start teaching in the respective intervention and control groups such as initial competence, prior pedagogical work experience, etc. are compared and analysed. Second, it is possible to follow the development of the participants within the experimental groups and monitor their change in teaching competence, including their knowledge and attitudes as well as their enthusiasm and self-efficacy (output variables). Third, the achievements of the experimental groups can be compared to those of the control groups. Finally, it is be possible to measure the retention during the first two years of teaching and the intention to stay in the education sector. The sample for the study consists of all trainees in the alternative teacher preparation programs provided by the non-government partner organisations in the five NEWTT consortium countries. The ideal control group consists of beginning teachers in schools with similar school characteristics as the placement schools of the intervention group trainees, who teach in the same International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) level, the same grade level, and the same subjects. Where it is not possible to find beginning teachers at the placement schools in sufficient numbers, beginning teacher from the same subject at other schools of the same ISCED-level and a similar socio-economic background can be chosen for the control group.

Preliminary results

Since the beginning of the project, over 225 trainees have been placed in 123 underperforming high-need schools in Bulgaria, Romania, Latvia, the Basque Country in Spain, and Austria. These 225 trainees have been actively recruited and rigorously selected out of over 4000 applications. More specifically, the numbers per country are the following: Austria – 41 trainees in 27 schools; Bulgaria – 117 participants in 41 schools; Latvia – 20 participants in 15 schools; Romania – 31 participants in 30 schools; the Basque Country – 20 participants in 10 schools.

We have yet to see the complete results of the external evaluation carried out by the impact assessment team from the University of Duisburg-Essen. However, the interim report has been shared with the consortium partners and it outlines a few key trends for all five partner countries with pilot programs. The numbers below are specific for Bulgaria.

NEWTT trainees and beginner teachers enter the profession with different job motivators, the main one being social responsibility for NEWTT trainees and job security for the control group. When asked what motivated them to become teachers, NEWTT trainees rated working with children and having social responsibility as very important. Of all the motivations listed, job security, which includes salary, was the least important for them in contrast to the participants in the control group for whom job security was the leading motivator to enter the teaching profession.

NEWTT trainees and the teachers in the control group did a self-assessment of their teaching competences before the beginning of their first year at school and at the end. The results show that despite the fact that the control group had undergone an intense four-year pedagogical university program prior to entering the classroom, there are no significant deviations in the self-assessment of both groups. On the contrary, teaching competences increase in both groups over time. With regard to teacher self-efficacy, NEWTT trainees rated their instructional skills as being very good (3.59 out of 5). Even though they rated their self-efficacy concerning

classroom management lower, it is still rather high (3.16). These results are quite remarkable considering that the trainees are beginning teachers with very little or no teaching experience.

Last but not least, the results of the self-assessment also show that traditionally trained teachers feel a higher need for support in the three main teacher tasks of tracking student progress (2.63 out of 5 for NEWTT trainees vs. 3.00 for the control group), giving students feedback (2.52 vs. 3.07), and establishing classroom routines (2.89 vs. 2.98). Based on these results, for example, a policy that could be introduced after the project is completed would be to provide professional support to all beginner teachers during their first two years at school. This support could be in the form of coaching and mentorship by the more experienced teachers at school which is one of the elements of NEWTT. Such collaboration is a win-win situation for both parties, because on the one hand beginner teachers would receive the support necessary for any employee entering a new profession, and on the other hand their experienced counterparts would be able to see themselves as mentors and perhaps even be reinvigorated in their teaching.

Conclusion

In conclusion, it is important to point out that the policy experimentation project NEWTT does not aim to replace traditional pathways into teaching with alternative ones but rather to explore practices that would prove beneficial when tackling EU-wide education challenges. NEWTT also demonstrates how non-governmental organizations, national governments, universities, and school leaders can collaborate in the name of a worthy cause – giving access to quality education to all children, especially students from vulnerable communities.

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Reflections on Educational Reforms in Latin America

Abstract

A reform always implies an adjustment, a transformation, or a change. But one always hopes that a reform is for the better, and that it will benefit those who will be affected by the reform. Educational reforms have been seen in this way, since the world changes and we change with it. In this line of thought, we can dare to think that when an educational reform is considered, it concerns all of us, as we are teachers, students, managers and society in general. We have great expectations in all aspects, from economics, which in the end involves all of us, to quality, social reconstruction in the reduction of poverty, providing quality of life, and reducing the gap between the rich and the poor.

Keywords: educational reforms, quality, fairness, social justice

Introduction

Successive and different proposals for reform, driven particularly after the 1960s, have addressed almost all aspects of educational systems that are susceptible to modification, although they are often determined by external factors, and do not arise in the interior of the schools or the educational system. According to Zaccagnini (2004, p. 14) in discussion of educational reforms, when attempts are made to bring about great structural and/or organizational changes in the educational system, this takes place at one or more levels.

In Latin America various reforms of education at all levels have been implemented, from the first grade of pre-school one, through basic primary, basic secondary and undergraduate to postgraduate education. We can almost say that a new reform is introduced by each new president, or each new minister of education, in each country. From the 1980s, a series of educational reforms have been implemented, with different intentions and impacts. Martinic (2001, p. 19) makes the distinction between reforms of the first, second and third generation. First, during the 1980s, they would address the extension of the cover of education, and reforms are defined as "towards the outside", because they promoted structural changes to move social and educational services away from central government. Education was administered and managed by the cities, or departments in our case, or by the private sector. Nevertheless, this decentralization was accompanied not only by an increase of the public apparatus, but also by a reduction of the cost of education. Salary reductions were imposed to fulfil certain criteria of efficiency,

especially with regard to the resource management, and directing the better use of resources, elements that continue to the present time.

The second generation of reforms addressed quality and the fairness. It is often said that the goal of achieving full enrolment has practically achieved, although the problem remains in the case of sectors where there are limited economic resources and individuals have difficulty accessing the educational system (Reimers, 2000, p. 8), especially in pre-school, secondary and university education.

In the 1990s, reformers shifted their attention

> *towards the ways of managing and evaluating the system; the pedagogical processes and cultural contents that are transmitted in the school… These reforms focus on the school and the quality of learning. Policies are promoted that grant autonomy and power to directors and teachers; changes in curricula and pedagogical practices; systems of incentives for teachers are designed according to performance and there are major investments in infrastructure, texts and other consumables, especially in the poorest schools of the region. This new cycle of reforms centres on the quality of education and promotes changes in the purposes and management of educational establishments, in pedagogy, in curriculum and in systems of evaluation* (Martinic, 2001, p. 23).

The third generation of reforms, which is now in progress, focuses still more on the autonomy of schools and the intended pedagogical decentralization, with the transfer of pedagogical and curricular decisions from central government to the schools (García-Huidobro, 1999, p. 12). From this perspective, one would be concentrating on the education-learning and how it can be optimised in each institution.

Expectations of reforms

Each reform arises in a specific historical, social, political and economic context and therefore it is necessary to take that context into account when adopting, designing and implementing educational reforms.

In any reform there are implicit discourses that determine the forms that can be seen in the schools, visions that in one way or another reproduce the values of the society, relationships of power, and so on. And, of course, these hidden values shape what is good or bad in education, which is a good teacher, which bad, and which students are good or bad.

In this way, these political discourses establish the way in which we see educational reality, and define the way that scientific knowledge from research selects the right thing to do, or the proper thing to do, and whether it is valid or scientific. These discourses also direct our daily practices, almost without our perceiving it.

Quality and fairness

Educational quality and fairness are two edges of the same sword, on which the present educational reform is based. Both need the autonomy of the school. As noted above, educational quality is a social construction, that is politically, historically and economically determined. There are many different perspectives on the question, especially when it comes to decentralising pedagogy.

We can see the definition of the quality of education from diverse perspectives. As Torres (1995, p. 6) says, from an efficiency perspective, educational quality is, "how to administer the limited resources assigned to educational institutions correctly, with the object of producing the best possible educational results".

From the foregoing, we can deduce that control of the system, the correct administration of the scarce resources, is increased, and in addition an optimisation of the contribution of employees, both administrative and those engaged in teaching, is expected. This amounts to a need to render accounts at the end of every school year, in a process described as "accountability" (Schon, 1992, p. 10).

On the other hand we can speak of educational quality as effectiveness, in other words as a measure of the increase in the academic benefit to the student. This is value added by the school, not counting what the student brought with himself or herself at the beginning. From this perspective we must speak of the other components of the educational process, namely whether the teachers are effective, or whether they have specific characteristics that help them to achieve learning outcomes. Some question this theory to the extent that, if an individual has specific characteristics, these cannot be transferred to other institutions, as if they were things.

Other approaches focus on the internal processes of education and their products, from qualitative elements. This is how Coombs (1985, p. 9) describes the teaching / learning process, affirming that:

> *Quality has to do with the coherence of what is taught and learned, with the degree of adjustment to the needs of present and future learning, with concrete learning, taking into account the particular circumstances and expectations. The quality of education requires us to contemplate, in addition, the characteristics of the elements that are involved in the educational system: students, facilities, equipment and other means, their objectives, the contents of educational programming and technology; also the socio-economic, cultural and political context.*

Nevertheless, we can affirm that educational quality at the present time is reduced to the obtaining of results, accompanied by an efficient administration of resources to do more with less and to ensure that the students are highly competitive. Of course, the students are evaluated in quantitative terms, in spite of the promotion of constructivist practice, which focuses attention on the learning process. We see that results are more important than how knowledge is constructed.

As Zaccagnini (2004, p. 16) says, it is a strategy that makes it possible to press education into the service of the globalisation process: insofar as the students develop certain competences, they are functional and productive in the labour market, which is more and more competitive.

From here it becomes usual and normal to rank schools, from good to bad, producing information which the consumers can use to "decide" which school is more appropriate for them, according to the standards of quality and competitiveness.

Educational reforms and social justice

The hypothesis that the education is great source of social fairness has been another one of the main motivations for the reforms.

We can state that all these reforms have, as a fundamental intention, to raise in a tangible way the quality of education at a low cost to the public. Strategies try to overcome the social crises and develop in line with international trends. One can see clearly that there is a general will and a consciousness of the need for and the importance of an education for all, in the strategies of development of different governments.

Nevertheless, a decade after applying prescriptions of deregulation and privatisation, social inequalities have grown at such an alarming rate that increasing poverty and unemployment are considered the main risk factors for the present processes of political democratisation and economic opening in our countries.

In Latin America the divisions in society reach serious proportions: the richest 10% have increased their income more than thirty times the increase of the poorest on the social scale. According to CEPAL (1997, p. 7), the data indicate that 46% of the population cannot satisfy their basic needs, and 94 million people, 22% of the population, are in a situation of extreme poverty. In our cities there are even some go to bed hungry, with only one meal per day, not to mention who do not even have one. With this panorama in view it is no longer tenable to believe that the spread of education it is the way to end the poverty. School coverage has been extended so that the majority now complete primary education, and this has only resulted in greater competition for employment. CEPAL (1997, p. 11) indicates that the minimum educational capital, in terms of access to a secure mode of living and the corresponding entry to the labour market, requires complete secondary education and have completed at least 12 years of study. In many countries, to reach that educational threshold means, with a probability of over 80%, "an expectation of an income that allows one to move out of poverty". When a person enters the labour market without having completed secondary education, one to three years more of study does noticeably influence the remuneration received, and in the majority of the cases has no effect at all in lifting the person out of poverty. However, incomes can increase considerably if skilled studies are added to the threshold of 12 years of schooling, that is to say, once secondary education is completed.

Inclusive education is a matter of ethics, social justice, democracy and the fairness; it is in direct opposition to the logic of the rewards, yield and efficiency (Thomazet, 2009, p. 23).

The context of our societies clearly limits the possibilities and abilities of the schools and educational centres to create equality where this does not exist. Education by itself is not enough to overcome inequality. What is needed is the integration of economic and educational policies with other policies, jointly oriented to resist the present inequalities that are found among our peoples.

Conclusions

Inclusive education and the changes in schools have some points of agreement, but also some discords. Now all reforms are described as inclusive, even though, in fact, the majority of them have not been implemented in order to, or cannot be implemented so as to, prevent exclusion or to limit it. Frequent appeals are made to democracy, justice and the fairness, but without fighting as necessary the processes and structures whose results undermine basic values and principles.

The programme "Education for All" of UNESCO (2010, p. 15) has exerted a remarkable influence, particularly when proposing a broad conception of inclusive education (to guarantee to all the right to the education, with special attention to the most marginalised), as can be judged from two recent publications (UNESCO, 2010, p. 21).

While they denounce the aforementioned negative impacts of the financial and economic crisis, they draw attention to growing inequalities:

[...] has their origin in social, economic and political processes that are deeply ingrained, as well as in the unequal relationships of power, sustained in political indifference (UNESCO, 2010, p. 24).

[...] the objective to reaching out to the marginalised has been translated into the negation of the right to education of many people, justifying the fact that there is not merely stagnation but even regression (UNESCO, 2010, p. 36).

In conclusion, it is important to remember that the aim is to invest knowledge that is a boundless good and that results in the production of goods for all in society.

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Pertinent Leadership and Governance Challenges Facing Schools in South Africa

Abstract

This paper focuses on the challenges facing school principals in improving their leadership skills and those of school governing bodies. Mixed method was employed and the research was conducted with some school principals, School Governing Bodies (SGBs) members, and teachers in secondary schools in Gauteng Province of South Africa. The problem is that there are vague rules in those schools where the SGBs and the school principals compete against one another. Dysfunctionality of schools is the result of poor governance and poor management by both the school principals and the SGBs. Some school principals are a contributory factor to glitches in schools because of their incompetence.

Keywords: leadership, dysfunctionality, principal, school governing body, transparency, distributed leadership, governance

Introduction

The purpose of this paper is to understand the difficulties that schools must overcome in order to improve school leadership, with a particular focus on the task of school principals and School Governing Bodies (SGBs) in the context of distributed leadership rather than on the individual leader. An answer is sought to the following key question: To what extent do we know the leadership challenges facing school principals and school governing bodies in schools? An implication for practice is that focusing on distributed leadership practices can help to overcome conflict in schools.

In recent years, there has been an emphasis on enhancing the leadership and managerial competencies of school principals as the most influential figures in promoting reform, change, and innovation (Cruz et al., 2016). Having emerged from the apartheid era, South Africa now faces the challenge of changing a society destabilised by politics, misrule, mismanagement and corruption into a vibrant and successful democracy. Transformation encompasses every aspect of South African life (Department of Education, 1996). There has been evidence of a lack of morality and increased corruption at various levels of society. In fact, at present, society is paying the high price of a lack of ethics stemming from the absence of sound leadership and oriented management processes (Turriago-Hoyos et al., 2016). Confucian ethics considers the abuse of power in any relationship to be unethical. Schools must inculcate concepts such as freedom and equality, and respect for both the public and private spheres, the individual and society, the masses and the elites, unity and diversity, and the religious and the secular.

The importance of education in society can be reflected in controversies surrounding divergent ideological positions and the interests they represent

(Mahmood et al., 2016). The school is an integral part of the community, and parents as members of the SGBs are vital part of the school and therefore of the community. Changes in education ought to be in accordance with the values and principles of our Constitution (Gauteng Department of Education, 1997). Mahlangu (1998) is of the view that the management of schools must be a joint venture between principals and SGBs. From a legal perspective, school principals no longer occupy the role of primary decision-maker when it comes to school governance. Governance relates to the ability of the SGB to make and enforce rules and to deliver services, regardless of whether the SGB is democratic or not. That is, governance is about the performance of agents in carrying out the wishes of leaders, and not about the goals that they set (Fukuyama, 2013). The term 'governance' relates to who has the power in taking decisions, the role other players play in ensuring that their voices are heard, and the way accounting is done (Petrie et al., 2016).

Some principals feel threatened as a result of being required to change and follow the trend of democratic school governance. This is because the lawmakers are of the opinion that some parents are not well informed as to how to play a part in those activities affecting schools without interfering in the professional management and academic side of schooling (Squelch, 1998). The term "distributed leadership" was introduced as a means to shift the unit of analysis in the study of leadership from the individual leader to the "patterns" or "varieties" of leadership distributed across the organisation, including engagement in collaborative or concertive action. In terms of this approach, distributed leadership is an analytic lens for understanding leadership as a feature of organisations that recognise that leadership practice is the outcome of the collaborations between leaders, followers, and their situation (Kelley & Dikkers, 2016). Distributed leadership includes task distribution, and it goes beyond delegation to provide a holistic perspective on the enactment of leadership actions spread across multiple leaders in the same context (Howard, 2016). Stability would be sacrificed when incompetent citizens engage in political decision-making (Maxcy, 1995).

This relates in particular to the application of the South African Schools Act 84 of 1996 (SASA) in secondary schools in Gauteng Province. Findings reported are based on a study conducted in Gauteng secondary schools.

Method

Data for the study was collected by means of a mixed method. Interviews and questionnaires were used as data collection tools. The questionnaire consisted of two sections: Section 1 dealt with biographical data, and section 2 elicited participants' responses to statements regarding the management and governance of schools. After the data was collected, a factor and items analysis was done to determine the causes of problems in the relationship between school principals and SGBs.

Results

Virtually all the respondents (99.35%) considered it important to have a principal in a school; likewise, virtually all (98.69%) considered it important to have an SGB in a school. Of the respondents, 37.5% considered lack of knowledge of

SASA to be one of the weaknesses of SGBs. According to 47% of parents who participated in the study are of the opinion that management in schools is poor; 94% of principals who participated in the study, however, held an opposing view. 22.23% of the respondents were of the opinion that teachers play no role in the management of schools. The majority of the respondents (60.13%), however, believed that teachers do indeed play a significant role in school management, and 17.65% of the respondents were uncertain of the role of teachers in school management. According to the overwhelming majority of the respondents (80.27%), in cases where principals and SGBs are in opposition to each other, the rules are ambiguous. 64.66% of the respondents considered poor management by principals to be the cause of dysfunctional schools. According to 35.29% of the respondents, principals confuse their work with the work of the SGBs. 23.53% of the respondents were of the opinion that school principals treat parents badly. This view may be based on the fact of some school principals not attending to parents who come to schools or who treat them dismissively during parent meetings.

The importance of having school principals and school governing bodies in schools

Principals are expected to organise schedules, make strategic pedagogical decisions, and represent schools by communicating with the education department, SGBs, trade unions, and the parent community (Böhlmark et al., 2016). Kelley and Dikkers (2016) define leadership in the education context as: the identification, acquisition, allocation, coordination, and use of the social, material, and cultural resources necessary to establish the conditions for the possibility of teaching and learning. Principals have the responsibility to organise and support the professional development of their teachers, and they play a key role in this domain by shaping a school environment that motivates and promotes the ongoing learning of school staff (Li et al., 2016).

Important traits for knowledge staff include prudence, effectiveness, excellence, integrity, truthfulness, practical wisdom, responsibility, cooperation, and courage. These features are required by modern human resources collectively in order to achieve the common good. The common good is simply a designation to live the intellectual virtue and moral character of effectiveness and responsibility, both inside organisations and in society, under the umbrella of the authority principle (Turriago-Hoyos et al., 2016). It is therefore vital that principals form an integral part of SGBs, as they may have the necessary education to help parents in the SGBs to carry out their functions. Teaching and learning activities are the responsibilities of principals. They are expected to act in good faith (stand in a position of trust) towards the school (as stated in section 16(2) of SASA). In terms of sections 19(1) and 19(2) of SASA, principals must build capacity within SGBs in order for them to perform their duties properly.

According to section 20(1)(e) of SASA, the SGB has a duty to support the school principal, teachers and other staff of the school in carrying out their professional obligations. Interdependency creates the potential for conflict because people's intentions, goals, means and ideologies vary. Rather than tending toward order, school systems are moving toward disorder and irregularity (Maxcy, 1995). According to 38.57% of the respondents management in schools is poor, although

54.90% of the respondents were of the opinion that schools are not characterised by poor management, and more than 40% were uncertain. According to 47% of the parents who participated in the study, some schools are poorly managed whereas 94% of the principals who participated in the study held the opposing view. Opposing views between parents and principals can lead to conflict and relationship problems, with school principals feeling the need to defend themselves in the face of criticism. Kelley and Dikkers (2016, pp. 392-422) identify the following as core leadership tasks related to school improvement, namely:

- developing and managing a school culture conducive to conversations about the core technology of instruction by building norms of trust, collaboration, and academic press among staff;
- supporting teacher growth and development, both individually and collectively;
- both summative and formative monitoring of instruction and innovation; and
- establishment of a school climate in which disciplinary issues do not dominate instructional issues.

The overwhelming majority of the respondents (69.28%) were of the opinion that SGBs must help principals, teachers and other members to perform their functions. 14.38% of the respondents did not think that SGBs must help principals, teachers and other members to perform their functions. 22.23% of the respondents were of the opinion that teachers play no role in school management, but the majority of the respondents (60.13%) believed that teachers do indeed play a significant role in school management. 17.65% of the respondents were uncertain as to the role of teachers in school management.

Why are some schools dysfunctional?

