



RECENT IDEAS AND DEVELOPMENTS IN EDUCATION

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The Reception of Erasmus in Poland in the 16th and 17th Century. Absorption, Contacts and Inspirations

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Abstract

Gerhard Gerhards vel Desiderius Erasmus was known as Erasmus of Rotterdam (1467-1536) and was the renewer of Italian humanistic thought. He became a central authority of the Northern and Western European Renaissance. The humanism of Erasmus was open-minded and egalitarian. Being anxious about the state of the Church in the sixteenth century, he professed the need of its reform, however in the Roman-Catholic (spirit). As a Coryphaeus of the irenicism, Erasmus became a spiritual and intellectual guide of the international rank of humanists including the Polish ones. Spreading (the values of the ancient Greek culture, he was more of a Hellenist than a Latinist in his philosophical inspirations. He was influenced by several intellectuals, contemporary and earlier to him, including Jan Kochanowski (a Polish poet). He contributed to the development of the biblical studies of Church Fathers thanks to the critical edition of the Greek text of New Testament. Both the life and activity of Erasmus as well as the reception of his ideology were full of. As an advocate of peace, reconciliation and goodness, he was the witness of political and religious wars which divided European nations.

Keywords: Reception Erasmus, Poland, absorptions, contacts, inspirations

Introduction: Erasmus and the development of the Polish humanism

As a passionate defender of Catholicism and a critic of scholasticism and the catholic customs, he became an advocate of the catholic renovation of the Church and lastly, the initiator of the reformist movement. As a social educator and a promoter of humanistic culture, he was a spectator of the enlarged obscurantism and intellectual poverty. And, at last, as the protagonist of the (peaceful reconciliation of disputes and social dialogue, Erasmus became an object of assaults both of religious reformists and Catholic and scholastic fundamentalists. Erasmus, who wanted to be the third healing force of European humanism in the meaning of religious unity, became at the end of his life isolated, bitter and disappointed with the world and people.

In Poland Erasmus was "discovered" relatively late, because the Polish intellectual elite, integrated at the court of the king Sigismundus I, was influenced by the Italian Renaissance (inspired by Queen Bona Sforza of Italian origin). They directed their attention towards Italy, being indifferent to other European sources of humanism (Backvis 1975, 561-562). The interest in the works of Erasmus as the renovator of the Italian sources of humanism was rather indirect. This interest in the representatives of other than Italian sources of humanism caused a certain admiration for him in Poland, which soon (became a special kind of snobbery. The affirmation of Erasman works started the Polish Erasmanism, which integrated both different milieus and individuals. **Ludwig Jodok** Dietz (ok. 1485-1549) – Alsatian, bourgeois, to whom Erasmus dedicated one of the Works of ST, Basil, Krzysztof Szydłowiecki (Sydlauskis 1467-1532 s), to whom Erasmus directed his *Lingua*, was a Great Chancellor and Piotr Tomicki (Tomicius 1464 -1535) the receiver of Erasman edition of Seneca was a vice Chancellor and the Bishop of Cracow. Jan Łaski (Joannes Lasco 1499 – 1560), the nephew of Jan Laski (Lascius 1456 – 1531) the Catholic Archbishop, studied under the personal tutorship of Erasmus, became the Calvinist and the creator of the first Calvinist parish in Frisland. He was later a reformer of the Church of England. Erasm was highly valued by Andrzej Krzycki (Cricius 1482–1537) and Jan Dantyszek (Dantiscius or Johann (es) von Hoefen Flachsbindler (1485 -1548). Tomicius and Cricius, with the support of the king Sigismundus, I made an effort to bring Erasmus in Cracow Academy, in order to reform it in the spirit of humanism. Apart from the social position, Polish EErasmianists were distinguished through their religious attitudes. Stanisław Hozjusz (Stanislaus Hisius 1504-1579), for example, a bourgeois, was a leader of Polish reformation; Stanisław Lismanin, a monk and the confessor of the queen Bona, was later the calvinist activist in Małopolska; Jan Drohojowski was later a bishop of Wrocław, Jakub Uchański (the bishop as well) became the primate bishop, was (an

advocate of the National Church, Stanisław Orzechowski was the Catholic fundamentalist, Jakub Przyłuski was a vicar in Mościska, was later the founder of the calvinist press and at last – Bernard Wojewódka, who was an interpreter of Psalms and a chief editor of the calvinist editorial office in Brześć.