According to 23.53% of the respondents, some Gauteng school principals treat parents badly. About 65.36% of the respondents, by contrast, felt that principals did not treat parents badly. 11.11% of the respondents neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement. According to 31.3% of the parent respondents, principals treat parents badly in their schools, whereas 100% of the principals who participated in the study disagreed with them. About 64.70% of the respondents supported section 20(1)(e) of SASA, which states that SGBs must support the principal, teachers and other staff of the school in carrying out their professional functions. 22.22% of respondents disagreed with the above statement, and 13.07% were uncertain. SGBs can discuss the matter with principals and give them support and advice (Gauteng Department of Education, 1997, p. 8). According to the overwhelming majority (80.27%) of the respondents, in cases where the SGB and the principal oppose each other, the rules were found to be ambiguous. On occasion, SGBs dictate terms to principals. However, 65.35% of the respondents did not support the statement that SGBs must always dictate terms to principals. In terms of section 20(1)(e) of SASA, it is not up to SGBs to dictate terms to principals, but they must support them in the performance of their professional functions. 24.84% of respondents were of the view that SGBs must dictate terms to the principal. Generally, teachers were of the view that SGBs should always dictate terms to the principal. 57.52% of respondents stated that principals do not always dictate terms to SGBs, and 32.03% stated that

principals always dictate terms to the SGBs. Some teachers in schools are of the view that school principals always dictate terms to SGBs. 64.66% of the respondents were of the view that poor management by principals is the cause of dysfunctionality in Gauteng secondary schools. The struggle between the principals and the SGBs will ultimately lead to dysfunctional schools. Roughly 80% of the respondents were of the view that poor management by principals was the cause of dysfunctionality in schools.

82% of the respondents considered poor governance to be the cause of dysfunctionality of schools. Poor governance can easily lead to a situation where teaching and learning cannot take place. The SGB bears overall responsibility for the school because it has to make sure that all the provisions of SASA are adhered to and that school policies are properly drawn up (Gauteng Department of Education, 1997). Roughly 90% of the respondents viewed poor governance as the cause of a dysfunctional school. Poor management and poor governance are seen as causes of dysfunctional schools. However, 94.1% of these respondents viewed poor governance as a problem. On the other hand, 100% of parents who participated in the study viewed poor management as a cause of dysfunctional schools. Good governance should aim at promoting good substantive outcomes and public legitimacy to all school structures (Rose-Ackerman, 2016).

Participatory monitoring is an approach that can help bring about change, not only for women but also for men in and outside of leadership positions, and for gender relations, thus strengthening community governance as a whole (Flores et al., 2016). 35.29% of the respondents were of the opinion that school principals confuse their work with the work of SGBs, and 54.9% of the respondents held the opposing view, with 9.8% unwilling to commit to a firm opinion on the matter. According to sections 19(1) and 19(2)(a-b) of SASA, Heads of Department (HODs) are expected to establish a programme to provide both introductory and continuing training to SGBs.

Findings

School principals contribute to dysfunctionality in schools because they either refuse or fail to acknowledge their own incompetence. Opposing ideas and different expectations prevail in some schools. From a legal vantage point, school principals no longer occupy the role of chief decision-maker in schools. Poor governance and poor management give rise to dysfunctional schools. Some principals continue managing schools by not involving teachers fully in school management; treat parents badly; dictate terms to SGBs; contribute to dysfunctional schools and confuse their work with that of the SGBs. Parents are not given enough opportunity to participate in important matters and decisions affecting them in schools.

Conclusion

Some school principals exclude teachers in the management of schools, and they rely on unclear rules and prescribe to SGBs what must happen in those schools. Generally, some school principals cause dysfunctionality of schools. The paper suggests that school principals and SGBs should work together to circumvent conflict. Distributed leadership practices can help to overcome some of the

limitations on the use of feedback directed towards an individual leader, and teamwork is important.

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Part 4

Higher Education, Lifelong Learning & Social Inclusion

Peter Fenrich, Tim Carson & Mark Overgaard

Comparing Traditional Learning Materials with Those Created with Instructional Design and Universal Design for Learning Attributes: The Students' Perspective

Abstract

There are foundational universal design for learning (UDL) principles that support accessibility and inclusivity that can be incorporated into instructional materials. Creating instructional materials that are accessible and inclusive is a comparatively new challenge that is gaining awareness. A problem is that most professors do not know how to design for accessibility and inclusivity. Universal design for learning is also referred to as universal instructional design. This paper discusses the instructional design and UDL principles designed into instructional materials that were created to teach piping trades students how to solder and braze copper pipe. A summative quantitative and qualitative analysis was conducted to determine whether the students felt that the new materials had more instructional design and UDL attributes than the original materials. The findings showed that there were significant differences between the instructional design and UDL attributes of the new materials as compared to the original materials. There were no significant differences between some of the attributes.

Keywords: universal design for learning, accessibility, inclusivity, trades training, universal instructional design

Introduction

Although all students need their instructional materials to be designed in ways that specifically help them learn, this is particularly important for students with disabilities because they need intentionally-designed instructional resources to help them overcome their limitations. This paper discusses the UDL principles embedded into instructional materials that were designed to teach piping trades students how to solder and braze copper pipe. Although the embedded instructional design principles should support typical learners, the created instructional materials were also intended to enable a variety of individuals with disabilities to effectively learn. The resulting materials had attributes that were specifically designed to support weak readers, deaf and hard of hearing individuals, students with a loss in vision, learners

who have difficulties staying focused, academically-weak students, cognitively-gifted students, learners with low confidence, and students with different learning preferences, as will be discussed below.

The objective of this research was to determine whether specific instructional design and UDL attributes would be more positively perceived in newly-designed materials as compared to materials designed without accessibility and inclusivity in mind. Specifically, the research question was: With respect to instructional design and UDL attributes, were there significant differences between the newly-designed materials and the original materials? The independent variable was the materials presented. The dependent variable was the instructional-design and UDL attributes. The instructional design and UDL attributes of the construct, which were based on instructional design and UDL principles, addressed the learning outcomes, content organization, path to learn from, amount of content, font size, images, video, colour contrast, summaries, learning preferences, practical component, importance of the content, effectiveness of the content, and grading (Fenrich, 2014; Coolidge et al., 2015).

Literature review

The three main principles that guide the UDL framework are providing learners with multiple means of representation, action and expression, and engagement (Coolidge et al., 2015). This framework stems from brain research on cognition and learning that shows that there is variation in what individuals need to learn effectively (Rao et al., 2016). By intentionally applying the UDL framework, learning materials can be made accessible to a broader range of learners (Coolidge et al., 2015).

In general, educational materials designed based on principles of instructional design, which follow a model such as Gagné's Nine Events of Instruction, support all learners. Gagné's Nine Events of Instruction are gaining attention, informing the learner of the learning outcome, stimulating recall of prerequisites, presenting the material, providing learning guidance, eliciting the performance, providing feedback, assessing performance, and enhancing retention and transfer (Fenrich, 2015; Gagné et al., 1988).

The learning materials that were created had attributes that were specifically intended to support accessibility and inclusivity. Weak readers were supported because the content contained clear and concise language, simple word choices, short sentences, the active voice, visuals, and only what was needed. Deaf and hard of hearing students had access to detailed notes, captioned video clips, and the same support as was done for weak readers. Students with a vision loss were supported through having access to digital versions of the materials, the PowerPoint™ having high contrast colours and font sizes that met the "Web Content Accessibility Guidelines" of the World Wide Web Consortium (Henry, 2017), and described video and photographs. Students who had difficulties staying focused were provided with more things to focus their attention on (e.g., numerous questions), varied activities (e.g., the PowerPoint presentation, samples to assess, and practical assignments), and cues (e.g., "It is important to note that…", "The key points to remember are…"). For students who are academically weak, the instructors were encouraged to pause 5 to 10 seconds after asking a more difficult question and have

students participate in think-pair-share activities. These students were only given content that addressed the learning outcomes, were provided with varied ways to learn the materials, were presented with a variety of media (a combination of video, images, and text), had their attention directed to important content, had content that was broken down into manageable chunks, were provided with many practice and feedback opportunities throughout the lesson, were given elaborative feedback, were shown videos of common mistakes, received information in a logical order, had the content organized with headings and sub-headings, had subsequent content linked to previous content, were provided with meaningful and relevant content, and had summaries that highlighted key points both within and at the end of topics. Academically-gifted students were supported with being asked higher-order thinking questions, and the instructors were asked to encourage students to support each other. Instructors were asked to support students with low confidence by giving them time to think, asking them questions that they will likely get right, including think-pair-share activities, and providing positive constructive feedback. As well, the material was designed to be presented in manageable chunks. To support varied learning preferences, students experienced a variety of activities (e.g., both theoretical and practical components, assessing existing products, and conducting a final water pressure test, individual work, and class discussions), were provided with numerous interactions, were presented with different questioning techniques, were presented with a variety of media, had numerous opportunities for feedback, and had both informal and formal assessments. Accessibility and inclusion were further supported because the newly-made PowerPoint was made accessible to the learners prior to and after the lesson (Cawthorn, 2015; Fenrich, 2015; Fenrich et al., 2017; Kennedy et al., 2014; Rao et al., 2015).

Methodology

Given, a mixed-methods research design provides strengths that address weaknesses of solely quantitative or qualitative design (Rodriguez, 2009), a mixed-method research design was followed. Quantitatively, statistical analysis, based on two-tailed, two-sample, unequal variance t-tests assuming a significance of 0.05, was used to compare the students' opinions of the instructional design and UDL attributes of the original materials to the newly-created materials. Student opinions were collected through an online survey. Qualitatively, group interviews were held for students to share their opinions on what worked well and what they would like to see improved.

The treatment

One experimental group worked through the original materials that included a 16-slide PowerPoint. The slides had black text on a white background, images that were not in a workplace context, and one video of the entire soldering process that was done correctly. Each presentation was led by an instructor. Each instructor demonstrated the entire process in the lab. Students completed three soldering and brazing projects, conducted a water test, and were graded by the instructor using a rubric. The other experimental group worked through the revised materials that included 159 PowerPoint slides. The slides had white text on a dark blue background, images that were photographed in the shop, and a video of the entire

soldering process that was done correctly, videos of each step, and videos of incorrect procedures. Each presentation was led by an instructor. Each instructor demonstrated the entire process in the lab. Students evaluated previously-constructed projects to determine what was done well and what was done poorly, completed three soldering and brazing projects, conducted a water test, and were graded by the instructor using a revised rubric that better reflected the importance of each step.

The population and sample

The subjects were post-secondary students in a Piping Trades diploma program, in the province of British Columbia, Canada, learning how to solder and braze copper pipe. For the original materials, there were 46 participants from six classes with each class having a different instructor. For the newly-designed materials, there were 46 participants from six classes with each class having a different instructor, where these instructors were not the instructors who taught from the original materials. None of the subjects were known to have a disability.

Findings

The findings are based on the quantitative and qualitative analyses done.

Quantitative analysis

List of instructional design attributes of the new materials compared to the original materials t-test results:

p	Attribute Statement
0.070	The PowerPoint had clear and measureable learning outcomes.
0.033	The PowerPoint was well organized.
0.012	The PowerPoint provided an easy path to learn from.
1.000	The PowerPoint presented content in manageable amounts.
0.030	The size of the text on the PowerPoint was large enough for me to easily read it.
0.246	The images in the PowerPoint strongly supported learning.
0.002	The video clip(s) strongly supported learning.
0.082	There was enough contrast between the text colour and the background colour on the PowerPoint.
0.116	The PowerPoint effectively summarized the key concepts.
0.001	The PowerPoint suited my learning preferences.
0.001	The PowerPoint related well to the practical component.
0.015	The content presented in the classroom provided the information that I needed to solder and braze effectively.
0.035	The grading was consistent with the learning objectives.

Quantitatively, statistical analysis, based on two-tailed, two-sample, unequal variance t-tests assuming a significance of 0.05, was used to compare the students' opinions of the instructional design and UDL attributes of the original materials to the newly-created materials. Student opinions were collected through an online survey. The n value is 112. The p values for each attribute statement are summarized in the list above.

Qualitative analysis

Qualitatively, group interviews were held for students to share their opinions on what worked well and what they would like to see improved. Based on the students' comments, it was determined that the students felt that the newly-created PowerPoint was more effective in supporting learning. For example, comments about what worked well with respect to the effectiveness of the materials in supporting learning included "having video along with the lecture", "the materials were well organized", and "classroom time made the practical projects easier to understand". However, the students felt that the newly-created PowerPoint was too long as compared to the original PowerPoint.

Discussion

Based on quantitative and qualitative findings, the new materials were significantly better than the original materials with respect to the following instructional design and UDL attributes:

- *The PowerPoint was well organized*. This finding was expected because the new content was broken into distinct sections and there were headings and sub-headings in the new PowerPoint. The original materials did not have these features.
- *The PowerPoint provided an easy path to learn from*. This finding was anticipated because, as compared to the original content, the new content was more organized, as discussed above.
- *The size of the text on the PowerPoint was large enough for me to easily read it*. This finding was expected because the text was large enough to meet the "Web Content Accessibility Guidelines" of the World Wide Web Consortium. These guidelines were not considered in the original materials.
- *The video clip(s) strongly supported learning*. This finding was anticipated because the original content had one video clip of the whole process and the new content had video clips of the whole process, each step, and incorrect procedures.
- *The PowerPoint suited my learning preferences*. This finding was expected because, as compared to the original content, the new content had more media, existing products to assess, numerous interactions built into the materials, and the instructors were encouraged to pause to let students think and to include think-pair-share activities.
- *The PowerPoint related well to the practical component*. This finding was anticipated because, as compared to the original content, the new content had content specifically aimed at addressing each of the skills needed to complete the practical component.
- *The content presented in the classroom provided the information that I needed to solder and braze effectively*. This finding was expected because, as compared to the original content, the new content had content specifically aimed at addressing each of the skills needed to solder and braze.
- *The grading was consistent with the learning objectives*. This finding was anticipated because a newly-designed rubric was created to more closely align with the skills performed than the rubric used with the original materials.

There were no significant differences between the new materials and the original materials with respect to the following instructional design and UDL attributes:

- *The PowerPoint had clear and measureable learning outcomes*. This finding was expected because both the original and new materials had clear and measureable learning outcomes.
- *The PowerPoint presented content in manageable amounts*. This finding was not anticipated because the new content had a 159-slide PowerPoint and the original PowerPoint was 16 slides. However, the finding may be a result of both PowerPoints covering the same concepts.
- *The images in the PowerPoint strongly supported learning*. This finding was unexpected because the new PowerPoint had many more photos than the original PowerPoint and most of those photos were taken in the workshop setting. However, the finding may be due to both PowerPoints having images that supported learning.
- *There was enough contrast between the text colour and the background colour on the PowerPoint*. This finding is not surprising because the original PowerPoint had black text on a white background and the new PowerPoint had white text on a dark blue background. These colour combinations have high contrast (Fenrich, 2014).
- *The PowerPoint effectively summarized the key concepts*. Since the new PowerPoint had more summaries and more details in them than the original PowerPoint, this finding was unexpected. However, the finding may be a result of both PowerPoints containing summaries of the key concepts.
- *The content presented in the classroom emphasized what is important for me to demonstrate in the practical projects*. This finding was not anticipated. Although the new PowerPoint contained more details about what is important than the original PowerPoint, students, who were in the experimental group experiencing the original materials, might not have distinguished between what the PowerPoint contained and what the instructor also emphasized.

Conclusions

Instructional materials can be designed or redesigned to incorporate instructional design and UDL attributes. However, there might not be a significant difference between some attributes of the original and newly-designed materials due to what content is similar between the two and what the instructor also contributes to help the students learn the content.

The attributes that were specifically intended to support accessibility and inclusivity, can be designed into other instructional resources.

Limitations

The findings cannot be generalized to groups of individuals who have a specific learning disability. Although it is possible that some of the students were weak readers, have difficulties staying focused, were academically weak, were cognitively gifted, had low confidence, and had variations in their learning preferences, these characteristics were not measured because of the difficulty in reliably measuring them all, numerous tests that would be needed were beyond the scope of the project,

and likelihood that the percentage of students with those characteristics would make the sample size too small to give statistical significance. However, since principles of instructional design generally support all learners, it is reasonable to presume that the instructional design and UDL attributes that were embedded into the materials will support some students with disabilities.

Suggestion for further research

Similar research should be conducted to determine which attributes make a significant difference for different disabilities.

Similar research should be conducted where performance scores are also compared.

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Anna Mankowska

Studying Abroad: A Case Study of Chinese International Mobility

Abstract

This paper discusses the topic of educational mobility among students from China. The main aim of the paper is to analyse the reasons why Chinese youth migrate and to indicate the direction of their migration. The paper contains qualitative analysis of UNESCO and OECD educational reports and of Chinese government documents, as well as statements by Chinese students on online forums (an analysis of online statements and comments was taken), in which they indicate the motives for their migration. Two main categories of travel motives have been distinguished. The first category is directly linked with the prospect of gaining human capital, and the second with trends in consumerism.

Keywords: comparative education, international student mobility, Chinese international
                students, higher education

Introduction

For many years, the sociology of education and of migration has been interested in this phenomenon, researching its reach and range (King & Raghuram, 2013). Educational mobility, in particular in the Chinese context, has taken on a previously unseen importance in recent years. Young, mobile Chinese students have become part of everyday reality at many universities and are currently the largest group of migrating students in the world (OECD, 2014). Over the course of the last decade, educational mobility, intensively heralded as early as the 1960s, has become an irreversible fact. OECD (2014) predicts that in 2025, the number of migrating students will be as high as 8 million. Currently, students from Asia constitute the largest group of educational migrants, since as many 53% of global educational migration is made up of young people from China, India and Korea (OECD, 2014). I would like to emphasise that the order in which these countries are mentioned is not coincidental. China is an exceptional country, in which educational mobility takes place on a wide scale and is very popular among the young population.

Theoretical considerations

To obtain a full picture, it is important to indicate the main global causes of educational mobility. According to Kehm and Teichler (2007), global educational mobility is one of the results of the internationalisation of higher education. According to Giddens (1984), the increase in the percentage of migrating students is a response to the process of globalisation and is part of the free flow of human capital. The highly-developed counties (and for several years now, also developing countries) have long been interested in educational migrants, who constitute a source of additional economic income for universities. By introducing students from

abroad, they ease the negative effects of the shortage of students in the domestic market, and for many universities, as Janet Napolitano, President of the University of California system, wrote in an open letter to the university community in October 2016, this is a kind of Hobson's choice (Saul, 2016). Student mobility is also linked with employment mobility and the phenomena of brain drain and brain gain. It is a response to the growing need for a talented, young future labour force. Studies on the community of migrating students (for example by Rosenzweig et al., 2006) have shown that international students, compared to local graduates, are "higher quality" potential employees. They are highly motivated to work, are characterised by a wide range of soft skills as well as invaluable intercultural competence which is indispensable in the global marketplace (Parey & Waldinger, 2011).

It does not really need to be argued that China is becoming a global leader. The Chinese influence in economic capital, culture and social capital is palpable and clearly visible. China is making every effort to make Chinese human capital as productive as possible, and so many activities promoting international skills and abilities are being gradually introduced (Mankowska, 2017, p. 127). The best example of promoting these skills is the "National Outline for Medium and Long-Term Education Reform and Development (2010-2020)" programme, announced in 2010 and currently being implemented, in which China called for an increase in the scale of educational mobility of its citizens.

Chinese students have long been part of the academic community of many universities in the world. After their return, they suppose to build stronger country with their knowledge. One example is Deng Xiaoping himself, leader of the People's Republic of China from 1978 to 1989. The first wave of study abroad was linked with the introduction of economic reforms in 1987 and opening up further the idea of meritocracy in education (Liu, 2013). The real migration boom began in 2001, which according to Yue (2013) was linked with the growth in the country's GDP, which is strongly correlated with Chinese students studying abroad. In this way, at the macro level, it can be said that the growth in educational migration is conditioned by economic factors.

Data regarding the increasing number of Chinese students at European universities are worth analysing. Sources show that the mobility of Chinese students in 2010, compared to 2000, had increased six-fold and moreover, taking into consideration the intensive cooperation of the EU with China in the area of student mobility, the upward trend continues (GHK Consulting & Renmin University, 2011). In 2016, the Ministry of Education of China (MoE, 2015), in its education report, the so-called "Blue Book", states that the main destinations of educational migration were countries such as Great Britain (42.52%), the United States (18.83%), Australia (10.41%), France (4.24%), South Korea (3.26%), Japan (3.04%), Germany (2.40%), Russia (1.65%) and Canada (1.19%). Currently, the main orientation toward English-speaking countries is dictated by the high level of knowledge of English in China. It should be added here that among the educational travel destinations of Chinese students, there are also the best Polish universities such as Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań, the University of Warsaw, or the Jagiellonian University.

The majority of young Chinese students are in undergraduate or second-cycle studies (MoE, 2015). Most take up first-cycle studies. A large portion study under

terms outlined in individual agreements, or in special programmes organised only for international students, especially in countries in which English is not the primary language of instruction (MoE, 2015). The greater part of Chinese students are women.

In Chinese educational migration, not only are departures important, but also returns. China makes every effort to ensure that young, well-educated people return the country of their ancestors and, with a view to tradition, help to build the economic power of the country. The government has introduced various strategies and programmes designed to counter the brain drain effect. Wang, Wong and Sun (2006), among the most important strategies to encourage people to return, list in first place the granting of educational immigrants with a foreign degree. Those who return to the country can also count on additional employment rights as well as subsidies for their children's education in the future. For young people there are also business incubators as well as special tax allowances (Wang, Wong & Sun, 2006).

Data and method

In light of the facts presented above, the topic of educational migration gains new significance. The main intent of this paper is to analyse individual motives for educational migration among young Chinese students. In order to identify these motives, I undertook an analysis of online statements and comments by young Chinese students to press and scientific articles and on online forums (quora.com, in sum 78 statements and comments), which described their motives for educational migration. Statistical data were gathered for the purpose of this paper from the scientific literature, official reports of the Ministry of Education of China (2015) and of OECD (2014), popular science literature as well as stories from the daily press (for example: *Global Times Published*, 2016/6/19, titled: Why some Chinese families are spending a fortune on sending their children to international schools?). While my qualitative sample selected from forum answers may introduce potential biases, I do not claim to have achieved a representative sample, but rather one that helps illustrate some possible ways in which individuals make sense of my key factors. The students' answers were selected randomly, whereby the keyword was opinion about study abroad. About half of the students were already graduates, another half were currently studying. The study did not distinguish by gender, although I should indicate that the majority of statements were written by women. The vast majority of analysed statements were by students in or graduates from English-speaking countries (mainly the United States, Great Britain, and Australia). The analysed statements were studied in regard to the motive for educational migration.

Results

It was perceptible in the analysis of the online statements that the main motive for studying abroad was the desire to ensure better employment conditions for oneself in the future or employment in a particular position. Many stated that their choice of institution was mainly oriented toward the prestige of the educational institution. They use the Shanghai list of the best universities so that their degree would be "[…] prestigious enough". On the forum there are also statements which

say that after completing their studies, the best option is to remain abroad, the Chinese market is not able to offer employment appropriate for the qualifications they have earned. In their statements, young Chinese students pointed out that the degree earned abroad guaranteed them upon return better paid employment in their home country, but not necessarily in accordance with the skills they acquired. Another part of the respondents wrote that when returning to China with a foreign degree, one can count on additional benefits from the government: lower taxes, educational subsidies for children, various business incubators. I would add that these Chinese young people were very well-versed in this matter.

Another group indicated that study abroad provides them with additional language and cultural skills, as well as life experience. Many emphasised that study abroad, combined with Chinese cultural capital, gives them a uniquely well-rounded experience ("[…] East vs. West, Asian and Western, totalitarian vs. Western, liberal democratic system, Confucianism vs. Judeo-Christianity, Chinese vs. English, a developing country vs. one with a high GDP"), which will surely be appreciated in the global labour market (here concrete names of organisations and companies appear – to quote one forum participant: "AIIB, IMF, World Bank, UN, etc.") and will be useful "[…] in engineering products/services for the global market". Moreover, knowledge about China, a state in which the economy and industry are developing at an unprecedented speed, as well as understanding of American standards and expectations, will be a lucrative combination for business.

Another part of the forum community emphasises that tuition fees are a significant factor in their choice. In the students' view, at many universities, tuition and costs of living are not significantly higher than at universities in China. Many admit that their parents take out loans to educate their children abroad. Moreover, parents see their children travelling abroad as a kind of leave abroad. Some statements on the forum show how educational migration is the first step toward emigration for the entire family. This gives new significance to Chinese educational migrants.

From student statements it also emerges that some, in making their choice of where to migrate to, focused on the need for adventure or followed the social fashion for study abroad. This is shown in comments like "I had been waiting to realise my 'American Dream'", or "My girlfriend studied abroad – she said it's worth it, because it's also an adventure" or "Such studies aren't for everyone, only select people study abroad".

Students emphasised that study abroad gives them the opportunity to participate in a new academic culture, one in which freedom of thought and opinion prevails, which is makes it different from Chinese educational culture. On the forums, such statements appeared as "Here [implying studying abroad] you can say what you think", "Once you leave Chinese school, you won't ever want to go back" or "It takes a while until you learn to say what you think".

It is also a fact that the intense competition in the education market fosters migration by young Chinese students. In one of the analysed statements, a forum participant using the pseudonym Haojin Xu writes, "Many young Chinese people after the gaokao exam have no chance to get into the top Chinese universities, especially those from very highly populated areas. The best Chinese universities have a limited number of spaces, which are often not sufficient for even the very

best". The forum participant poses a rhetorical question, "So what choice is there?", answering "None. If you have very good gaokao results, it's better to graduate from an American college, than to go to a Chinese university other than a top one". It emerges from the statement that study abroad is the second choice for the best students. Of course, it is one reserved for a particular social group.

It can also be concluded from the voices on the forum that the one-child policy directly contributed to the popularisation of educational mobility. This is not a new phenomenon, because Chinese parents place a tremendous amount of hope in their only-children and are happy to invest in their child's cultural capital. They are convinced that education at the right level is a sort of lift that in future will advance the child to another social class, as can be seen for instance in the statement of a 39-year-old Chinese mother on the Global Times site who has chosen an international school for her daughter from the very first years of her education. The woman says "It was quite a dilemma for me and my husband. After consideration at length, we both decided that compared to a traditional Chinese school, the international school is in another category. This choice means that we will stay with international education to the end. That is the future" (Li, 2016). This is the case particularly for middle-class families. Many parents are aware that the competitive, test-oriented, traditional encyclopaedic Chinese school does not provide the appropriate skills for the global labour market, and so the choice becomes clear: educational migration. In fact, many Chinese families decide to send their children to the United States or Canada already at the secondary school level.

Discussion

In this study, I have focused mainly on understanding the motives of young Chinese students to study abroad. The analysis of statements made by forum participants also refers to the current debate over global educational mobility.

The existing literature describes how most educational migration is stimulated by the increase in competition at Chinese universities and in the Chinese labour market (e.g. Findlay et al., 2012).

In analysing the statements of Chinese international students, two main categories of motives for their study abroad can be discerned. The first category is directly linked with the prospect of gaining human capital. Migration is considered as a prospective investment in oneself, whereby the decision to relocate to another country is to increase one's personal attractiveness on the labour market in the future, and simultaneously increase the income to be anticipated. It may be said that study abroad and earning a foreign degree is a particular kind of response to the global competition for talent.

The second category is linked with trends in consumerism and is not motivated by career concerns. Students do not take into consideration the personal benefits that arise from earning a particular degree but do consider such qualities as the attractiveness of a country as a travel destination, the most popular destination chosen by their immediate peers, the decisions of friends, or the prevailing fashion for study abroad or also the desire the experience an adventure.

It should also be mentioned that aside from individual motivations for migration, there are also non-individual ones dictated by global changes, the country's economy, policies, cultural traditions or also social organisation.

From the point of view of a university employee, I can say that as hosts and coordinators of student educational mobility, we are inadvertently becoming creators of new cultural capital. Institutions of higher education create and propagate a new culture, building mutual understanding between the sending and the receiving countries. On a daily basis, they adopt strategies for managing cultural differences and create new ones, their own. The inadvertent participants in the phenomenon of educational mobility, the local students, are confronted with new challenges, they are often forced to learn how to make use of their intercultural competence or are compelled to acquire it in the first place. Young migrating students, focused on achieving their goal, a degree, motivated to struggle/study, are often unbeatable rivals. It is not without reason that Chinese students are called "studying machines" or "student robots" by local students, as they can study 18 hours a day. Their academic day begins and ends at the university library.

Conclusion

It is certain that this "parachute generation" of Chinese young people will grow to an ever-larger scale and will change its dynamics. The most serious social consequence might be a new identity of those who come back to the country of origin. Those students who came back, are coming not only with international diploma, but also with international values and norms.

It is also certain that migrating Chinese students, but not only, will need to be treated appropriately at host universities. This is a group of "non-traditional" students, whose needs and expectations (perhaps demands?) are different than those that international exchange students have. I believe that it is justified and necessary to learn about the educational experience of young Chinese students, so that work with this different cultural group will be easier and more effective. This is a topic which requires more detailed analysis and constitutes a fascinating area for research.

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Emotional Intelligence, Test Anxiety and Academic Stress among University Students

Abstract

In today's highly competitive world, students face various academic problems including exam stress, anxiety during the test, problems with homework assignments, expectations about academic success or inability to understand the subjects. Rapid changes in the education sector gave rise to stern testing procedures for evaluating students' knowledge. Thus, the main objective of this research was to investigate the possible relationship between emotional intelligence, test anxiety and academic stress among university students. The Self Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SEIT), Test Anxiety Inventory (TAI) and Student Academic Stress Test (SAST) were administered to a sample of 200 university students (100 female and 100 male students). The results indicated that the total score of emotional intelligence correlated with the test anxiety and academic stress felt, as well as the academic success achieved, by the university students. At the same time there was a significant positive relationship between emotional intelligence, test anxiety, academic stress and gender. There was no correlation between emotional intelligence and the course of study, but there was a positive relationship between test anxiety, academic stress and the course of study. Also we found a significant positive relationship between emotional intelligence, test anxiety, academic stress and high academic performance, but a negative one between emotional intelligence, test anxiety, academic stress and low academic performance. The study conducted found that emotional intelligence, test anxiety and academic stress are significant for and predictive of the academic achievement the university students' population accomplish.

Keywords: emotional intelligence, test anxiety, academic stress, students, management

Introduction

It is a fact that a nation's progress depends upon its students' academic achievements and development (Parker et al., 2014). That is why every nation puts emphasis on its students' academic achievements (Elias et al., 2001).

Academic achievement is the outcome of education – the extent to which a student, teacher and institution have achieved their educational goals. Academic achievement refers to the extent to which learners acquire the knowledge, skills and proficiencies that the instructor seeks to teach or assign (Salami, 2010).

Researchers have shown that academic achievement depends on certain psychological factors such as emotional intelligence, motivation, anxiety, depression, and stress (Banyan, 2015; Meeker, 2011). It has been proved that academic success is strongly associated with emotional intelligence (Parker, 2006). It has been found that college students who scored higher on a test of emotional intelligence were able to recover from stress from exams or similar evaluation

situations better. Also, high stakes testing has been found to be a strong source of anxiety for students because their performance is hampered due to their concern regarding the results. Too much anxiety regarding a test is commonly referred to as test anxiety, which is rather common among college students. Examination stress and test anxiety are pervasive problems of the modern educational processes.

Definition of emotional intelligence

Emotional intelligence is a type of social intelligence that involves one's ability to monitor one's own emotion as well as those of others, to discriminate among them and to use that information to guide one's thoughts and actions (Bar-On, 2014). The emotional intelligence scope includes the verbal and nonverbal appraisal and expression of emotion, the effective regulation of emotion in the self and others, and the utilization of emotional content in problem solving.

Emotional intelligence is essential for interpersonal and intrapersonal relationships at school, at home and at work (Brackett et al., 2011). People with high emotional quotient are expected to progress more quickly through the designated abilities and to master more of them (Mayer et al., 2009). It is the capacity to create positive outcomes which include joy, optimism, and success in school and life.

Various investigators have engaged in research designed to examine and apply emotional intelligence constructs within academic and other learning settings (Bronzes & Militia, 2014; Brackett & Katella, 2007). They found that emotional intelligence predicts academic performance and other cognitive outcomes.

Test anxiety

Anxiety is a psychological and physiological state characterized by physical, emotional, cognitive and behavioral components. Anxiety means unease in either presence or absence of psychological stress; it can create a feeling of fear or worry. Anxiety can occur as a result of stress and can affect learning and memory, as well as academic performance, negatively.

Researchers have provided a classification of this phenomenon into different subcategories, one of which is test anxiety (Singh et al., 2009). It is a psychological condition in which people experience extreme stress, anxiety and discomfort before taking and during a test. Test anxiety is prevalent among student population of the higher education. Students who experience test anxiety tend to be easily distracted during a test, experience difficulty with simple instructions, and have trouble organizing or recalling relevant information.

Academic stress

The definition of academic stress is the anxiety and stress that come from schooling and education. There is often a lot of pressure that comes along with pursuing a degree in one's education. Since it involves studying, homework, tests, labs or reading, there is the stress of doing all that works, balancing the time one needs for it, and finding time for extra-curricular activities.

Academic stress can be conceptualized as a student's interaction between environmental stressors, the cognitive appraisal of the academic related stressors and

coping with them, and psychological or physiological response to the stressors (Mire & McKean, 2000).

Academic overloads, difficult courses, insufficient time to study, the workload in a semester, the results from exams, low motivation, and high family expectations generate moderate stress among students. Students have different expectations, goals and values that they want to fulfill, which is only possible if integrated with that of the institution. The pressure to perform well in the examination or test and the time allocated to that end, makes the academic environment rather stressful.

Relationship between emotional intelligence, test anxiety and academic stress

In today's highly competitive world, students face various academic problems including exam stress, anxiety during tests, problems with homework assignments, expectations about academic success, or inability to understand the subjects. Rapid changes in the education sector gave rise to stern testing procedures for evaluating students' knowledge. Hence the question of managing test anxiety and academic stress by students using the famous strength called emotional intelligence needs to be answered (Mayer, 1997). While students experience some degree of stress and anxiety before and during exams, test anxiety can actually impair learning and affect test performance (Stoker & Perkin, 2014). So it needs to be faced effectively for the purpose of academic achievement. Academic stress needs to be managed by the strengths the students have. Emotional intelligence is considered to be one of the strengths which equip the students to deal with test anxiety by enhancing their ability to cope with the academic stress. Thus, there is a need to study the relationship between emotional intelligence, test anxiety and academic stress among high university students.

Research methods

Participants

The research was conducted on a group of 200 university students between 20 to 22 years of age. The mean age of the students was calculated to 20.35 (SD=7.65). Among the participants, 100 were male (50%) while 100 were female students (50%). The study groups of the research were third-year students who studied psychology and medical sciences at the university in Skopje. The success was calculated by the average success during their studying. We divided students into two groups: 100 students with academic success lower than 7.50 (M=7.34) and 100 students with academic success higher than 7.50 (M=8.76). Students were selected with the inclusion criteria of no previous clinically significant anxiety and stress.

Data collection tools

Within the scope of the study, the following data collection tools were used among students: Self Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SEIT), Test Anxiety Inventory (TAI) and Student Academic Stress Test (SAST).

Self Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SEIT)

The scale developed by Stirred (2010) was used by the participants. The scale aiming to determine emotional intelligence is composed of 30 items, five each to assess self-awareness, empathy, self-confidence, motivation, self-control and social competence. The total score was the sum of all six domain scores. The minimum and maximum scores for each domain were 5 and 25, respectively, with an overall score ranging from 30 to 150. In this study, Cronbach's alpha coefficient for internal consistence was 0.825.

Test Anxiety Inventory (TAI)

Test Anxiety Inventory (TAI) developed by Sarasin (2004) was used to measure general test anxiety level. The scale was composed of 20 items. It is a three-point linker type scale. According to the sum of scores, the total score ranges from 20 to 60, where higher scores prove higher level of test anxiety. The internal coefficient of consistence (Cronbach's Alpha) was 0.723.

Student Academic Stress Test (SAST)

Student Academic Stress Test (SAST) was a 70-item questionnaire, a liker type response format from 0 to 5, and consisted of two categories: Types of stressors/pressures and Reaction to Stressors Agents (Bursary, 2011). The higher scores indicated high rate of academic stress and its related reactions. The internal coefficient of consistence (Cronbach's Alpha) was 0.775.

Data procedure and data analysis

Data collection tools were administered by the researchers during the winter semester of the academic 2017-2018. The instruments were applied to the students in a classroom setting, with the permission of the instructors. The period for answering the scale lasted 45 minutes.

Statistical analysis of the results obtained in the research was conducted with SPSS 20.0 for Windows package program. The results were analyzed using independent sample t-test, one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Pearson correlation.

Results

In our study, we observed that the mean rate of emotional intelligence was 124.20 (SD=18.34), while the mean rate of test anxiety was 48.64 (SD=8.32), and of academic stress was 235.20 (SD=14.35). There was a positive relationship between the level of emotional intelligence, test anxiety and the academic stress ($F_{199, 1}$=48.341, sig=0.012, p<.01).

The results indicated that there were significant differences between the score of emotional intelligence between the male and female students. Male students had a mean score of 112.14 (SD=17.32) of emotional intelligence, while for the female participants it was 121.95 (SD=18.21). A significant difference between the female and male participants was found via the Pearson correlation (r=.038, p<.01). At the same time, the girls had higher mean scores in the domain of empathy, motivation and self-confidence parameters of the emotional intelligence, while the boys in the domain of self-awareness and self-control.

The results indicated that there was a positive and significant relationship between emotional intelligence and academic stress (p=0.032), emotional intelligence and types of stressors (p=0.045), but negative correlation between emotional intelligence and type of reactions (p=0.124). Also, there was a strong negative relationship between emotional intelligence and test anxiety (p=0.214).

Furthermore, we found that the students did not differ significantly on the level of emotional intelligence with respect to their course of study (r=.321, p<.01). However there was a positive relationship between self-motivation (r=.451, p<.05) and self-control (r=.425, p<.01) among students who studied medical sciences, while the students who studied psychology had a positive relationship between motivation and social competence (r=.299, p<.01). The results confirmed that students who studied medical sciences had higher levels of test anxiety than students who studied psychology (p=.045). On the other hand we found that the students did not significantly differ in dimensions of academic stress (p=.425).

The results showed that there was a significant mean difference in the levels of emotional intelligence, test anxiety, academic stress and academic achievement. There was a positive and significant relationship between emotional intelligence and high academic achievement (p=.012), test anxiety and high academic achievement (p=.038), academic stress and high academic achievement (p=.014). In contrast there was a strong negative relationship between emotional intelligence and low academic achievement (p=.314), academic stress and low academic achievement (p=.042), but a positive relationship between test anxiety and low academic achievement (p=.014).

Discussion

The results showed that the total score of emotional intelligence correlated with test anxiety, academic stress and academic achievement among university students. Based on this, we can conclude that emotional intelligence may influence test anxiety and academic stress components. The obtained results are similar with the results obtained by other researchers (Heather & April, 2009). Test anxiety affects students in the field of assessment and evaluation of their abilities and achievements. Concerning the causal ordering of the test anxiety – emotional intelligence relationship, there are reasons to hypothesize that test anxiety predicts changes in students' emotional intelligence. Some researchers found that test anxiety is associated with some negative and positive evaluations and accompanying emotions (Rain, 2010).

Some studies revealed that academic stress was strongly associated with several dimensions of emotional intelligence (Credo, 2015). College students are faced with a unique set of stressors that may be overwhelming, thus altering the abilities to cope with a situation. Strategies to reduce stress have been associated with emotional intelligence in university students (Curvet et al., 2006).

In our study we found that female students have higher level of emotional intelligence, test anxiety and academic stress than male students. Existing literature reveals the same information about these parameters in female students (Sanchez-Nunez et al., 2008). One of the reasons behind the increasing levels of emotional intelligence of female students may be due to the biological and psychological differences between males and females. Also, females tend to stay with the emotions expressed by others as emotional empathy, but males tend to focus on activities that

need to be done in order to come out of those emotions. Another reason may be that female students have more tension, anxiety, stress and physical rigidity when they face exams.

At the same time, we found that there were no differences in the level of emotional intelligence and academic stress among students who studied medical sciences and psychology, but the level of test anxiety was higher in the students of medical sciences. These differences may be due to the pedagogical practices where allied medical sciences involve more satisfying academic tasks, i.e. consulting with patients. Also, results indicated that emotional intelligence, test anxiety and academic stress are the common cause for the students' poor academic performance during examination. The results with regard to academic stress are also in line with those obtained from other studies (Keenan & Pearisburg, 2003). All have reached the conclusion that students with better academic achievement had a higher level of emotional intelligence, test anxiety and academic stress.

Conclusion

The present study aimed at exploring emotional intelligence with test anxiety and academic stress. From the findings of this study, it can be derived that female students have higher emotional intelligence than male students. On the other hand, the students did not significantly differ in the emotional intelligence with respect to their course of study. Also, low emotional intelligence is to be positively correlated with poor academic achievement.

Regarding test anxiety, there was no difference between female and male students, and students of medical sciences showed higher test anxiety than those studying psychology. Also, we found that females had higher level of academic stress than males. The girls are more stressed than boys, because they are more influenced by self and the ideal self. Besides, females have skills in understanding and revealing their feelings, but boys possess the ability to control impulses and tolerate stress.

The study conducted found that emotional intelligence, test anxiety and academic stress are significant and predictive of the academic achievement of university students.

Educational implications

The current study has produced some important results that have implications for both the educational and the clinical practice. This study demonstrated that aspects of personality such as feelings and thinking, which have previously been identified as forces that may affect one's learning styles, emotional expression and emotional regulation (all factors of influence on emotional intelligence), are major determinants of academic success.

Our study demonstrated that test anxiety, academic stress and academic achievement have powerful predictive qualities with regard to changes in students' emotional intelligence, which reflects the need for further research in the context of intervention programs and strategies to treat test anxiety and academic stress in education successfully. The school psychologist may consider these findings while planning emotional equipment programs for students.

Acknowledgements

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Part 5

Law and Education

Elizabeth Achinewhu-Nworgu

An Overview of Integrating Arts and Creative Practices to a Business Programme: QAHE in Partnership with Ulster & Northumbria Universities

Abstract

The prompt for this study came about as a result of my previous paper presented in 2017 in relation to examining the role of creative art and link in education, originated from Prof. Claudio-Rafael Vásquez-Martínez work on arts and painting in education. For the present study, qualitative data was gathered using observation and focus group interviews with Business students and teachers at QAHE in partnership with Ulster, Northumbria, Roehampton and Middlesex Universities in London Campus. The findings indicate that creative arts can be linked to any form of learning and in doing so, would depend on how the teachers communicate the idea to the learners and how the students may perceive their learning styles from the process. The key challenge for QAHE is linking arts and creativity to other business curriculum for the benefit of other learners.