The life and work of Erasmus inspired Polish reformers and artists, who spread his thought in Poland for decades, a long after his death.

Absorption: The Invasion of Erasmian book, sources and early interpretations

The central moment in the reception of Erasmian ideology in Poland was the invasion of the Erasmian book, which crossed the borders of our country around 1515, when Erasmus reached the peak in his writing activity. This broad invasion of Erasmian book in Poland had formed the character of Polish Erasmianism in its first phase, its egalitarianism both in connection to its receivers and its sources of reception, among which there were great cultural centres as well as provincial ones (e. g. Nysa – 1512 and Przemyśl – before 1518). Simultaneously these outposts of Erasmian thought, two main centres appeared in Poland: the central – in Cracow and a western one – in Wrocław. During the first phase of the reception of Erasmus in Poland two parallel streams emerged: socially elitist (subjective and individual, based on the epistolary exchange) and impersonal egalitarian (the reading movement) (Barycz 1971, 10).

The Cracow centre

The Erasmian thought reached Cracow or more precisely Cracow Academy centre indirectly, because the Cracow Academy had never played any role in the life of Erasmus and he himself found the information about it in the letter of Andrzej Krzycki (Andreas Cricius) from 20th December 1525. However, the Erasmian book penetrated the Cracow milieu much earlier. It is very difficult to indicate the date, when Erasmian book appeared in Cracow, because of a lot of misunderstandings stirred up around this fact¹. There were above all works of a moral and religious character or even theological. In the library of Marcin Biem from Olkusz (1470-1540) one could find three biblical paraphrases² and one volume of the Cracow edition of the polemic between Erasmus and Luther from 1526³. The similar character had Erasmian works collected in the library of Collegium Maius⁴ Academy of Cracow. Among theologians who had vivid interest in Erasmian works there were Jan Leopolda Starszy (Senior 1482-1535) and Jakub from Kleparz. Among humanists who read Erasmian works there were Łukasz Aquilinus, the preacher of King Sigismundus Augustus, Antoni from Napachañ and Sebastian Janeczka from Kleparz (Barycz 1971, 13). Theological Erasmian book could be found in private collections as well. For example, in the library of the humanist and professor of the medicine – Piotr Wedeliejusz from Oborniki, who translated works of Hipokrates⁵ (Miaskowski 1908, 28)

The second stream of Erasmian creation, the stream of the new literary culture was implanted at Cracow Academy in 1518 by Leonard Cox, who arrived in Cracow from England. In 1522, he initiated lectures devoted to the explanations of the Erasmian work *De duplici copia verborum ac rerum* with an eye to disseminating the rules of the new Latinism. This work, which consists of the so called “the vault of words” (*copia verborum*) and of “Ideas” (*copia rerum*) became Cox’s favorite instrument of promoting the new Latinism, especially after his settlement in Cracow and the launch of his lectures at the Academy. The enthusiasm which he inspired among Cracow students for Erasmian works lead to the creation of Erasmian association there (Barycz 1971, 14). The members of the circle disseminated Erasmian works of a manual-scholar, philological-grammatical and political-propagandist character. One could find there an international mixture associating Jan Sylwester, who later edited the New Testament based on the translation of Erasmus into Hungarian language (1541) ; Jan Hesse, the young humanist from Wrocław, who was later a reformer, and Jan Henckel, the Cracow scholar, who later lectured in Vienna (Barycz 1971, 15). The admiration for the scholar from Basel was expressed in the best way in the letter from Cox to Erasmus from (Cracow, 28th March 1527:

¹ The opinion that the first Erasmian book appeared in 1517 in the library of Paweł from Krosno was formed on the basis of the incorrect reading of its title (Barycz 1971, 12)

² *In Ioannem, Marcum et Lucam*

³ *Hyperaspistes diatribae*

⁴ Loan register of the Collegium Maius library, the manuscript of Jagiellonian Library no 242.

⁵ Among the collected works of Erasmus there are: *Exomologesis sive modus confitendi* (Wydanie bazylejskie, 1524), *Paraphrasis in psalmum tertium, Precatio Dominica, De libero arbitrio, De Dei misericordia*. (K. Miaskowski, „Piotr Wedeliejusz z Obornik” „Rocznik Poznańskiego Towarzystwa Przyjaciół Nauk”, t. XXXIV, Poznań 1908, s. 28.