Keywords: art education, poster, design, drawing, painting, creative practices, transition, international students, business decision, academic success

Introduction

As an on-going research, this is the second stage of the work that was derived from a peer observation of a colleagues' class, where the work of art and creativity was linked to a business programme. The main aim of the study was to explore how the QAHE Business studies students were able to learn through this process and the knowledge and skill developed linking creative arts in their business course. As a result, I revisited my previous work and literature, hence the need to find out from the Business students and their teachers how they perceived linking arts and creativity in their business lessons, importance and value added to their learning. The students in question are in year 1 Business programme and one of their modules was linked to creative arts, drawing and painting in designing a poster. The lesson observed was on poster presentation where students were asked to create and design posters to analyse Porter's Five Forces Model to making a business decision. In order to consider the wider concepts and benefits of arts and creativity, it is important to revisit my previous literature.

Literature

The section aims to examine the contribution of literature and research in integration of arts and creativity in education with reference to the role of arts and creativity linked to a Business course for EU students. This literature review and scoping paper explores the experiences of EU students studying at QA Higher Education (QAHE) in partnership with four English Universities. The paper seeks to examine literature review and research carried out on the role of art in education and the interrelationships between art, creativity and value added to student's knowledge in a business programme. With reference to the work of Professor Claudio-Rafael Vásquez-Martínez, at the outset of a collaborative project to explore these issues further, this paper considers how the design of posters and creative art practices could help students interpret and explain Porter's Five Forces Model, one of the topics in their business programme and how this has helped students in their artistic and creative thinking, design, drawing and painting to a Business theoretical framework of Porter's Five Forces Model.

The growing influence and importance of the arts in education

As noted in my previous work, there is a large body of articles, research and on-going debates about the practice of creative arts and their application in education. The work of Vásquez-Martínez et al. (2015), Fleming (2010), Moorefield-Lang (2008), Winner and Cooper (2000), Purves (2012), Evans (2011), Achinewhu-Nworgu (2017), have all contributed to the understanding of the role of arts and painting in student creative thinking and to engage in academic studies. A good number of studies and research have been carried out and written (Macdonald, 1970; Sutton, 1967; Field, 1970). The most recent overview of key issues is given in Vásquez-Martínez et al. (2015), and Addison and Burgess (2003). Macdonald's (1970) seminal history that investigates the study of arts painting and design education in United Kingdom, Italy, Germany, United States and France which traces the philosophies of teachers from the age of the guilds and the academies, setting them in the context of the general education theories of their times.

A key development in thinking about art education (which influenced the development of drama education, drawing and painting) was the recognition of child art. The acceptance of child art was influenced by four related factors (Fleming, 2010).

Firstly, the naturalistic thinking of Rousseau who had argued that the child needs an education suited to its nature. Spencer (in Fleming, 2010) introduced the relevance of this kind of thinking to the teaching of art in England, although his ideas did not have an immediate impact on practice. As identified in the work of Fleming, Spencer challenged the emphasis on mechanical drawing from copies, recognising that when the natural instinct of the child is allowed to emerge, 'the drawing of outlines immediately becomes secondary to colouring' (Spencer, 1878, p. 83). Spencer compared the mechanical approach of teaching drawing to the process of teaching a child to speak by drilling in parts of speech. Innovative thinking in art education which challenged prevailing mechanistic practices thus began relatively early and paved the way for later more radical developments later (Macdonald, 1970). Art education is defined as a learning, instruction and

programming based upon the visual and tangible arts. Art education is grouped into performing arts such as dancing, music, theatre, and visual arts that include drawing, painting, sculpture, and design works. Arts practice in education is defined to include the fine and performing arts – painting, sculpting, writing poetry, playing an instrument, singing, dancing, acting, creating mixed media productions, and film-making of which each of these arts activities engages the learner wholly – intellectually, socially, emotionally, and physically. Learning in, about, and through the arts involves active engagement in learning that unites mind and body, emotion and intellect, object and subject as pointed out by Fleming (2010).

Arts and creativity linked to Porter's Five Forces Model by Business students

The Porter's Five Forces Model originated and was developed by the Harvard Business School's Michael E. Porter in 1979, the five forces and model looks at five specific factors that helped determine whether or not a business can be profitable, based on other businesses in the industry (Martin, 2017). The designing of a poster to describe the five forces that shape a business in terms of what Porter regarded as an understanding of both the competitive forces and the overall industry structure as important factors for effective strategic decision-making in business. Linking art, design and creative practice opens up rich possibilities for developing a new creative pedagogy – and a more interdisciplinary approach in the field of education – in order to improve learning outcomes and enhance student success in a business context.

The potential of art and creative practices for enhancing students' learning as set out in Vásquez-Martínez et al. (2015), with reference to the work of Purves (2012), we know that the operation of the left and right hemispheres of the brain is associated with distinct forms and types of thought and perception. The left hemisphere is the part of our brains which focuses on digital, lineal, logical and direct language – it is adept at analysis, mathematics and logical reasoning. The right hemisphere, meanwhile, is where we process *"images, nonverbal language, paraverbal language, analogue, it is the creative, dreamer, intuitive, sensitive, poet, symbolic"* (Vásquez-Martínez et al., 2015, p. 18).

Each hemisphere has its own distinct, and ultimately complimentary, modes of operation and expression. Thus, the left hemisphere is associated with verbal expression (using words to name define and describe); whereas the right uses nonverbal, yet nevertheless conscious, expression.

The left hemisphere operates through processes which are analytic (thinking in a step by step way), symbolic (using symbols to represent), abstract (taking a small fragment of the information and applying it in order to represent something), temporal (adhering to time and order in sequencing things), rational, digital (e.g. using numbers), employs logic and is lineal (thinking in terms of chained ideas, one thought followed by another, leading to a conclusion at the end of the chain).

The right hemisphere, on the other hand, is synthetic (grouping things in order to make teams), concrete (capturing things as they are at the present moment), analogical (seeing similarities between things, understanding metaphorical relationships), timeless (centred in the present moment), unreasonable (not depending on facts and reason), spatial (seeing where things are and how they

combine in order to form a whole), intuitive, and holistic (seeing complete structures or patterns at once).

This insight into the workings of the brain has important implications for teaching and learning. Interestingly, it is noted that different cultures and educational traditions (e.g. Western and Eastern) place differing emphasis on each type of thinking, with Western teaching styles typically devoted more to the development of left hemisphere thinking. The paper goes on to argue that the greatest achievements may occur when the two hemispheres are integrated and balanced. Indeed, it is concluded, *"an aware teacher... will develop activities to stimulate the two hemispheres in order to keep the attention of his or her student and never miss motivation"* (Vásquez-Martínez et al., 2015, p. 18).

The aim of this paper is to apply this insight to the experiences of the EU students studying at QAHE in the United Kingdom. These are students whose education in their home countries may fall within the left brain oriented, with their chosen degree courses in the UK reflecting this orientation, as their interesting subject such as business. Majority of the foreign students face challenges adapting to education in another country and the work of Vásquez-Martínez poses the intriguing possibility that integrating arts and creative practices into their learning (even though only indirectly related to their chosen discipline) may help these students in their studies. This is the main focus of this paper to find out the value added to knowledge in designing a poster to make a business decision and the proposed further research to follow from the findings.

Scoping study: EU students' experiences of using art and creative practices in their studies – designing a poster

This small-scale research draws on qualitative data, gathered during a peer observation of a colleague class and focus group interviews, with a small group of EU students studying at QAHE and on Business programme in UK. One of their business modules required the students to be artistic and creative in presenting a poster as part of their course work. My interest was to find out how the students linked their business programme to the word of arts and creativity and if there was value added to their knowledge and thinking, hence hearing from the students and staff helped me in drawing a conclusion on importance of arts and creative thinking and the link to the work of Vásquez-Martínez.

Findings: Student comments

I think there is a lot to learn in making this poster presentation in a style that develops your creativity and same time linking arts to our course. Designing a poster in this lesson helps you to be focused and in control of your learning. It teaches you creativity and helps your imagination as you keep calm thinking of how to be the best in poster making. It also fits in with my learning style as I enjoy the challenges in creativity and practicality in my learning. Doing it this way helped my understanding of Porter's Five Forces Model and the link to business. (S3)

One of the interesting things studying here is the variety you get in your programme. The first time the teacher introduced what we needed to do on this module, I could not understand the link to designing a poster in a business class using Porter's Five Forces Model. Since it was made compulsory, when we started designing the poster,

I began to appreciate the link to using the poster made to analyse impact of Porter's Five Forces Model, particularly painting the poster in five different colours, helped me to describe the usefulness through colour differentiation to describing each of the forces. (S4)

As this business course has a topic that requires us to practice design or drawing and painting a poster. I can see the relevance of creativity and artistically gaining knowledge that adds value to my business knowledge; although, this is my first time doing this. What we call poster drawing and design can be very challenging for the first time, particularly, using the poster designed to describe Porter's Five Forces Model. Looking at the samples given by the teacher and using them to design yours imposes challenge and knowing what to do helped me to derive joy from the lesson and to concentrate. The most interesting is that you continue to work on your poster design until you get it right, which will require you to think, generate ideas and be creative to describe a situation and what you have presented in a meaningful manner, but can be difficult, interesting and challenging task. (S5)

I think linking arts and creative design in any of our module is helpful to people like me who like drawing. I hate theories and describing through charts, drawing and design is my best way of learning, although I am not trying to say that I like arts. Describing things through designing them and being creative has helped my thinking and more understanding as I can concentrate facing the challenges drawing can present. But you have to ensure that it links to your message. (S8)

I love this idea of linking the poster design in my business class. Since teaching on this programme, I can see how the students have developed in their artistic and creative thinking which have motivated them to do good work. However, some are not good in arts and design and to them, you don't expect much, although they try because it is compulsory for them to do it, but in terms of creativity and value added, had to measure at this stage. (Teacher 1)

As the above quotes represent, all of the students were able to come up with examples of were creative practices had been a part of their studies in the business subjects. For many, this was a relatively good experience, particularly with the creative thinking involved as the aspect of learning and more so very challenging to them suggesting some benefits for these students in creative practices being integrated into their package of business programme.

Conclusions and further development

The stage two of my research analysing the work of Vásquez-Martínez suggests that there is a great deal of potential in arts education for students and more so for the EU students in the Business programme at QAHE given the students opportunities for developing their creative and artistic skills in designing a poster linked to their business programme. In this way, they will not only adapt more readily to the practical elements of their courses that involve, for example, elements of technical drawing and design of a poster. It is speculated that this balancing of left and right brain activities might also make them more creative and effective problem solvers and analysts; in short, more well-rounded and capable individuals in arts, design, creative thinking and link to a business decision making process. It is further speculated that involvement in creative and artistic practices might bring further benefits, such as a valuable form of stress relief and new avenues for socialising and developing social support networks. The benefits may not be limited narrowly to the

academic sphere, but extend to these students' wellbeing and happiness as well as developing their learning styles.

These are areas to further develop in my next stage of this work through more systematic action research with other students in business courses at QAHE.

This is a 3 year Postdoctoral project in conjunction with Professor Claudio-Rafael Vásquez-Martínez, the first stage of the work was presented in 2017 at the BCES Annual International Conference and it focused on Nigerian students and their experience in linking arts and creativity in engineering programme; the current paper is the second stage that focused on business students at QAHE with a link to poster design on their business programme. The outcome of the work will be monitored through action research with the students, who will further be encouraged to reflect and report on the project and contribution to their learning.

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Cultural Challenges Facing Teachers Working with International Students – A Case Study of QAHE

Abstract

Leaving home countries to study in another country can impose a big cultural challenge to students and teachers in the classroom. This study will aim to share the experience of teaching and interacting with international students, with main focus on Romanian students studying at QA higher education in partnership with Northumbria, Ulster, Roehampton and Middlesex Universities based in London. The main purpose for this study was to compare our previous studies that focused on Nigerian students' experiences studying in the UK intuitions. The students concerned for this current study are both on undergraduate and postgraduate programmes in Business Studies. QAHE has over 3,000 foreign students on their Business programmes comprising Romanian, Bulgarian, Italian, and others from Mexico, Columbia, China, Vietnam and few from the UK. Majority of the undergraduate students are from Romania studying undergraduate Business programme and the rest studying postgraduate Business programme are mainly from other foreign countries.

Keywords: challenges, education, students, teachers, support, culture and language barriers, internationalisation

Introduction

The study provides a qualitative analysis of some of the issues surrounding the international students and teacher at QA higher education in London, UK. The qualitative research uses semi-structured interviews and focus group. The findings indicate that there are some cultural challenges faced by teachers in classroom contact with international students as well as the students in terms of cultural awareness and language problems, particularly teaching Romanian students. From the analysis of the findings, recommendations are made to enable those who come to the UK from other educational backgrounds to adapt to the culture of the institution to enable effective teaching and learning process for their career development. These challenges require QA higher education to develop effective strategies to support both the students and the teachers, particularly the newly recruited teachers. It is also important to implement effective recruitment and induction strategies to enhance cultural awareness of international students coming to study in UK.

Literature

There are several research and literature on problems faced by students in their studies; cultural challenges are clearly seen facing international students studying at higher education institutions in the UK (Achinewhu-Nworgu, 2015; Bamford, 2008; Tinto, 1988; Martinez, 2001; Spencer-Oatey, 2012). These challenges also affect the teachers who have direct classroom contact with students and hence can affect

effective teaching and learning. Most of the major challenges confronting international students' life in UK universities are related to cultural shock and language barriers (Achinewhu-Nworgu, 2015; Martinez, 2001). These challenges require the institutions to develop effective strategies to support both the students and the teachers. QA Higher Education Business School in partnership with four UK Universities (Northumbria, Ulster, Roehampton and Middlesex Universities) based in London campus has a good recruitment of international and EU students, who account for approximately 80% of the overall number of the students of which about 40% of the students in the Business School come from Romania. Many literature have explored the increase number of international students engaging in academic studies in the UK classroom and the problems faced, integration (Tinto, 1988; Martinez, 2001; cultural barriers (Achinewhu-Nworgu, 2015), internationalisation (Asteris, 2006; De Wit, 2002; Knight, 2006) in higher education, coupled with personal experience teaching international students, has resulted to this research to share both the views of the students and teachers on their experience studying and working in a diverse cultural environment; also comparing the views of previous Nigerian students to the EU students at QAHE.

One of the big challenges facing the international students studying at QAHE London Campus is linked to cultural awareness particularly the Romanian students (Achinewhu-Nworgu, 2015). Language barrier is another identified factor having impact on international students. Bamford (2008) indicates that one of the big challenges confronting international students concerns English language ability, which is predominantly found in non-native speakers of English. There is a minimum language requirement for entry which for international and European students would normally consist of a TOEFL or IELTS score. However, even when students more than meet these entry requirements, they may not be familiar with the technical terminology for a specialist subject area (Bamford, 2008). This is also evidenced at QAHE with majority of the international students having language difficulties which can frustrate them as they find it difficult to understand the teacher. In return, they start to exhibit some unacceptable behaviour and hatred on the teacher which is a big challenge to deliver effective lesson particularly with some of the Romanian students.

The EU students who have low level English and now having to study in English at a postgraduate level can be problematic to other students and their teachers. Most of the undergraduate students came from foundation, yet still find it difficult to speak or write effectively in English. However, there are those who are fluent and do not have language problems, but have cultural barrier which affects their classroom behaviour (Bamford, 2008). Teaching international students can be seen as an inconvenient challenge, given the language barriers and the limited preparation that their academic backgrounds have given them to adapt to life in the UK as evidenced in our previous research with the Nigerian students and the current research with the EU students. However, with the internationalisation of UK HE, the onus is on universities and colleges to take responsibility for adapting to the students' behaviour and diverse culture (Murphy, 2015).

Cultural understanding is another challenge and important in teaching the EU students. Culture consists of patterned ways of thinking, feeling and reacting, acquired and transmitted mainly by symbols, constituting the distinctive

achievements of human groups, including their embodiment in artefacts; the essential core of culture consists of traditional (i.e. historically derived and selected) ideas and especially their attached values (Kroeber & Kluckhohn, 1952, p. 181). Culture therefore can be very difficult to erase from human nature.

Culture responds to changes in internal and external environment, new technology, new products, new customers, new personnel, introduction of new systems and new procedures, as well as macro social and political trend and therefore can affect what we do and how we perceive things around us.

Spencer-Oatey (2008, p. 3), defines 'Culture as a fuzzy set of basic assumptions and values, orientations to life, beliefs, policies, procedures and behavioural conventions that are shared by a group of people, and that influence (but do not determine) each member's behaviour and his/her interpretations of the 'meaning' of other people's behaviour'. The EU students at QAHE are not different from what you would expect from what research findings present about cultural understanding and interpretation of the values attached to the way we are and perceive things around us.

Due to the busy workload of teachers, little time is spent in addressing the more specialist support required by these students in relation to cultural understanding of the QAHE education environment, although some of the cultural understanding topics are embedded in some of the modules, but a lot still need to be done to ensure good understanding of how things are done here and what is expected of them in the classrooms. Cultural understanding is obviously an issue that needs addressing as not providing the necessary support can frustrate the students as well as the lecturers who may not understand their specific language and cultural needs (Bamford, 2008).

The first and foremost challenge that every international student has to face is the cultural shock that they have to cope with while adjusting to life in a new environment such as in the UK. The education system in UK is obviously different compared to other countries in the world which requires the international students to adapt to the systems and ways of doing things in the country of their studies. This can be difficult for the International students particularly students from Romania. The difficulties faced by international students to adjust to the educational culture in the UK impose a big challenge for the teachers who come in contact with the students in the classroom. However, it is our responsibility to try to make an understanding of these differences in culture and tailor our teaching to accommodate international students' expectations and language barriers faced in their studies.

In the case of the Romanian students at QAHE, it is obvious that most of the students still find it difficult to accept the fact that it is not very easy to find life in the UK education system, they rebel through exhibition of some unacceptable behaviours, which can disrupt the class hence, affecting effective teaching and learning taking place. What follows, rude and blame the teacher who is trying so hard to deliver effective lesson in such a culturally diverse group. It is observed that regardless of the level of education instilled in certain people, their rigid culture can dominate their understanding and perception of the world around them. This obviously imposes a big challenge to the institution and teachers, hence the need to find effective strategies to re-enforce cultural acceptance of the way we do things in the UK educational system and on the other hand, teachers to respect the diverse culture of the students we aim to educate. Having explored the views of relevant

literature and research, the proceeding section will aim to explore the research methodology and findings on what the QAHE students and some staff said about the cultural challenges faced in studying and working in UK.

Research methodology

In order to ascertain best way forward to effective implementation and supporting the EU students' cultural understanding, a focused group interview was used to find out what students say about their cultural understanding. Most of the students interviewed were 18 and above and did not need consent from parents to participate in this initial mini studies. The participation was voluntary and the researchers ensured that the research was anonymous to protect identity and confidentiality. One of the reasons to adapt to this method was the easy access to the students as one of us had direct contact as their Lecturer and also teaching related cultural programme in the partner Universities. It was easy to link in the research in their seminar discussion on cultural awareness. Secondly, because of the classroom behaviour and disruption perceived while teaching and sharing the experiences of other colleagues, it was an opportunity to utilise the period to find out from them how they view the British education culture compared to their home countries. Students were actively involved in given reasons to why their behaviour may be perceived as disruptive or ignorance of studying in a diverse cultural community of QAHE.

Students' and teachers' comments

Well, we cannot change the way we are, this is the nature of Romanian students. Everyone think that we talk too much in the class, this is our nature. We are not rude but we talk and speak our language. Teachers should not see us as rude. We also listen and do our work. (S3)

I had a big shock about how raciest the British are to Romanian students. They have already labelled some of us as disruptive people because they do not like our behaviour. This is us and we cannot do anything about it. Teacher, you are an African woman, have you stopped speaking your language? We cannot throw away our identity which our language is one of them. If people think that I have to forgo my language for English, the answer is no. It is ok for my learning because we have to learn in English but shouldn't make us not to speak in our language when we meet. In any case, I respect that it should not be spoken in the class, but sometimes these things happen. Perception and interpretation by teacher is what matters. (S8)

I came here to make a change and it is my first time in UK even though I came from Romania. I like QAHE and enjoy studying here. However, most teachers think that we talk too much in the class; it is not the case with all of us. I am very quiet and respectful to my teachers. But one person's fault should not be used to judge others. We are very nice and some of us may exhibit some challenging cultural attitudes due to circumstances outside our study environment, it does not apply to all of us the most import thing is cultural understanding and respect for others. (S10)

When we talk about culture, we need to look at the individuals within the culture. How responsive are we all in respecting individual culture? Everyone should be responsible in shaping the culture here. Maybe, more should be done from the induction to create serious awareness and to let students who come newly for the first time on how to behave and respect the culture of the institution, including the

rules and regulations. I do know that some of the males in my class do not have respect for the female lecturers but, the teacher has to be very strict with such students and make them to realise that we are in a different culture that needs to be respected. (S12)

Some of the teachers also lack understanding of the nature and problems students face in studying overseas. I could not speak a word in English when I came over here. I learnt English when I came and still struggle understanding and writing in English language. I know my subject but interpreting it in English sometimes can be very frustrating. I talk in the class to my friend to help me interpret things in English. This is my only reason using my language in the class sometime. I am not disrespectful but facing language barriers. (S19)

I have come here for the first time to study. Things are done differently in my country so I have to change my style of behaviour because I want to learn. It is good for me to come to UK to see the difference and respect for people even though I don't like the way they regard us here from Romania. We are all EU people and should be treated same. I am learning the system and with one of my modules understanding self and others which you teach, I learnt a lot and now I understand myself and others. Extra support to improve my English has also helped my communication skill. However, it is not easy to change the way you do things. (S22)

I have no major problems teaching international students. The only problem I have is the talking in the class sometimes. I have a large class comprising mainly Romanian students, nice students but cannot stop talking. I noticed that it is a cultural problem and there is nothing I can do about it. I believe that they have to be culturally equipped with the knowledge of working in a diverse community of London and with respect for people. Some have not understood what it takes to behave appropriately in the classroom. You can tell the difference teaching other students from places like China and other countries. QAHE needs to do more during the induction to equip the students with the knowledge of working in a diverse culture of UK intuitions. (T2)

Working with international students can impose cultural and language barriers, hence needing strategies to cope with the situation. One of the strategies to help international students is creating cultural awareness. QAHE has effective induction strategy they use for implementation as well as helping students to understand cultural diversity and continuing with the good practice will surely help, if possible with enrichment activities built in inducting students. (T4)

Conclusion and recommendations

Working with international students imposes cultural and language problems, hence needing strategies to address issues. Research and literature point to language and cultural barriers as key challenges facing international students and teachers in the classroom, however implementing effective induction strategies will help create cultural awareness and understanding; in turn minimise the problems faced by the lecturers teaching these students.

We would recommend that QAHE embarks on a strict induction programme to support students' understanding of cultural awareness and importance of working in a culturally diverse community. Providing additional support for key skills such as English support classes will also help develop language skills and thereby minimising frustration encountered as a result of lack of understanding. This is an on-going research which in future, will aim to explore how QAHE is effectively

implementing its induction programme to support the international students adapt to the diverse culture of their partner universities, Northumbria, Ulster, Roehampton and Middlesex.

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Zoltán Rónay

Centralizations and Autonomies: The Delimitation of Education by the Hungarian Government

Abstract

Hungary is on the road towards an illiberal state. On this journey, the Hungarian government, with the Parliament at its service, is reinterpreting the concept of fundamental rights. Under the slogan of effectiveness, new regulations are being adopted which secure more power, influence, rights, and tools for the state. This paper aims to present this trend from the perspective of education. I will present the most important new legal institutions, the chancellery, and consistory, as well as the constitutional right of the government to regulate by decree the operational and financial matters of HEIs, the central direction of schools, and the ministerial approval of pedagogical programs.

Keywords: autonomy of higher education institutes, freedom of teaching, scientific freedom, self-governance, direct government control, illiberal state

Introduction

In spring of this year, a general election will be held in Hungary. After the previous three elections, the regulation of public and higher education was significantly modified. The oldest modifications were also related to autonomy, but the last two modifications, as well as the two new education acts (Act CCIV of 2011 on National Higher Education and Act CXC of 2011 on National Public Education), reduced the autonomy and self-governance of state educational organizations in Hungary. Most EU member states' constitutions declare the autonomy of HEIs but do not provide as much of a constitutional framework for the operation of public education institutions. However, there are no regulations within the European Union that disregard the principle of subsidiarity or exclude local governments from dealing with the operation and maintenance of public schools.

The aforementioned Acts introduced brand new legal institutions. The first institution consists of the state universities' chancellors, who are chosen, appointed and ordered by the government exclusively, and the consistories, which have five members (the rector, the chancellor, and three members elected behind closed doors). The second institution is the Klebelsberg Centre, an organisation which deals with the maintenance of public schools. These are both tools of the government that can influence the daily operation of both higher and public education institutions alike.

Autonomy theories in education

When talking about autonomy in education, it is important to separate public and higher education. While there is far more autonomy in higher education, it is also noticeably present in teachers in public schools. Consequently, we should talk

about the freedom of teaching and not only about academic freedom (DeMitchell & Connelly, 2007) because the autonomy of HEIs also includes the freedom of research, management, and operation, as well as the freedom of the individual and groups on which the entire organisation's autonomy is built.

This different aspect of autonomy has been discussed for a long time. Apart from the connection to freedom of thought and religious schools, freedom of teaching means that it is possible to talk without arbitrary restrictions in the classroom. The teacher has the freedom to choose the theme, tools, literature, and so on. Of course, it means that the teacher must follow the syllabus, but there is significant room for maneuver. It also means that the teacher is not allowed to take unfair advantage of his/her situation to the detriment of the learners (Good, 1938). The role of headteachers is therefore significant because they can supervise the teachers in their work. For this reason, governments wish to monitor public schools closely. Therefore, they, try to minimize the possibilities of teachers' independence to select the themes and tools of teaching. Governments also strive to control the (daily) operation of schools directly with the instructions of headteacher or the appointment the teachers instead of the headteacher. If the headteacher and the teachers are dependent upon the government, they should adapt to the government's policy or at least not make themselves conspicuous.

As DeMitchell and Connelly emphasised in relation to the freedom of students and learners, academic freedom has crystallized meaning (DeMitchell & Connelly, 2007), it is also true related to the autonomy of universities. The very fact that HEIs developed from the medieval *Universitas* means that they inherently have the right to decide on their own matters, i.e., academic affairs, research, organisation and operations (Isensee & Kirchhof, 2009). The tasks of the state are to secure the freedom of HEIs and its conditions. There is understanding in science that autonomy implies responsibility (Barakonyi, 2012), which means the state can monitor compliance with regulations, but it does not have the right to intervene in operations. The autonomy of universities is a fundamental principle; there are no HEIs with absolute freedom and without external control, and the concept and extent of autonomy depend on the era in question and social conditions (De Groof, Švec & Neave, 1998).

Constitutional framework of autonomy in education

While the autonomy of universities is a typical element of the constitutions of EU member states (20 of the 28 constitutions include in some form or other provisions about the autonomy or academic freedom), provisions relating to freedom of teaching can be found in less than half of these constitutions. It is interesting that western or old democracies do not consider it important to regulate this issue, whereas the post-socialist countries do. If the constitutions mention education, they secure the right to education, perhaps with exemption from school fees. The Fundamental Law of Hungary appears to set a good example because it stipulates the freedom of teaching besides the freedom of scientific research, artistic creation, and learning (Article X Section 1). While these three rights are guaranteed almost without limits, freedom of teaching is within the framework laid down in an Act. The real problem doesn't appear in the regulations of the Fundamental Law. Namely, the details are in the Act on National Public Education, which delimits the

aforementioned rights. This Act guarantees the freedom of teachers to select curricula, school books, and methods. However, the curriculum is limited by the pedagogical program, which is eventually determined by the Minister. Furthermore, teachers can only choose school books which have been permitted by the Minister. Another way to limit teachers' freedom is that it is the President of the Klebelsberg Center, who works directly below the Minister, that sets up and terminates their employment.

Although details of the delimitation of HEIs' autonomy are also in the Act on National Higher Education, it appears explicitly in the Fundamental Law. All of EU member states' constitutions declare universities are autonomous, but only the Fundamental Law of Hungary prescribes partial freedom. The Portuguese Constitution specifically mentions the financial and organizational autonomy of HEIs. On the other hand, the Hungarian law declares that "higher education institutions shall be autonomous regarding the content and the methods of research and teaching", and the universities' organizational freedom depends on an Act which shall regulate their organization. It is customary to give a constitutional authorization to determine the details in the Act if the fundamental rights are guaranteed. In this instance, the universities do not have safeguards against a potential delimitation of organizational autonomy. As we will see, the governing majority embraced the opportunity to violate their freedom. In terms of financial freedom, the Fundamental Law secures still more widest possibilities for the government: it "shall, within the framework of an Act, lay down the rules governing the management of public institutes of higher education and shall supervise their management". It is unusual to secure the regulation of a concrete task by decree in a constitution. At the request of the Hungarian Minister of Foreign Affairs, three legal experts wrote an opinion on the fourth amendment of the Hungarian constitution. They emphasized, on the one hand, that the constitution meets the requirements of European constitutionality, on the other hand, "the outcome of the final test of compliance of the EU domestic law to the European norms will depend, as always, on the legislatives acts adopted, and in particular on their implementation" (Delpérée, Delvolvé & Smith, 2013, p. 44). If we investigate the outcome, we can accept the concerns and not the optimism of the experts.

Delimitation of autonomy in higher education

The ancestor of the modern HEIs was the medieval university. The university is, therefore, one of the oldest existing social institutions, and it is continuously developing and evolving (Wittrock, 1993). This past and present social role mean that the fundamental principles of the organization and operation of universities are also relevant today. The possibility of self-governance of the common appeared already in the beginnings. The modern history of higher education management proves that the requirements of top management were different, but all types have a similar element: the top management always worked within the university. The role of vice-chancellor in British universities evolved from that of an earlier academic leader (De Groof, Švec & Neave, 1998; Farrington & Palfreyman, 2012). In the role of the presidents of US universities, management skills are more important, and this ensures long-term professionalism (Kaplin & Lee, 2013). These types have a common feature: the professors and students of the universities take part in the

decision-making processes, and the leaders of the universities are responsible for their work.

The modification of the Hungarian Higher Education Act broke with that tradition and established the legal institute of the chancellor. Hungarian state universities now have two leaders: the rector and the chancellor. The Act tries to define their powers, making the rector responsible for academic affairs and the chancellor liable for the operation of academic affairs. However, these two leaders are on the same level of the hierarchy. The rector does not have the right to order the chancellor, and officially he or she does not have the tools, the power or the possibility to influence the chancellor's work. Neither the university senate nor the rector has the right to make suggestions or express an opinion related the chancellor's character. Although the chancellors are employees of the universities, their superior is the Minister, who can give orders to them directly, that means that the government is able to intervene in the daily operation of state HEIs. This in turn leads to the blurring of the dividing lines between two separate organizations, namely the university and the government.

The other new legal institution is the consistory. This body is not similar to any earlier known body of HEIs. Many universities have a board which takes decisions on the most important matters, but the consistory does not have such a power. The senate has the right to decide on certain matters (e.g., budget, reporting, strategy); the consistory has a veto. Without its agreement, the decisions of the senate cannot enter into force. However, this veto power does not mean that the consistory is a simple supervisory board. It is not obliged to investigate the operation and management of HEIs and draw up a report for the government. The consistory has five members, the rector, the chancellor, and three other people, who are chosen by the Minister. Although the senate can suggest members, the Minister is free to choose and appoint them behind closed doors. The legal status of the consistory members is not clear; they are not government officials, neither they have a contract of agency. Therefore, they have neither responsibility nor liability for their decisions and work. All the same, the consistory has a major influence on the life of a university.

Governance centralization in public education

The freedom of teaching, or as Reyes calls it 'academic freedom' (Reyes, 1995), is a fundamental element of public schools, and in general of a democracy. When teachers interpret knowledge, they have freedom of expression, which secures the possibility and success of educational goals. However, they have to follow the prescriptions of the curriculum at the same time. Between these two points, the freedom of teaching offers essential proof (Ibid.). The Hungarian Act on Public Education declares the right of the teachers to choose the knowledge, the curriculum and the methods of education based on the pedagogical programme. Moreover, the teacher has the right to select, among other things, the school books pursuant to the local curriculum. Teachers appear to have a significant degree of freedom because the teaching staff establishes and adopts the pedagogical program, which includes the local curriculum. On the other hand, the local curriculum is not an independent document, but an amplification of one of the framework curricula published by the Minister. The following rule illustrates well the relationship between these two

curricula: the local curriculum must specify the chosen framework curriculum. The freedom related to the selection of school books is similar: the teacher can choose them, but from a limited number of books. A book is only a school book if the Minister has declared it to be. One Hungarian study demonstrates that the pedagogical program is rather than a local execution of the framework curriculum as an independent plan with great value. This study also emphasizes that the freedom of teaching in this aspect reaches 25% even so in the most centralized countries (Gönczöl, 2015).

The other guarantee that can secure the freedom of teaching is the principle of subsidiarity in the course of the exercise of employers' rights. Subsidiarity means here that the employer should have to exercise certain employers' rights because they better know the employees and the local circumstances. In the case of a school, this employer is the headteacher. When the government funded the Klebelsberg Institution Maintenance Centre (KLIK), its President was the one and only person who exercised employer's rights above all the teachers of public schools. Later, the government reorganized it and established several educational districts. However, the headteachers did not reacquire the right to appoint and dismiss teachers; they have the right to make proposals. The leaders of the educational district must agree with this proposal, or they must submit it to the President of the Klebelsberg Centre, who has the right to decide. It means that the government simultaneously has the power to appoint and dismiss. This creates an uncomfortable atmosphere within schools, as the teachers may be aware of the likely consequences of too broad an interpretation of the freedom of teaching.

Conclusion

Freedom of education is a fundamental right which is necessary for a democratic state. People have recognised over the centuries that only autonomous and responsible citizens can take decisions and as a conscious being take a stand on the affairs of the state. Education can only be free if the actors and the institutes of education also have freedom. This requirement has been realised in Western democracies, where it is so obvious that the constitutions do not even mention it. However, the countries which suffered under Nazi and communist totalitarian rule experienced an era when professors and teachers had to be afraid of the consequences of their words. Therefore, the constitutions of these states stipulate several aspects of freedom of education: freedom of teaching, academic freedom, and universities' autonomy. Although there are differences between how detailed they are, a common attribute is that the principle is laid down in the constitutions. The Hungarian constitution is the only one that does not set out these fundamental rights but delimits them.

This delimitation is indirect in the case of public education because the freedom of teaching is guaranteed within the framework laid down in an Act. This Act contains the aforementioned rules of delimitation in relation to freedom of teaching. In the case of higher education, on the other hand, the delimitation is direct. The Fundamental Law of Hungary declares the right of the government to supervise and regulate the management of state HEIs. The government was able to establish the legal institutions of chancellery and consistory in this way.

The supporters of these new legal institutions account the regulations for the managing and the financial effectiveness. The question is where to draw the line between freedom and autonomy. If the financial affairs are sufficient grounds to delimit the autonomy, what will be next? If education or research is not effective, it is possible to limit freedom further? Where will this tendency lead? Maybe the elimination of freedom or autonomy? Playing with the delimitation of these fundamental rights is very dangerous.

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Exploring the Practice of In Loco Parentis in Public Schools

Abstract

The purpose of this conceptual paper is to highlight challenges educators face in the practice of in loco parentis in South African public schools. Responsibilities of school educators in children's education are increased, while those of social institutions like the home, church and community are reduced. This responsibility known as the 'in loco parentis' principle, tasks educators to act in the place of a parent by carrying out legal responsibilities and functions in line with the Fundamental Rights of children in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (CRSA) of 1996. Educators ought to show care and supervision to learners in the same way a reasonable and prudent parent would; taking responsibility for the emotional, psychological and physical well-being of the learners to ensure there is no foreseeable risk of injury to the child. This parent-teacher relationship is unique and requires educators to exercise care that ensures protection of learners from harm and injury so that they are not rendered negligent while performing their tasks. Despite these laws put in place to protect both learners and educators, physical and psychological violence is a threat. This paper thus focuses on how educators' practice of in loco parentis ensures protection, security, safety and wellbeing of learners in South African public schools. Findings, reveal that the whole system of parent-teacher co-operation should be reorganized to balance the tasks of the school community. The study is significant for the realistic consideration of educators' in loco parentis practice amidst their teaching and administrative tasks.

Keywords: in loco parentis, teacher responsibilities, duty of care, negligence, legal obligations, safety and security, violence

Introduction

Since1994, when South Africa became a constitutional democracy, emphasis was on creating a peaceful society that promoted respect, dignity, tolerance and non-violent solutions to problems (Power, n.d.). Educators' responsibilities increased while traditional responsibilities of parents or guardians, and, social institutions were reduced (Oosthuizen, 1992). Educators perform academic tasks with learners and are also responsible for the emotional, psychological and physical well-being of the learners, a responsibility known as 'in loco parentis'. Educators act in the place of a parent and execute legal responsibilities in line with the Fundamental Rights chapter in the South African Constitution (De Waal, Theron & Robinson, 2001, p. 151; Oosthuizen, 1998, p. 99), the Child Care Act (Act 74 of 1983); Domestic Violence Act (Act 16 of 1998), and the South African Schools Act (Act 16 of 1993). The teacher-learner relationship compel educators to ensure risk to injury is not reasonably foreseeable (Newnham, 2000, p. 47) for educators to be held negligent. The in loco parentis practice is within the school but includes 'acts associated specifically with travelling to and from school, or arriving at or waiting outside the school grounds' (Power, n.d.).

Educators should be able to anticipate foreseeable dangers and to take reasonable steps to protect learners from danger the same way a reasonable and prudent parent would do in the same circumstances for their children. Negligence refers to injury occurring because of legal standard required not observed (Citizens information, 2015). When this duty starts, where it ends and precisely what constitutes a breach of duty, are not clear-cut. Both the teacher and the learner have rights and responsibilities. A right always connotes discretion or a choice (Soliven, 2016). But when we are speaking of an obligation or a responsibility, one has no choice but to fulfil this action. The significance of the study is that it calls for realistic consideration of educators' practice of in loco parentis towards learners amidst their teaching and administrative tasks and offers suggestions as to how to avoid litigations of negligence.

The role of the law in protecting learners

Like all the people of South Africa, children are entitled to all the rights set out in the Constitution's Bill of Rights. Educators, parents and learners are aware of their rights and this increases the litigation to pursue those rights (Newnham, 2000). Should children be subjected to violence at school, rights are violated. These include: Section 9: the right to equality; Section 10: the right to human dignity; Section 12: the right to freedom and security of the person; Section 28: the right to be protected from maltreatment, neglect, abuse or degradation; and Section 29: the right to basic education. Parents send their children to school to learn under the guidance of educators. The South African Schools Act (SASA) of 1996 also lays a strong foundation for: the development of all people's talents and capabilities, advances to democratic transformation of society, the combat of racism and sexism and all other forms of unfair discrimination and intolerance. Section 10, in SASA, prohibits the use of corporal punishment in schools, and any educator administering corporal punishment to a learner is guilty of assault. Section 28(1)(b) of the Constitution states that every child has the right to appropriate childcare when removed from the family environment.

The role of the teacher

Educators are regulated by the Employment of Educators Act (EEA) (1998), Section 18, which among other things, states that, "unfairly discriminating against a learner on the basis of race, gender, disability, sex, pregnancy, marital status, ethnic and social origin, colour, sexual orientation, age, disability, religion, conscience, belief, culture, language, birth, family responsibility, HIV status, political opinion or other grounds prohibited by the Constitution, constitutes a misconduct on the part of the teacher". The EEA lists includes acts of serious misconduct: sexual assault on a learner, student or other employee; theft, bribery, fraud or an act of corruption regarding examinations or promotion reports; having a sexual relationship with a learner in place of employment; assault causing grievous bodily harm, or making a learner perform any of these acts (EEA, 1998). Should a learner become injured while under the school's protection, a teacher or school will face legal action in negligence, and will have to prove that a duty of care was not breached, and the injury was not a reasonably foreseeable consequence. It is rare for a teacher to face

criminal charges but happens if a teacher had intention to harm or acted reckless (Newnham, 2000).

The National Education Policy Act (NEPA) (1996) facilitate the democratic transformation of the national system of education serves the needs and interests of all the people of South Africa and upholds their fundamental rights. The South African Council for Educators' (SACEs') Code of Professional Ethics enhances NEPA stipulations in respect of school violence: what educators must do, what educators must refrain from, and the consequence of failure. Educators must: "refrain from improper physical contact with learners; refrain from: any form of sexual harassment (physical or otherwise) of learners; sexual relationship with learners; using inappropriate language or behaviour during interaction with learners". The Protection from Harassment Act 17 (2011) and the Sexual Offences and other related matters Act 6 (2012) do not specifically mention educators, but criminalises a wide range of violence. SACE has prescribed disciplinary procedures for alleged complaints on breach of the code.

Guilt of a breach results in a reprimand, or payment of a fine. Educator's name can be removed from the SACE register, for a specific period, indefinitely or permanently or an educator can face dismissal. Sometimes educators appeal dismissal at the Education Labour Relations Council (ELRC) based on facts. The high courts of South Africa and the Supreme Court of South Africa (as recently as April 2016) held that, if a child is under the care and control of the school, the educators of that school owe the child in their care a legal duty to prevent physical harm, when the children are at school (Louw, 2009). Parents share some of the responsibility with educators and school leaders and the status is legal and not just descriptive. Parents, in effect, delegate the powers of restraint and correction necessary for the education of their children, to schools. This in loco parentis, has been defined and reviewed by the courts, as both learners and educators came to harm in the school.

Negligence

The most important aspect of in loco parentis is ensuring there is no negligence in the execution of duties with learners. The negligence law ensures learners are protected at all times and that schools are aware of what is acceptable and unacceptable practice when caring for learners. According to Cotton (1995) educators in the United States have some basic knowledge of negligence, however, most are unaware of how the law operates regarding the liability of educators. The situation is similar in Australia and South Africa (Newnham, 2000, p. 46). Negligence is established when a duty of care existed, was breached through an act or omission, and the student suffered injury that was reasonably foreseeable (Newnham, 2000). For example an appellate court in New York (Garcia vs City of New York, 1996), held that schools, once they take over physical custody and control of children, effectively take the place of their parents and guardians. Negligence is the most likely reason a teacher will face legal action, however, in loco parentis is a weighty responsibility imposed on educators who must answer for any injury to the child while inside the school (Soliven, 2016).

School violence

South African law places a legal duty on schools to ensure that learners are not harmed but participate in a safe environment, however, violence's harmful impact is experienced in schools (SAHRC, 2006). There is no one cause of violence in schools; but rather, several intersecting factors that lead to school violence (Ncontsa & Shumba, 2013). It is important to remember that present-day school violence in South Africa relates to the country's legacy of political struggle and the existing economic disadvantage and social inequality that manifest itself in many different ways, and to differing degrees, depending on the context in which it arises (Power, n.d.). Despite the fact that schools reflect the norms and values of society, they can also be at fault for enabling school violence and failing to prevent it (Power, n.d.).

Measures are put in place by the Department of Education (DoE) and schools themselves (Fishbaugh, Berkeley & Schroth, 2003; Human Rights Commission, 2006) to address the problem. Both educators and students are justified in fearing for their own safety in schools (Fishbaugh, Berkeley & Schroth, 2003, p. 19). Educators are compelled to protect learners, however, the learning process is sometimes also hindered by unruly behaviours of learners, aggression and violence. The Human Rights Commission (2006, p. 1) indicated that the environment and climate necessary for effective teaching and learning is increasingly undermined by a culture of school-based violence and this is viewed as a matter of national concern. Rusere vs The Jesuit Fathers, is an example of a case about a learner who lost vision in one eye after playing a game using grass shoots as arrows, where it was acknowledged that the school failed to protect a learner. This was in breach of Section 28(1)(b) of the Constitution which states that every child has the right to appropriate childcare when removed from the family environment.

In Hawekwa Youth Camp vs Byrne, a case about a learner who fell from a bunk bed and fractured his skull at a school camp, the Minister of Basic Education acknowledged that educators owed learners a duty of care to ensure learner safety. The high courts of South Africa and the Supreme Court of South Africa have repeatedly held (in April 2016) that children under the care and control of the school, are owed a legal duty of preventing harm (Vally, Dolombisa & Porteus, 2002). In a general comment made by the Committee on the Rights of the Child, it was stated that children do not lose their human rights by virtue of passing through the school gates, implying that they are protected while also on their way home. Article 16 of African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (ACRWC) provides similar protection.

Reasons for violence

The South Africa Council for Educators (SACE, 2000) states that "school-based violence does not take place in a vacuum, but is rather influenced and shaped by contextual factors". Studies indicate that school violence often occurs more in lower-income communities in South Africa (Burton & Leoschut, 2012). Socio-economic factors such as poverty and unemployment can make people feel disempowered and frustrated by their circumstances, leading them to use violence, rape and other forceful acts as a means of asserting power and being in control. Increased exposure to violence at home or in communities can also influence the prevalence of violence at schools. Burton (2008) from the Centre for Justice and Crime Prevention, explains that violence does not only occur within the physical

border of the school but includes "acts that are, on a daily basis, associated with school, specifically travelling to and from school, or arriving at or waiting outside the school grounds". Violent acts are understood, as the deliberate "use of physical force, or power, threatened or actual" that "results in or has a high likelihood of resulting in injury, death, psychological harm, lack of development or deprivation" (SACE, 2000).

Patrick Burton and Lezanne Leoschut, from the Centre for Justice and Crime Prevention, explain that in Hawekwa Youth Camp vs Byrne, where a learner on a school camp fell from a bunk bed and fractured his skull, it was submitted that the Minister of Basic Education acknowledged that educators owed learners a duty of care, to take reasonable steps to ensure learners are safe from risks and dangers. In the 2002 draft Regulations to Prohibit Initiation Practices in Schools, the Minster stated that educators have a duty to care for and protect learners from violence because of their in loco parentis status.

Implications for educators

Violence in South African schools is not a new phenomenon and exists within the physical walls of the school environment (Burton & Leoschut, 2012). School violence is often influenced by violent incidents covered in the media and now are studied under school safety literature in the past ten years as a national concern. Education authorities, individual schools and educators who do not understand in loco parentis and its impact often find themselves being litigated against (Moswela, 2008). Ignorance of the law related to one's occupation cannot reduce of violence in schools, and results in educators accepting liability and agreeing to pay compensation an implication of acceptance of negligence and agreement to further employment repercussions in cases not even heard in court. Such educators experience negative feelings and may resign without being expelled, because they feel embarrassed and blame themselves for the event. Other staff members develop attitudes towards the person who reported the violence, increasing the likelihood for future violence perpetration (Burton & Leoschut, 2012).

Conclusion

In loco parentis fundamentally transforms the way educators should understand and practice their rights and responsibilities. It has raised awareness of educators' educational tasks that are compounded by the in loco parentis principle. The educators' duty of care is in most cases constitutionally compliant and progressive in giving recognition to learner and teacher rights, the government and educational institutions need to emphasise this as a joint responsibility between parents and educators. Both educators and parents should cooperate in ensuring that injuries to learners are minimised. The law and its impact on education should not only be part of university programs but should form part of ongoing professional development of educators. Because educators have legal responsibility for the safety of their students, they should behave as superior parents would in educating learners to behave responsibly.

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School Heads of Department's Role in Ensuring Teacher Professional Development in Mathematics: The South African Context

Abstract

The 1994 democratic government of South Africa brought greater responsibility and growth of school-based management in schools which impacted on the role and workload of school leaders (Rosenfeld, Ehrich & Cranston, 2009). Principals of public secondary schools delegated greater responsibility to Heads of Departments who had to ensure that Mathematics teachers are professionally developed. Although Mathematics serves as a foundation subject for many other disciplines (Roesken, 2011; Lerman, 2000), the new Mathematics curriculum and teaching standards do not match the qualified and competent Mathematics teachers, nor do they address problems in township schools, where high-quality Mathematics teaching is needed (Darling-Hammond, 2000). The term township refers to the underdeveloped urban living areas previously reserved, and still is, the residential areas for Blacks, Coloureds and Indians. Township and rural schools in South Africa have considerably fewer opportunities to excel in Mathematics, because teachers in these schools lack knowledge and skills in Mathematics and the schools are also under-resourced. The assumptions is that good teachers should be supported and developed professionally to do their best work with learners, and, to be retained. Teachers need relevant subject knowledge and professional development to handle and support the teaching-learning tasks expected of them in Mathematics teaching. Currently what is available as teacher professional development is inadequate, especially in the South African (SA) context (Borko, 2004). Despite the belief that school-based Teacher Professional Development may have a positive impact on the teaching of Mathematics, little is known about how HoDs support the professional development of Mathematics teachers.

Keywords: Teacher Professional Development, Heads of Department, teacher support, teacher competence, improved learner performance

Introduction

Heads of Departments' (HoDs') roles, have undergone significant changes – especially in terms of the professional development of teachers (Rosenfeld et al., 2009). The term HoD is used for Heads of Departments for the different learning areas, phases and departments in South Africa. In other countries the terms used are middle managers, department chair and administrator (United States of America), middle leader, subject leader and curriculum coordinator (United Kingdom). HoDs are former class teachers promoted to the role of supervising teachers to equip them with updated abilities, interests and knowledge in mathematics teaching. According to Harris and Jensz (2006), HoDs influence the quality of teaching and learning to educational scholars and policy-makers, worldwide for professional teacher development (PTD) and support opportunities to enhance knowledge and instructional practice (Timperley, 2008). HoDs' leadership role in teacher

development is central for organisational success and improvement (Earley & Weindling, 2004).

Teacher Professional Development

TPD process embraces all formal and informal activities that enhance professional career growth (Rogan & Grayson, 2004). TPD assumes that Mathematics teachers have sufficient subject matter knowledge and have successfully completed a minimum teaching qualification (Rogan & Grayson, 2004). The concept TPD is interpreted in different ways depending on various educational traditions and contexts. OECD (2009) defines TPD as "individual teacher activities for developing skills, knowledge, expertise and other characteristics". Further descriptions of TPD indicate that TPD can be achieved by means of formal structures, like courses, workshops, and informal and internal teacher collaboration that includes coaching and mentoring and external networking between different schools. Despite recognition of the importance of professional development, what is currently available as TPD for teachers, is inadequate, especially in the South African (SA) context (Borko, 2004). The competencies and abilities of Mathematics teachers do not meet learner expectations, though TPD is still seen as the best means to improve teaching practice (Supovitz & Turner, 2000).

Mogari, Kriek, Stols and Iheanachor (2009) maintain that mathematics requires a deeper understanding of content, and interpretation of mathematics concepts. This view is in line with that of the DoE (2000) which states that the standards set for teacher classroom performance and learner achievement, as well as on-going and targeted TPD, should ensure teachers meet the expected standards and adapt to curriculum changes. Teaching competency requires continuous support and guidance in particular mathematical learning areas (DoE, 2000) and should be aligned with the teacher's actual job. Instead of working with the assumption that teachers have a basic knowledge of teaching Mathematics, the TPD process should improve teachers' academic standing as well as competence and efficiency in discharging professional obligations inside and outside the classroom (Komba & Nkumbi, 2008). Mathematics TPD is linked to possession of professional knowledge.

Supporting teachers through professional development

TPD and support are essential in improving teacher competencies and lies at the heart of nearly every effort to improve teaching and learning. In-service education or staff development is conducted for different purposes and in various forms. Induction is part of TPD and aims at providing a support system for HoDs ensure the success of Mathematics teachers and improved learner performance (Joseph & Reigeluth, 2010). TPD programmes are delivered in the form of workshops, seminars, conferences and courses to improve teacher competency (DoE, 2005; Schwille & Dembélé, 2007; Villegas-Reimers, 2003). Villegas-Reimers (2003) identifies four categories of purpose for TPD: upgrading teachers; preparing teachers for new roles; curriculum-related improvements or refresher courses; and certification for on-the-job training. The competency of teachers depends on academic and pedagogic efficiency; ability, workload and commitment; teaching

and learning resources and methods; support from education managers; and supervisor effectiveness (Rogan, Novak, Mank & Martin, 2002). All these factors contribute to effective TPD.

Theoretical framework on teacher professional development

According to Katz (1975), the term "teacher professional development" has two general meanings: activities, such as workshops and graduate coursework for developing teachers' professional abilities, and, the natural process of growth which teachers undergo during their personal careers. Although Katz's study of educator development was on pre-school teachers, it applies to "other teachers" and "other teaching levels" (Katz, 1975, p. 53). Katz's study outlines the "training needs" of teachers at four different developmental levels in their careers (1975, p. 51). Individual teachers spend different amounts of time in each one. The first stage, *survival:* the teacher is new to the teaching field and needs hands on assistance to address classroom challenges and school realities. The second stage, *consolidation:* the teacher can survive daily crises, but is concerned about how to impart knowledge to learners according to changing learning styles. The third stage, *renewal:* the teacher's concerns are about what new materials, techniques and approaches are adequate and appropriate to yield best results. The fourth stage, *maturity:* the teacher shows confidence and competence and asks more philosophical questions. The theory is built on the belief that competence improved with experience, knowledge, and practice, therefore support and training through TPD should be matched with the developmental stage of the teacher. HoDs, therefore, have to provide TPD to Mathematics according to their developmental needs to ensure they attain competence (Katz, 1975, pp. 50-53). The theory further acknowledges that teaching is a complex business, and that educator preparation is rarely sufficient to provide all the knowledge and skills necessary for successful teaching.

Research methodology

This paper employed a qualitative case study approach using semi structured interviews and documents (O'Connor, 2002; Merriam, 2009; Anderson & Arsenault, 2000). Interviews and official documents, such as the Personnel Administrative Measurement (PAM) which outline the role of HoDs, were analysed to establish the role HoDs fulfil in TPD. Staff development programmes and evaluation reports were also analysed to identify the training needs and strategies for developing mathematics teachers. The data from a small sample of four Mathematics HoDs and four Mathematics teachers (from four township secondary schools in the Tshwane South district of the Gauteng Province) and from document reviews were triangulated. The eight participants, four Mathematics HoDs and four Mathematics teachers selected had undergone TPD in Mathematics in the last two years, and their teaching experience varied from one year, two to three years, three to five years, and over ten years. The selection criteria aimed at identifying the unique developmental needs for support in the different professional developmental stages. Teachers who had not been professionally developed were excluded from the sample because they lacked experience in TPD.

Knowledge constructed from multiple and differing experiences with participants from the four schools (Creswell, 2007) were compared to strengthen credibility and trustworthiness and to reveal findings (Merriam, 2009). Inductive data analysis and interpretation results were used to make recommendations for TPD and future research (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000). The data was coded, and condensed into codes and themes aligned to the research topic (Creswell, 2007; McMillan & Schumacher, 2001). The research questions, research problem and the theoretical framework guided the content analysis process (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001; Neuman & Cunningham, 2009).

Discussions

Intensive TPD programmes help teachers increase their knowledge and instructional practices by focusing on three characteristics, namely: subject matter knowledge for teaching, understanding student thinking and instructional practice (Garet et al., 2001). The assumption is that appropriate qualifications can provide teachers with mathematical content knowledge and classroom practice, knowledge and skills (Mogari et al., 2009), however, planning for TPD, should identify initial Mathematics teachers' needs (Rodrigues, 2004, p. 31). Mathematics teachers orientated about the school environment and provided with a comprehensive and sustained TPD process experience reduced anxiety, and reduced feelings of isolation. TPD programmes focusing on subject matter help teachers develop subject expertise and enhances learner engagement in problem solving activities that reflect strengths and weaknesses (Higher Education Quality Committee, 2007). An established TPD process helps Mathematics teachers adjust to the school culture and professional learning community. TPD programmes should reveal the establishment and maintenance of communication, norms, trust, and a collaborative interaction, for improved teaching practice. The TPD group work and teacher interaction among teachers from different backgrounds and different professional needs, revealed participant's appreciation of the mathematical community as well as participants work in different areas (Park City Mathematics Institute (PCMI), 2013).

Implications

According to Ingerson, Beavis, Bishop, Peck and Elsworth (2004), inadequate professional development by school administration is one of the most often reported causes of poor Mathematics performance in schools. Mathematics is a complex subject that needs competent and confident teachers so Mathematics teachers requires induction in their early days of teaching, to improve teaching skills and practices not learnt during their original educator training (Dowding, 1998). HoDs who are knowledgeable in terms of Mathematics and research focus on TPD of teachers under their care by planning, doing a needs analysis with the teachers, and identifying areas to be addressed during TPD (Rodrigues, 2004). Teachers need diverse TPD arising from the specific demands of their particular activities with learners (Darling-Hammond, Austin, Orcutt & Martin, 2006). The main reason for supporting staff is to ensure that TPD and training improves schools. If TPD is lacking, some teachers may not achieve their full professional potential or become committed to attending workshops. Commitment of teachers to their own

professional growth will make a significant difference in the kind of support they give their learners (Mestry & Bisschoff, 2009). Once the staff development process has taken place, Mathematics teachers should be able to adjust to the school culture and will become part of the professional learning community. Strong professional development communities are important contributors to instructional improvement and school reform.

Conclusion and recommendations

There is a need to affirm the leadership role of the HoDs in TPD to allow HoDs to acquire knowledge and skills that will enable them to perform their role effectively. The TPD workshops designed and implemented by the department of education seem to be the main source of training provided. It seems that teachers regard these workshops as inadequate and not fully addressing their needs. This is reflected in the poor results of Mathematics caused by incompetence and insufficient understanding of mathematical concepts. Teachers who attend workshops that do not address developmental needs, do so to comply with departmental circulars. Instructional designers, therefore, need to develop flexible TPD programmes for addressing factors such as teacher competence levels, awareness of learners' experience and background, subject matter, instructional communications and technology. HoDs and teachers, however, appreciate the positive experiences of teamwork and peer support which should be further explored as a strategy for improving teacher competency. Assessment of the different levels of TPD may help in monitoring the professional growth of the teachers and to motivate them as they become aware of their own professional progress. Recommendations are that a policy on TPD should be instituted in line with the roles of HoDs and teachers. The DoE and the principals should support HODs in planning, organising, supervising and implementing professional development to better equip Mathematics teachers with the required knowledge and skills. HoDs should be able to identify the different developmental stages of the teachers and recommend appropriate training needs.

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Inequalities within Nigeria's Education System: A Focus on Secondary Schools in Lagos, Ondo State and Ogun State

Abstract

This paper aims to examine the current inequalities within Nigeria's education system with a brief focus on Lagos, Ondo State and Ogun State. It will also examine how the current system is funded and will consider the percentage of GDP the government spends on education in Nigeria in comparison to other countries in Sub-Saharan Africa. In addition to this, the inequalities in terms of the payment of school fees within both the private and public sectors in Lagos will be examined. Furthermore, the quality of education in Nigeria in terms of resourcing, facilities, and equipment and class sizes will be evaluated. Comparisons will be made about the relationship between education and economic growth. This paper intends to examine the quality of the current education system and the extent to which adult illiteracy is increasing in Nigeria. The paper will highlight the current trends in Nigeria's education system and will finally put forward recommendations to improve Nigeria's education system.

Keywords: Nigeria's education system, economic growth, adult literacy, funding, quality

Introduction

The purpose of this paper is to examine the current inequalities within Nigeria's education system, with a brief focus on Lagos, Ondo State and Ogun State. The research was inspired by recent research conducted by UNESCO where their findings suggest that Nigeria currently has 10.5 million children out of school (UNESCO, 2016, p. 30). The paper also aims to examine the relationship between education and economic growth. The paper will identify the percentage of GDP that is invested into education in Nigeria in comparison to other countries in Sub-Saharan Africa. This paper will also consider the quality of education in Nigeria in terms of exploring issues such as resourcing, equipment and class-sizes. Current trends within Nigeria's education system will also be considered.

According to UNESCO (2016, p. 1) Nigeria currently holds the world record of having the highest number of its young people out of school, there are approximately 10.5 million children out of school. Nigeria tops the table of 12 other countries where it accounts for 47% of the global out-of-school population. Furthermore, UNESCO (Ibid.) points out that of all countries in the world, Nigeria is one of the four that has experienced the highest increase of children who are out of school since 1999.

Methodology

For the purpose of this paper a combination of both primary and secondary research was conducted. In total 10 secondary schools in Nigeria were visited. In Lagos State 6 schools were visited. In Ogun State 2 schools were visited and in

Ondo State 2 schools were visited by the researcher. The justification of the visits were to better understand how Nigeria's education system functioned and to establish whether inequality within the system actually existed. Discussions, observations and meetings were also held with a Non-governmental organisation.

Several focus groups were also held with the Head teachers and teachers from schools in Lagos, Ondo State and Ogun State. In Lagos State 6 focus groups were held with each individual school, 2 focus group meetings were held in both Ondo and Ogun state. Teacher training sessions were also conducted to identify existing problems. 7 Training sessions were delivered to teachers in Lagos State and 2 sessions of training in both Ondo and Ogun State.

Secondary research was conducted and reference has been made to research recently conducted by UNESCO *Education for all global monitoring report* (2016). Statistical data has also been derived from the World Bank (2014) working for a world free from poverty. The justification for employing these research methods were to gather first-hand information from stakeholders and schools as well as others who work very closely within educational institutions in Nigeria because they possess an in-depth knowledge of the system and are in a position to identify any inequalities that may currently exist.

Study limitations and literature review

There was limited access to research on a wider section of schools in Nigeria. For example the research focused on secondary schools in Lagos, Ogun State and Ondo State. The validity of the research might have been better if research were carried out across a wider spectrum of schools across various states in Nigeria. The research was conducted within the Southern region of the country. Research was not carried out in the North and Eastern regions of the country, however, the research relied on secondary research in these regions.

The literature review was gathered to consider previous research that currently exists in the area of inequalities within Nigeria's education system and to investigate other related topics pertaining to the content of the research paper.

A funding crisis

Despite recently over-taking South Africa as the continents biggest economy, Nigeria invests less in education than almost any other country in Africa, according to figures released by the World Bank (2014, p. 1). There are two key indicators of good practice in education expenditure, governments should spend 6% of their gross domestic product on education and about 20% of their budget on schooling. Nigeria spends just 1.5% respectively in those areas, based on UNESCO calculations (UNESCO, 2014, p. 71) there is scope for the government of Nigeria to do more than treble its education spending if the current state of affairs are to improve.

There are currently various government reforms and initiatives aimed at improving Nigeria's education system. These include the upgrade of some polytechnics and colleges of education to the status of degree-awarding institutions, the approval and accreditation of more private universities and the dissemination of better education-related data, including the recently published Nigerian Educational

Statistics, a publication assisted by USAID among others (Onyukwu, Clark & Ausukuya, 2011).

However, with regards to secondary school education there are predominately two sectors – the state sector and the private sector, the private sector is funded by a fee paying system. Many families from poor backgrounds are unable to pay for the cost of a private education and as a consequence of this many young people go without a secondary school education. As a result of this adult illiteracy is rising in Nigeria. According to UNESCO (2014, p. 71) Nigeria has the highest population of illiterate adults. Others countries are Ethiopia, Egypt, Democratic Republic of Congo, India, China, Pakistan, Bangladesh and Indonesia.

Spending on education

There is a huge lack of information on state and local expenditure for education which makes accurate estimates of total spending on education in Nigeria difficult to assess (Global Education First Initiative, 2013, p. 12). Overall available data points to a lack of education funding in the sector, in particular at state level. According to the report a large proportion, often about 90%, of total public expenditure on education is absorbed by salaries, whereas the benchmark is 67% (Ibid.).

The report further states that in 2006, total public spending on education in Nigeria was estimated at 5% of GDP and 12.5% of total public spending, well below the recommended Education for All threshold of 20% (World Bank, 2014, p. 8). Spending as a percentage of GDP was higher than in the average Sub-Saharan country but slightly lower than in South Africa and Kenya, which spent 5.3 and 7% respectively (Global Education First Initiative, 2013, p. 12).

According to the World Bank (2014, p. 1) Nigeria spends around 1% of her annual budget on education. UNESCO (2014, p. 1) suggests that to meet the target of ensuring that all children receive a basic education by 2015 that countries should aim towards investing at least 6% of their budget on education. According to recent figures presented by UNESCO Institute for Statistics (2016) Malawi, Mozambique, Ghana and South Africa each appear to have invested 6% or above in their education system. However, no data was available for the following countries: Nigeria, Zambia, Zimbabwe, Somalia, Senegal, Seychelles, Tanzania, Swaziland, South Sudan, Namibia, Liberia, Lesotho, Kenya, Cote D'Ivoire, Gabon, Eritrea, Equatorial Guinea, Congo, Cameroun, Central African Republic, Botswana and Angola (World Bank, 2014, p. 9) The only countries that show an element of consistency are South Africa and Rwanda.

Data from the World Bank shows how much each African country invested in education from 2010 to 2013. South Africa currently spends the highest percentage of GDP on Education, it was 6.0 in 2010, 6.2 in 2011 and 6.6 in 2012. However, Nigeria did not submit any data between 2010 and 2013. In general data from sub-Saharan countries was generally inconsistent (World Bank, 2014, p. 1).

Education in state secondary schools

A failure by many states in Nigeria to invest adequately in education has impacted greatly on the quality of education that many young people in Nigeria receive. According to UNESCO (2014, p. 1) teachers need good quality learning

materials to be effective but many secondary schools in Nigeria do not have access to textbooks or computers. This was evident while conducting research in several states in Nigeria, namely state schools in Ondo, Ogun and Lagos.

Poor infrastructure and dilapidated buildings was a common problem encountered. Other problems encountered were small and over-crowded classrooms and a lack of adequate sanitation facilities, for example in one school visited there was no running water and so children would have to fetch water from the nearest stream exposing them to waterborne diseases, this problem was later rectified by a non- governmental organisation who built a borehole.

In the majority of the schools visited essential facilities were lacking such as computing suites, libraries, science laboratories and basic text books. In the school visited in Ogun State, students were forced to use traditional toileting methods.

School fees: a challenge for all

Many young people are out of school because their parents are unable to pay the high school fees charged by many private schools in Nigeria. This is a crisis not only for the poor but for middle class Nigerians as well. It is not uncommon for school fees in Lagos to reach £13,000+ a year in some international schools. In the middle income schools fees range at around £9,000+ a year, this is a huge amount considering that most people in Nigeria earn less than $1 a day. In Nigeria the quality of education is often associated with how much a parent has to pay.

Teacher training

There have been attempts to improve the level of qualifications amongst teachers in Nigeria. The number of teachers with NCE (post-school teacher training certificate) has increased and the country seems to be moving towards achieving a goal of having the NCE as a minimum qualification for teaching in primary schools (Moja, 2000, p. 13). Basic facilities, teaching and learning resources are generally not available. Teacher-pupil ratios are high and generally performance in examinations are poor (Moja, 2000, p. 26).

Therefore, investing in training for teachers is key, in around a third of countries less than 75% of primary school teachers are trained according to national standards and in a third of developing countries the challenge of training existing teachers is worse than that of recruiting and training new teachers (UNESCO, 2014, p. 6). This argument has been supported by the Education Sector Support Program in Nigeria (ESSPIN), who also suggest that Nigeria's children are being denied the right to a quality education due to poor teacher training initiatives (ESSPIN, 2010, p. 13).

Therefore, millions of children in Nigeria are not learning the basic skills even though half of them have spent at least six years in school, poor learning has also been attributed to a lack of teacher training (Department for International Development, 2010, p. 53).

Economic growth

Failing to invest sufficiently in Nigeria's education system has impacted significantly on the quality of education received by children in most parts of the

country. It has also contributed to the high number of children who have been denied access to education in Nigeria. According to UNESCO (2014, p. 71), Nigeria has the highest amount of children out of school in the world, the figure currently stands at 10.5 million, this figure is set to rise.

There are many benefits from investing in Nigeria's education system, a significant factor would be a decrease in adult illiteracy. There is currently limited data on the exact figures of adult illiteracy in Nigeria according to UNESCO Institute for Statistics (2016, p. 1) but the figures are set to rise if intervention strategies are not put in place.

According to UNESCO (2014, p. 9) in order to tap into the potential for economic growth in many parts of the world's poorest countries (Nigeria being one of them), governments need to expand their tax base and devote a fifth of their budget to education. UNESCO suggest that "If governments in 67 low and middle income countries did this they would raise an additional $153 billion for education in 2015 that would increase the average share of GDP spent on education from 3% to 6%".

Gillard (in Coughlan, 2014, p. 1) suggests "that it is enlightened self-interest to invest in education". She suggests that anyone who is serious about wanting to promote economic growth and to tackle extremism should start by building classrooms and training teachers.

In addition to this, (Brock, 2012, p. 1) argues that "although Nigeria's economy is projected to continue growing, poverty is likely to get worse as the gap between the rich and poor in Africa's largest oil producer country continues to widen". "Poverty in Nigeria continues to rise with almost 100 million people living on less than $1 a day" (UNESCO, 2014, p. 8).

South Korea's emphasis on education has seen its young people leapfrogging the academic achievement of other industrialised countries, including the United Kingdom (NCEE, 2013). While some may think this is an unfair comparison to make with Nigeria, things have not always looked cosy for South Korea on the education plane, from being a country that has experienced much hardship it is reported that South Koreans have invested in education as a means towards economic progress and that the country has recognised the importance of developing skills in new technology (NCEE, 2013).

The OECD report states that higher spending does not necessarily convert to higher results and that some education systems are more efficient. South Korea spends about half the amount on school pupils as the United States, but its performance at maths is much higher. Finland, the top performing country at maths in 2003, spends much less than Italy, which was almost the worst-performing country (NCEE, 2013).

Further challenges

Boko-Haram, a militant group who oppose western education, and are behind the abduction of over 200 girls from Chibok, Borno State have added to the growing crisis. Archer (2014, p. 1) further points out "that many more children in particular young girls will continue to be denied an education if this conflict is not resolved".

Irina Bokova, formerly the Director General of UNESCO argues further that "Gender equality in education is a basic human right – it is also essential to achieving sustained development" (UNESCO, 2014, p. 3).

Corruption

Lamido Sanusi suggests that Nigeria must overcome a vested interest if changes are to be made in certain systems (BBC, 2014). Although, his speech is centred on issues relating to corruption within the banking sector, many of these issues may be applied to the lack of progress seen in Nigeria's education system.

A legal and moral responsibility

Sanusi suggests there is a legal and moral responsibility to ensure that children are not denied an education. The universal declaration of human rights points out in article 26 that everyone has a right to an education.

Furthermore, (Archer, 2014, p. 1) suggests that disadvantage does not have to be destiny, a child born into a disadvantaged family should not have to fall into a vicious cycle of poverty.

Trends in Nigeria's education system

There is a growing trend for Nigeria's middle classes to send their children away to school in the west**.** Current changes to foreign exchange rates means that many middle class Nigerian's are unable to educate their children abroad. Termly tuition fees range from £4,100 per term to £12,300 per annum for international students.

Conclusion and recommendations

The implications of the research for the future of Nigeria's education system means that failure to address the current funding crisis in secondary schools in Nigeria would mean that the current figure of 10.5 million young people out of school in Nigeria will certainly rise. This may lead to increases in adult illiteracy.

Education evolves and this places an emphasis on funding and training teachers. Failure to invest adequately in Nigeria's education system means that education will eventually become a preserve of the middle class and wealthy leading to a vicious circle of poverty for those who are unable to educate themselves or their children.

Clearly there needs to be ongoing conversations regarding why 10.5 million children in Nigeria are currently out of school. The introduction of an effective taxation system. Private schools could be asked to contribute and work in collaboration with public schools. There is also a need to increase funding for the most populated of areas in Nigeria.

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Omokaro Obire

State of Modern Education in Nigeria

Abstract

Education is an ever evolving system, taking cues from past success to help educate future generations. With so many different views and influences contributing to modern education standards, it can be easy to lose the sight of where education should go and what it should be achieving. Education is thought to benefit more than the individual, it contributes to society's structure, and with this in mind does this apply to modern day Nigeria? Education today in Nigeria is no longer the most important and influential institution in the society. The previous belief that educational system is sole built to produce a meritocracy where individual promise is acknowledged and developed through academic achievement is now a mirage. Our modern society is one that is globalised and is based on information and innovation, and they, in turn are highly knowledge intensive. Education's role in modern society is of great importance, the quality rather than the quantity should be the governments' focus. However, in many developing countries the policy makers are opportunists and barely literate. There has been much emphasis placed on the building of universities. The education of citizens is low on the list of priorities. The most basic educational aids such as books and facilities are generally of low quality and in many cases lacking. In the modern society stable jobs with predictable careers are disappearing. They are being replaced by "flexible labour". Nigeria needs more or less radical reforms, and there should be support for curriculum development and experiment. We all need to come together and figure out how we can change students' minds and make them want to learn. The problems of teaching, the recruitment to, and the attitudes toward education in Nigeria are deeply embedded in a wider social context and are not amenable to easy one-off solutions.

Keywords: modern education, Nigeria, inadequate funding of education, school education

Introduction

The term modern world simply means the circumstances and ideas of the present age; in times like these. Education on the other hand, is knowledge gain. Education gives us knowledge of the world around us and changes it into something better (Doumbia, 2013). It develops in us a perspective of looking at life. It helps us build opinions and have points of view on things in life. Information cannot be converted into knowledge without education. Education makes us capable of interpreting things, among other things. It is not just about lessons in textbooks. It is about the lessons of life (Doumbia, 2013).

Better education is very necessary for all to go ahead in the life and get success. It develops confidence and helps in building personality of a person.

School education means a lot in everyone's life as it facilitates our learning, knowledge and skill. It completely changes our mind and personality and helps us to attain the positive attitudes. We must give importance to education than other targets in life as it is the only source of real happiness in our life.

It's a fact that the new generation (Y Generation, Millennia's) has a more positive outlook on life because they are exposed to diversity not only in their communities but also through media. Their preference for immediate feedback and their interest in interactive information products makes for a mouthful of individuals to compact in our education system of tertiary routine (Meyiwa, 2013).

In such competitive world, it is must for all to have good education. The importance of higher education has become increased in getting good job and position. Proper education creates lots of ways to go ahead in the future. It makes us strong mentally, socially and intellectually by increasing our knowledge level, technical skills and good position in the job.

This creates a conflict of interest considering the fact that some of our young people being the first individuals in their homes to get that degree will soon realize that it is no longer an absolute guarantee of employment (Meyiwa, 2013). The information technology and developments of it thereafter have caused the information that one learns in tertiary to be of little relevance once in the working environment thus putting more pressure on government and education stakeholders to pay attention on skill development and information and knowledge production and generation.

Education is important for a happy and stable life and makes the world a safer and more peaceful place. Education majorly affects our understanding of the difference between right and wrong. An educated person is well aware of the consequences of wrong/illegal actions and he is less likely to get influenced and do something which is not legally/morally right. Presently, these are all lacking in Nigeria (Edogun, 2015).

Also, a number of uneducated people who live a poverty stricken life owning lack of opportunities often turn to illegal ways such as theft and robbery to solve their problems (Edogun, 2015). This is presently very rampant in Nigeria and has led to insecurity of lives and property.

This implies that if you are educated, you are well aware of your rights, the law and responsibilities towards the society. Hence, education is an important factor which contributes in social harmony and peace.

Education is vital for economic growth of the nation and for the economic prosperity of a nation. Australia, USA and Japan are few countries with very high literacy rate and high economic growth. For this reasons we can see that education is vital for the economic prosperity of a nation.

Inadequate funding of education

Under-funding of education has created basis for the authorities of institutions to impose various obnoxious charges and fees on the students. This has been making education the exclusive preserve of children of the few rich and the privileged. Moreover, the sorry state of our institutions, from the primary to tertiary, is not a concern to the governments since members of the capitalist ruling class can afford to send their wards to private schools or abroad to acquire good education (Obire, 2003).

The government does not prioritize the education of the Nigerian youth and does not see education as capable of yielding immediate financial returns like the oil industries and other key sectors of the economy. Therefore, the government invests

less in education and calls on parents to shoulder the huge burden of educating their wards. Education should be the responsibility of government to be paid for from the nation's wealth and not that of the parents who are not economically empowered (Obire, 2003).

Poor funding reflecting poor policy commitment on the part of governments, lack of career structure for research scientists, absent or inadequate reward for research efforts, poor or absent infra-structural facilities, lack of coordinating policies or a policy for the application of valid research findings all together gel to limit education and research output in developing countries. They strongly contribute to the problems of the larger society in Nigeria. Nigeria and other developing countries have largely ignored the call by national and international scientific bodies for increased financial commitments to education and research (Obire, 2003).

The challenges facing education in Nigeria can be met in different ways. Nigeria needs more or less radical reforms, and there should be support for curriculum development and experiment. The reforms should be directed at both the content and framing of the curriculum and at pedagogy, i.e., at teaching methods and the organisation of the learning processes (US Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 1997; 1998; Haber-Schaim et al., 1999; 2002). The challenges facing education in Nigeria are multi-faceted. In addition, those challenges, and the strategies for overcoming them, are perceived differently by the different groups with a legitimate interest in education. The perspectives of the government are often different from those of the educators and parents while the perspectives of industrial leaders are often different from those of environmental activists (Obire, 2003).

Finally, the problems of teaching in schools, the recruitment to, and the attitudes toward education in Nigeria are deeply embedded in a wider social context. These problems cannot be solved simply by reforming schools, teacher training institutions, universities or their curricula (Lederman, 2001; Hubisz, 2003). Precisely because they are so deeply embedded, they are not amenable to easy one-off solutions. The need is for reforms that are context specific, embrace multiple approaches and are implemented over long periods of time. Initiatives will also have to be monitored, and their development and outcomes subjected to on-going evaluation that is informed by evidence and careful analysis (Office of Statistics, 1986).

Conclusion and recommendations

School education means a lot in everyone's life as it facilitates our learning, knowledge and skill. It completely changes our mind and personality and helps us to attain the positive attitudes. Education is thought to benefit more than the individual, it contributes to society's structure. Unfortunately, school education today in Nigeria is no longer the most important and influential institution in the society. The previous belief that educational system is sole built to produce a meritocracy where individual promise is acknowledged and developed through academic achievement is now a mirage. It is therefore important for people to have the capacity to use knowledge and information in a whole range of economic activities. Education's role in modern society is of great importance, the quality rather than the quantity

should be the governments' focus. However, in many developing countries the policy makers are opportunists and barely literate. There has been much emphasis placed on the building of universities on the part of government. More programmes leading to intermediate and high level learning should be in line with the changing world therefore allowing individuals to branch into other spheres such as learner-ships for individuals who are unable to get into universities. The education of citizens is low on the list of priorities and education is grossly underfunded. In the modern society stable jobs with predictable careers are disappearing. Nigeria needs more or less radical reforms, and there should be support for curriculum development and experiment. We all need to come together and figure out how we can change students' minds and make them want to learn. The problems of teaching, the recruitment to, and the attitudes toward education in Nigeria are deeply embedded in a wider social context and are not amenable to easy one-off solutions. The need is for reforms that are context specific, embrace multiple approaches and are implemented over long periods of time.

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Part 6

Research Education & Research Practice

Jutta Ecarius

Wellbeing of Adolescents as a Requirement for Education in Late Modernity

Abstract

In late modernity, discourses of optimization and acceleration dominate. The current debate on wellbeing is directly linked to this, as a good wellbeing in late modernism with an open ethical horizon can be seen as a positive point of reference for education. A good wellbeing is a prerequisite for being convinced with self-efficacy that life is to a large extent self-directed. With regard to youth and education, the question arises as to how these processes and their consequences in youth life make themselves felt – above all because contemporary educational and social science interpretations do not paint an optimistic picture, but primarily consider risks and uncertainties as effects of the new structural conditions. The paper presents quantitative empirical findings of a secondary analysis with 5,520 respondents, 10 to 18 years old in the federal state of North Rhine-Westphalia (Germany) and shows connections (cluster analysis) of good and bad wellbeing of adolescents, age, gender, lifestyle as well as self-satisfaction, moods, control over life and decisions in an empirical way.

Keywords: wellbeing, self-efficacy, youth, education, late modern societies

Introduction

In late modernity signs are acceleration in technology, in social and private life forms (Rosa, 2013), with invocation of optimization gaining in importance. With regard to youth and education, the question arises as to how these processes and their consequences can be felt in youth life – above all because many of today's contemporary social science interpretations do not paint an optimistic picture of the freedoms that have been gained, but primarily consider risks and uncertainties as effects of the new structural conditions (Ehrenberg, 2008, p. 23). The theme of the subject's wellbeing is directly linked to this, since good wellbeing can be regarded as a positive reference point for individuals, which makes education possible. In view of these diagnosed social expectations, the empirical question arises as to how late modern requirements affect lives of adolescents and their wellbeing.

The first section illustrates the wellbeing of adolescents in the context of international and national studies. In the second section, the results of the quantitative secondary analysis (cluster analysis) of 5,520 respondents, 10-18-year-old youths (Germany) with very good and very poor wellbeing will be presented and

subsequently discussed in the context of late modern life and its challenges for education.

Wellbeing of children and adolescents

Wellbeing is currently a concept which, despite different definitions, seems to become an increasingly strong category for the representation and assessment of the constitution of the population and of individual groups or states of individuals (Sointu, 2005). Considering the wide range of applications, it quickly becomes clear how difficult it is to specify the precise content. In this way, various specialist traditions can be identified that operate with wellbeing, quality of life, happiness and life satisfaction (Statham & Chase, 2010).

The international study entitled *Child poverty in perspective: an overview of child-wellbeing in rich countries* (UNICEF, 2007), which compared the situation of children in 21 industrialized nations, can be seen as an initial impetus for the consideration of children's wellbeing. Taking into account the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child, the welfare of children was examined. In the third follow-up study (UNICEF, 2013), the concept was varied for the first time and the wellbeing of children was determined using data on five dimensions (material wellbeing, health/safety, education, behaviour and risks, housing and the environment). Subsequently, the subjective wellbeing of the 11-, 13- and 15-year-olds was interrogated. In the overall analysis of objective data, Germany ranked 6th out of 29 participating countries in 2013; only rank 22nd in life satisfaction (see German Committee for UNICEF e. V., 2013).

The World Vision Children's Studies (World Vision Deutschland, 2007; 2013) also deal with childhood wellbeing and since 2007 have been interviewing more than 2,500 children aged 6-11 nationwide. In the 2010 study, the previously differentiated areas were supplemented by the question of "self-efficacy and the question of good life in accordance with the capability approach" (Hurrelmann et al., 2013, p. 283), since self-efficacy is seen as a key factor for a good life (Ibid., p. 283f.; Andresen et al., 2010).

In summary, the following is clear: 1) Research findings at national and international level focus on children. There is no explicit focus on adolescents. 2) The respective operationalisations and survey methods vary widely. 3) There are also a few empirical approaches to the wellbeing of adolescents. If we now add the contemporary diagnoses already mentioned, the category of a subjective wellbeing of adolescents in particular offers the possibility of being able to answer questions about how they deal with the demands of late modernism.

Data basis for the analysis of adolescent wellbeing

A secondary analysis of a representative panoramic study of youth life conducted in 2012 was carried out on a total of 5,520 respondents, 10-18 years old in order to investigate youthful wellbeing in late modernity. In July/August 2012, adolescents of the 4th to 13th grade from 141 schools in North Rhine-Westphalia were surveyed (Maschke et al., 2013). Sampling largely corresponds to school statistics of this northern German state. The data were evaluated for the secondary

analysis according to common statistical methods (SPSS, cluster analysis). The results are primarily significant (Fischer test: significance threshold r=0.05).

In order to obtain a precise picture of the youth's wellbeing, the respondents' responses to four general statements on youthful self-awareness were clustered into the groups of very poor wellbeing, very good wellbeing and medium wellbeing. The four statements (I'm quite happy with myself; I mean that I have a number of good qualities; I find myself quite OK; sometimes I think I'm not good at all) the respondents agreed with 'right exactly' and 'right rather' or with 'right rather not' and 'right not' expressed their negative attitude.

Adolescents with very good wellbeing agree with the first three statements and deny the last one. Conversely, it is the case for adolescents with very poor wellbeing. In order to emphasize this strong contrast, the adolescents were assigned to a medium wellbeing with different response patterns.

The general distribution of these contrast groups is extremely positive: Almost two thirds of the adolescents belong to the group with very good wellbeing (n=3,462), significantly fewer report a medium wellbeing (n=1,912) and only very few belong to the group with very bad wellbeing (n=145). Adolescents with very good wellbeing are mainly male adolescents aged between 16 and 18 years who attend high school or vocational college. The group of adolescents with very poor wellbeing is made up of female primary or secondary school pupils aged 13 to 15 years. In the contrasting group with very good wellbeing, however, their proportion is significantly less than half, so that in this group the proportion of boys and young men (55.9%, n=5508; r=0.000) outweighs (very bad wellbeing: 65.5% girls).

Compared to the overall distribution of respondents by age (10-12 years: 34.4%; 13-15 years: 37.6%; 16-18 years: 28.0%), the figures are shifting, especially in the middle and the oldest age group. In the case of adolescents with very good wellbeing, the proportion of respondents aged 16-18 increases and the proportion of 13- to 15-year-olds decreases. In the contrasting group of those with very poor wellbeing, however, the share of the middle age group increases significantly (8.6 percentage points to 46.2%) and the share of 16- to 18-year-olds decreases (7.3 percentage points to 20.7%).

If one compares the distribution of contrasting groups in school forms, it is noticeable that the proportions of adolescents with very good wellbeing in the higher school branches and those with the oldest adolescents are constantly increasing. While 51.7% of secondary modern schools and 56.7% of secondary modern schools are attended by adolescents with a very good level of wellbeing, 68.5% of those with a high school education attend secondary school and 75.4% of those with a very high level of wellbeing attend secondary school.

In addition, relationships to wellbeing can be seen in the form of a family as well as in the work and school leaving certificate of the parents. Adolescents who live with their biological parents, who have higher educational attainment and higher incomes, tend to feel a little more comfortable. In the group of adolescents with very good wellbeing, 41.9% of parents have a higher school certificate. In the contrast group, this proportion is only about a third. In this respect, it becomes clear that the material situation in the family has an impact on wellbeing. However, it is also possible to provide for the wellbeing of their children in families with less economic capital.

The view of adolescents of themselves

When looking at youthful wellbeing, this is usually done by means of satisfaction scales with regard to general life or different areas of life. However, in order to examine the wellbeing of adolescents more profoundly, the subjective perspective of the adolescents, i.e. their self-image, must also be examined. In the statements 'Actually, I can be proud of some things about me' and 'I would like to stay the way I am now' and 'sometimes I wish I were different' (n=1108-1126; r=0,000) the differences between the two contrast groups clearly show up. Almost all 10 to 18-year-olds with very good wellbeing agree with these statements 'agrees exactly' or 'agrees rather' (pride: 97.3%; so remain: 85.7%). Even more than half (65.1%) of them agree with the statements with 'agrees exactly'. Staying as they are, 51.7% want to be accurate (rather: 34%). This unrestricted approval is not at all or very seldom in the case of adolescents with very poor wellbeing (pride: correct: 3.7%; as I am: 0.00%). At 77.8%, they also wish they were different.

This clear finding can be substantiated by statements aimed at the social embedding of adolescents. This can be exemplified by the answering behaviour to the statements 'Often I think that no one can like me' or 'Sometimes I have the impression that I am somehow superfluous'. While respondents with very good wellbeing rarely use the response categories 'right exactly' or 'right rather', about three quarters of those with very bad wellbeing report this. Not only with more than 50% of 'right on time' they say to be sometimes superfluous, but even with 59.3% of 'right on time' they sometimes seem to be unimportant.

Wellbeing expresses itself through the mood of the adolescents, who are often addressed with the statement 'I frequently change my mood'. Here, the two contrasting groups are opposed to each other: with very good wellbeing, they say that they only have 8.8% change in mood (accurately) while those with very bad wellbeing have 48.1%. Also, 51.9% of them have the impression that they are 'somehow superfluous' (very good wellbeing: 3.9%).

The influence of adolescents on decisions and their view of the future

As has been pointed out, it is characteristic of a late modern youth that adolescents should have the ability to make decisions for their own life and to choose the right one from a variety of options. This also implies dealing with the uncertainties and uncertainties of our time. In view of highly individualized CVs, decisions are no longer made for eternity. Skills of self-organization and self-reflexivity must be developed in adolescence in order to be able to meet the neo-liberal appeals of the entrepreneurial. Positive references to oneself – self-satisfaction and self-confidence, which are reported above all by adolescents with very good wellbeing – seem to be basic prerequisites for this. But do these adolescents also navigate confidently through their lives and make self-confident decisions?

Following on from the adolescents' self-satisfaction, their self-efficacy (expectation) is of interest (control over their own life, n=5407-5415; r=0,000) and how the two contrasting groups differ with regard to the skills required in late modernism. Self-efficacy and self-assurance can be seen particularly in the assessment of the statement 'I can direct my life to a large extent myself'. Both

contrast groups are extremely optimistic and self-determined. Thus, both adolescents with very bad as well as very good wellbeing agree with this statement predominantly with 'agrees exactly' and 'agrees rather' (very bad wellbeing: 70.4%; very good wellbeing: 92.7%). The main difference lies in the absolute agreement with the answer category 'right on the money' (very good wellbeing: 49.9% is right on the money; very bad wellbeing: 23.2% is right on the money).

The statement 'In life everything goes on a regulated course' also refers to the extent to which one's own biography is experienced as controllable, plannable and stringent or whether the attitude prevails that a clearly structured normal life cycle is no longer a matter of course. Although the adolescents with very good wellbeing (21% is correct, 37.3% is correct) are not quite as positive as in the previous statement, the expectations for a regular life in comparison to the contrasting group (very bad wellbeing: exactly 7.7% is correct, more or less 27.3%) are nevertheless higher. The majority of these 10 to 18-year-olds, who do not feel well, are increasingly reckoning with uncertainties or are already more likely to be confronted with critical situations and irregularities in their lifestyles.

The fact that the future perspectives of the two contrasting groups are different is also illustrated by a further assessment of the future of the adolescents surveyed, which is not aimed at the general view, but more strongly at self-determined life planning. Respondents should give their opinion as to whether they 'not yet' or 'pretty much' know what they want to do with themselves and their lives (life planning: n=1062; r=0,000). 61.1% of those with a very bad wellbeing don't really know 'what to do with me and my life' (very good wellbeing: 27.9%).

It is noticeable that adolescents with very good wellbeing are almost twice as likely to 'pretty much' know what they want to do with themselves and their lives. If adolescents feel comfortable in the here and now and if they are satisfied with themselves, they are more confident and confident about their future lives. In contrast, the majority of 10 to 18-year-olds with very poor wellbeing are less positive about their future lives.

Adolescent wellbeing and late modern subject requirements

Finally, the research findings are to be discussed against the background of current social science diagnoses. The following question is to be answered: To what extent adolescents with very good and very bad wellbeing meet the subject requirements of the late modern age or may not be able to meet them? Following on from the more recent subjectivization theories, global late modernity requires a young subject that learns to organize itself, to educate itself and to assess social skills and educational possibilities. Even though adolescents with very poor wellbeing are a minority, they still provide cause for concern. Their low self-efficacy expectations are particularly evident in the fact that they want to reduce the burden on their decisions, are dissatisfied with themselves and see their future less clearly. In contrast to the very large contrasting group of adolescents with very good wellbeing, these adolescents will find it more difficult to manage their own lives in the present and the future. On the other hand, those with very good wellbeing are prepared for the demands of late modernism in the sense of an entrepreneurial self. Their self-efficacy (expectations) is extremely positive. They are satisfied with themselves and are even proud of themselves. With this self-confidence they want to

make their own decisions for their own lives and take their future into their own hands.

In view of the fact that the majority of adolescents surveyed have a very good wellbeing, the sociological diagnoses, which address a greater (health) suffering in the face of uncertainties and options, can only be accepted by a small minority. This is not intended to contradict the diagnoses, but to raise the question of how exactly this very bad – but also very good – wellbeing comes about. This would have to be addressed in particular against the background of the design of transitions into the working world or partnerships, since in these biographical phases the growing subjects are likely to become more vulnerable.

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Analyzing Discursive Interactions of South African Academics in an Online Forum through Young's Communicative Model

Abstract

This paper explores academics' interaction in an online forum, situated on the intranet of a South African university, where perceptions of racism within a larger discourse about transformation are shared and debated. The communicative model of democratic discourse directs the interpretation of an emancipatory discursive interaction, following a deductive textual analysis of the forum and interview texts from selected participants. The communicative model discourages normative judgements of others and focuses on an understanding of difference. The findings indicate that participants who engage in a deliberative demonstration of power, do not appreciate diverse social-historical contexts. Discursive interactions which indicate an understanding of participants' contexts are marked by a mitigating and sympathetic approach which allows for doubt in the judgements of participants. These mitigating interactions do however not persuade all participants to critically reflect on limiting opinions, attitudes and ways of interaction. An online curator who invites participants from diverse contexts might make the discourse more nuanced, create the opportunity to understand multiple realities and facilitate a transformative discussion.

Keywords: communication, discursive democracy, emancipation, narratives, online discourse, online forum, social-historical context, transformation

Introduction

This paper forms part of a larger study which investigated the democratizing potential of an online forum in a university through discursive interactions. As academic institutions in South Africa are in a process of transformation, the voices which are representing contexts different from the established context of the university are crucial for an understanding of diversity.

The New University's (NU, pseudonym) online forum on which this paper focuses was established in 2001 by management and named "Have your say" to provide a space for academics to voice their concerns about the transformation of the institution. Issues such as racism, the medium of instruction, academic standards and the role of religion were regular points of discussion. This paper focuses on a specific discussion on the forum which had a lifetime of 12 days. In an attempt to understand whether participants experienced their involvement in the forum as empowering, an analysis was done of their interaction. They were also invited to refer in their interviews to previous discussions with opposing participants during the past two years. Bettina starts the discussion by providing quotations from posters made by students from black consciousness movements which call for a protest march. She also provides her opinion of the students' posters and their planned

march. Responses of Stephen, Amanda and Pieter to Bettina form part of the analysis.

The critical question is whether the two main participants (Bettina and Stephen) who were in a dialectic relationship did contribute to the forum in a way which was transformative of themselves and others. Another question which seeks exploration is what should change before the forum can enable people to transform themselves.

Inclusivity in the discursive models of democracy

Communicative engagement

The deliberative (Habermas, 1990a, 1990b) and communicative (Young, 1990, 1996, 2000, 2001) paradigms of democratic discourse do not share prerequisites for the attainment of emancipation through moral discourse. Although these discursive models have the attainment of respect as a shared ideal, they prescribe contrasting objectives and forms of discursive engagement between people who are in disagreement. The Habermas (1990a, 1990b) model holds that the objective of discourse is for parties in disagreement to reach consensus through a process of rational engagement, which entails the respectful and reciprocal provision of arguments and evidence, referred to as Ideal Speech. Habermas (1990a, 1990b) proposes that moral dialogue requires people to adopt a standpoint of impartiality towards all particular experiences and to assent to only those principles and judgements that are consistent with objective impartial standpoints.

The communicative model differs from the rational model both in the prerequisites concerning the form of discourse and the role which particular experiences play. Young's communicative model expands the rational engagement model as the basis of reasoning towards an inclusive communicative engagement. This implies an appreciation of all forms of communication, which represents diverse interpretations of a multi-layered society. The objective of discourse in the communicative model is not for people to agree, but rather to reach an understanding of their opponents' views, which are based on their experiences of their specific situations. Young proposes that moral and political norms are best tested by actual dialogue (not ideal speech) in which multiple needs, interests, and perspectives are represented. She wishes for the development of moral respect through the understanding of differences. Young holds that moral judgement "must begin from historically specific circumstances… reflecting from within a particular social context, good normative theorizing cannot avoid social and political description and explanation" (1990, p. 5).

Understanding differences

The communicative model of democratic discourse focuses on the understanding of others through narratives or life stories. Although these narratives are interpretations of specific subjective experiences, the communicative model would allow as many narratives as it can, to be representative of the diversity of a multi-layered society. Life stories' value lies in the fact that they speak across the differences people have and can inform and influence people to such an extent, that they can place themselves in the shoes of others, and attain "enlarged thought", a cognitive and emotional position which Benhabib (1992) and Thorseth (2008) also

support. By placing oneself in the shoes of others, one can revise own beliefs and attitudes in this process of critical reflection (Mezirow, 2011) as the opponent is humanised.

Understanding others also requires the "attendance to the difference between privileged and oppressed groups which forms part of the political and social landscape" (Young, 2000). The acknowledgement that South Africa's colonial past has led to the formation of oppressed and privileged groups would be insightful.

The inclusive approach in the humane and caring attendance to and the appreciation of difference in a multilayered society, which Young (1996) holds as emancipatory to the self and others, form the theoretical point of departure in the analysis of the discursive interaction on the forum.

Data collection, creation and analysis

The study relied on two data sources, the text which Bettina, Stephen, Pieter and Amanda (pseudonyms) created in the selected forum discussion and the transcribed interviews. The duration of the face to face interviews with Bettina, Stephen and Pieter was an hour. Amanda could not participate in an interview.

The specific forum text was shared with Bettina, Stephen and Pieter prior to the interview to provide them with the opportunity to reflect in advance about the focus of the discussion. During the interview, the participants were asked whether they:
   1) experienced any shift in their views and attitudes about those with whom and from whom they differed;
   2) found theirs and others' participation meaningful and empowering.

Young's model of communicative discourse informed the deductive analysis of the forum and interview texts. The communicative model was used to indicate oppressive and emancipatory forms of participation. The analysis of the interviews transcripts was informed by the prior analysis of the forum text, where the main categories were inductively formed, namely the motivation of participants, their strategies of interaction and the consequence of their participation. Within the categories, divisions were made, such as a reactionary or mediating motivation for forum participation, a strategy of interaction which is contributing to or weakening the forum discourse, the consequence of forum interaction being either to end the participation or to continue discussions.

Findings

Bettina opens the discussion and titles it "Racism, the other side" by quoting the content of posters and pamphlets of PASMA (Pan Africanist Student Movement of Azania) and ANCYL (African National Congress Youth League). These posters call for a protest on the campus of the NU against sentiments of white supremacy in the classes and curriculum. The protests are partially spurred by the alleged racist comments of a white lecturer.

Emphasizing the difference between the self and the others

Bettina focuses on herself as a white victim of Black Consciousness in referring to her interpretation of the message that "everything white is bad, everything black is good". She counters the perception of being bad by describing her pride in the

essence of her being: a white Westerner, a descendent of those who civilised Africa: "I am white and my ancestors arrived here 300 years ago and brought civilization".

In a reaction to the students' posters in which they express their pride in being black ("Black is beautiful"), Bettina describes herself as their opposite, as a proud white Western lecturer upholding academic standards which she perceives the Africans are not capable of doing. In her text, the contrast between herself and the black students is indicated by the words "I" and "them", "those people". She furthers this personal opposition by referring to the achievements of Western science and civilisation in contrast to "African backwardness". Bettina comments on their language mistakes by making interjections and punctuations in the quoted text as proof of the low academic standards of the students: "He will never make us feel offended by our past and our blackness because black is beautifull he can utter such nonsense black will still be beautifull (**language??????**)".

Bettina distances herself from the black students, thereby not showing interest or having sympathy for their specific reasons for distress, fear and insecurity. Her text is reactionary to the students' sentiments. If the black students take pride in being black, she takes pride in being white. If they disregard western knowledge, she takes pride in her knowledge and inheritance. The text does not go beyond being reactionary and does not seek for the reasons of the sentiments expressed by the black students. Bettina does not show interest in enlarging her thinking to entertain the position of the black students.

It appears that Bettina fails to see that her feelings of disempowerment and indignance are echoed in the sentiments expressed in the students' posters. She rather perceives the emotions and actions of the students as extreme, anarchist, hateful, and expressed with "the minimal provocation". In this sense she sees their reasons for the protest as irrational. By vilifying their actions, Bettina distances herself from the students and does not allow herself to entertain or attempt to understand their reasons for dismay. An interest in and appreciation for the students' sentiments and particular socio-political situation are traits which are mediated in the communicative model of Young (1990). The absence of these traits leads to a moralistic distancing, as seen in the attitude Bettina assumes towards the students.

I tried to understand how Bettina constructs her reality during our interview. During student protests in her previous position as a lecturer at another institution she also could not understand the students' motivation for the repetitive vandalisation of buildings (Bettina's response). Her perception of this cycle of unreasonable violence instilled fear, desperation and also aggression.

The sentiments of Bettina are better understood when one sees it in the larger context of South Africa's colonial and apartheid past. Bettina's position to the students speaks of an ideological cocoon in which colonial whiteness is often glorified and seen as superior. Being blinded by these sentiments, she does not acknowledge the oppression of black people and the privilege which apartheid and colonialism brought to white people.

Moral judgement

In their forum texts Stephen and Amanda contribute the same sentiments to Bettina which she contributes to the protesting students. Amanda describes her views as hateful and poisonous. Stephen sees her participation as racist and

uninformed. He states his opposing normative position to Bettina by portraying a definite distance between his life view and consequent way of acting and the opinions and actions of Bettina. He assumes a moralistic tone in his regard of her as "ungrateful and uncaring" and also portrays the same rationalistic attitude which Bettina assumes with the students, commenting on her inability to formulate proper academic arguments. Stephen challenges her to provide a piece of academic writing which follows the rules of discourse:

> *Stephen: Listing endless examples is not good enough, use them, make an argument, build something convincing by clearly explaining how it is that the evidence that you are presenting supports the assertion that you are trying to make. That is called reasoning, and it is the most important part of academic writing.*

Stephen claims that Bettina is racist and her narratives are corroborating her position: "Bettina is racism dressed as reason and concealed behind some quotes".

Enlarged thought

Pieter's interaction with Bettina is more constructive than the others. His expression of care towards Bettina is a strategy of interaction which is mediated in Young's communicative model. He furthers his mediating position by expressing doubt in Stephen's normativist categorisation that Bettina is a racist. He offers a mitigating interaction with Bettina which has the potential to lead her to moments of insight in her attitude towards the black students. He tries to be more understanding by not taking a confronting or opposing stance, but by being more probing and more inquiring. Pieter acts sympathetically by affirming his belief in Bettina's good intentions and by praising her for speaking out. Using words which have a positive emotional appeal is a way in the communicative model (Young, 2000) to create and attain respect and trust:

> *Pieter: I believe in your good intentions and your commentary is also much more worth than the silent majority. Therefore I think, that people think you are a big racist, which might not really be true, as I said, I believe in your integrity. But your way of writing creates the wrong impression with people, perhaps a milder tone might perhaps help. Just a diplomatic advice.*

> *Bettina: Thank you Pieter. I do not have the gift of the gag and it might be the reason for the way I am writing.*

This mitigating participation brings another character to a thread which has been dictated by Stephen and Bettina who have disdain for each other's position and are focused on winning the argument. The remark of Pieter, "I believe in your good intentions" creates trust in each other and the intent not to vilify her creates a respectful relationship between Bettina and Pieter. Pieter does also not attribute immoral characteristics to Bettina, as is the case with Stephen who describes her as: "ungrateful and uncaring". He doubts the consensus her adversaries reach that she is a racist and does not presume that he knows her. Pieter adopts a stance of "moral humility" (Young, 1997) when he acknowledges that even if he does not know Bettina, he states his belief in her integrity instead of judging her as moral inferior.

The communicative model (Young, 2000, 2001, 2003) recognises feelings of doubt versus the forms of sure knowledge of the rational model. Pieter refrains from putting Bettina in the racist category, presuming thereby that he knows her, which is

a characteristic of those who operate in the rational model. It becomes clear that those strategies of discursive interaction which are more sympathetic and which allow for doubt in the dominating consensus of the group (e.g. that Bettina is a racist), have more potential to bring participants to some form of normative self-reflection than the rationalistic and moralistic forms of the rational model of discourse.

The protagonists (Stephen and Bettina) reach an intertextual fatigue in the forum. The stronger their motivation is in arguing an opinion which contradicts the other, the more frustrated they become. Their interactions reach the stage where they are degrading each other's person. The limited dynamics of the forum is evident in the fact that the forum itself cannot enable its participants to reach emancipation. It is therefore necessary that the dynamics of the forum should be changed to ensure that it offers a space where participants can reflect critically and reach a form of emancipation.

Bettina does not reach insight in her own limiting position as her contribution remains reactionary. In the interview, Stephen realised that he practised "hermeneutic bullying" and that he should in hindsight not have been so "hard core". Bettina's contributions also echo the rational model as she presumes to know others by placing them in categories. Bettina does not realize that she has a negative and judgmental attitude towards the students she referred to. Bettina's inability to do self-reflection suggests that she is still captured in the apartheid ideology and is not able to really see others.

Conclusion and recommendations

This paper explains how the discursive structures in the forum allow participants to develop an understanding of the other. The inclusivity of the forum is determined by the type of discursive strategy which is dominant. It is evident that the communicative model brings more emancipation to the participants, but that the rational model, which was more prevalent, did estrange the participants and made the forum exclusive.

The following recommendations can enable participants to be more inclusive and offer the opportunity for critical self-reflection and development as professional educators:

- Reflections post-forum brought insight in limited behaviour and the resolution not to interact with others in ways which are flaming conflict and alienate those with opposing viewpoints. A moderator can provide a space for reflection and invite participants to rethink their positions or opinions.

- Although introspection or self-reflection brought some insight, an exposure to other narratives would make the forum more inclusive. As Young (2000, p. 129) allows for narratives which "supplement argument by providing ways of speaking across differences in the absence of shared understandings" those narratives which reveal one-sided views, such as Bettina's, do create a problem. A moderator or curator of the forum should invite a multiplicity of views to the forum.

- Living in a post-apartheid society asks for an affective education, as our social-historical context of racial division brought feelings of hatred and fear.

The affective education includes more than emotions and has to do with how those we perceive as different are affecting us and how we affect those we perceive as different. A knowledge of these affections can be empowering for both. The affective is not only a reaction, but has to search for constructive relationships. A moderator who is aware of the empowerment in the expression of affect, can help participants to identify and reconstruct their own positions, beliefs and their ability to change themselves. In contrast to the essentialist reductive views of participants by themselves as "a white lecturer", or as a descendent of Europeans "who brought civilisation", and the rational categorisation of someone being "a racist", the notion that people are able to change rather than being stagnant defines the forum as a potentially transformative space.

In order to transform South African universities to places where diversity is understood and appreciated, an online forum can provide a safe and enabling space where academics can initiate a process to change corrosive beliefs of and attitudes towards others. The online environment can ideally create this opportunity with an emancipatory form of curatorship.

Acknowledgement

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