Dear Erasmus, You so often spend mornings with us, with You we eat lunches, with You we go ahead for a stroll, with You we sit at dinner, with You we spend nights, the most pleasantly. Although, so long distance divides us, You are always between us, and we have never been apart. ¹ (Erasm z Rotterdamu 1965, 60)

The highest degree of expression of that climate one can find in the poem of Stanisław Hozjusz. Who described the friendship between Erasmus and Jan Łaski (Joannes a Lasco), who inspired the activity of the association with Erasmus and who stayed at Erasmus's house in Basel (*Stati Papini... Sylvae cum scholii a Leonardo Coxo Anglo adiectis*, Kraków 1527) (Barycz 1971, 17). The disintegration of the Cracow association after 1527 caused the distraction of its members, but simultaneously the dissemination of Erasmus though e. g. in Silesia, Czech and Hungary.

It is noteworthy that simultaneously to the reception of Erasmian works the lecturing movement developed in the Cracow centre focusing on the interpretation of works of the humanist from Basel. However, this activity much behind the reception of his books in Poland. The first lecturing contact with Erasmian ideas at the Cracow Academy was brought about through a speech by Cox in 1522. The systematic lectures devoted to Erasmus were delivered at Cracow Academy between 1530-1545. There were ten lectures. Three of them dealt with the interpretation of *De duplici copia verborum*, and another seven (- *Modus epistolandi*, with the handbook devoted to letter writing). The team of lecturers, who delivered these lectures, inspired the interest among Stanisław Cieśla (Carpentarius), Bartłomiej from Stardom (de Ponte Regio), Andrzej Glaber from Kobylin, Jerzy (George) from Tyczyn, (Jakub from Gostyń and Jakub Belza (Barycz 1971, 20-23).

The second great Erasmian ferment swept across the Cracow Academy in mid 1540s. Since 1545 Szymon Marycjusz (Maricius) from Płzen² and Wojciech Nowopolczyk³ had delivered lectures on the epistolary art.

This second wave of the interest in Erasmus in Cracow was less enthusiastic but more intellectual. It directed the attention towards his works, his literary and scientific culture, and to the human life aspirations according to his indications. Barycz 1971, 24). Among Polish Erasmianists in Cracow one has to list Stanisław Rożanek (Rosarius) from Kleparz, who collected fifteen positions of Erasmian works in his library⁴, as *Moriae encomium*, *Enchiridion militis Christiani*, *Colloquia familiaria* and – very rare in Poland - *Epithome in Laurentium Vallam* (Barycz 1971, 438). The next representative of that second wave, there was Stanisław Grzepski, the classical philologist of the Cracow Academy, who gathered in his library six editions of Erasmian works including the *Adagia*⁵. To sum up the Polish Erasmianism in the Cracow centre one could mention that between 1520 and 1550 it was the important source of the European thought. That is why, all intellectual ferments present there reflected the whole of Central Europe, especially Hungary, the Czech Kingdom and Silesia.

The Silesian Centre

The next important Centre, which was inspired by Erasmian echoes was the city of Nysa in Silesia as well as the parish school there. Among representatives of this centre one has to mention Walenty Krautwald (1499-1545)⁶ and later – Kasper Waydelich, who collected in his library important works of Erasmus, e. g. the paraphrase of st. Paul's letters *Institutio*

¹ Leonar Cox to Erasmus, The correspondence of Erasmus with Poles, trans. And ed. M. Cytowska, warszawa: PIW, 1965, pos. XIV, p. 60: Allen, P.S., Allen H.M., Garrot H.W., *Opus epistolarum Des Erasmi Roterdami*, Oxford 1906-1958, No 1803.

² Szymon Marycjusz (Mariciusz) from Płzen (1516-1574), the pupil at first, later the professor of the Cracow Academy, the scholar, admirer and interpreter of the ancient literature. Recognizing the state of Italian universities, in his pedagogical treaty *On schools or academies*, two volumes he stressed the importance of education and presented the tool with which the educational system in Polish Commonwealth should be cured. Marcius, who highly evaluated the work with young people, regretted the depreciation of the teachers' state in Poland. When he found a rich sponsor, he left the teacher's state and devoted himself for the pedagogical theory. He saddled the authority (religious and secular) with the responsibility of the low condition of school in Poland.

³ (1508-1559). The further tutor of Jan Sigismundus Zapolya. He was a humanist and theological writer.

⁴ Rosarius collected in his house the outstanding library, which – thanks to new books and relevance of the choice of its authors created the impressive, as those times, bibliographical collection. For further information see: R. Barycz, *Saga kleparskiej rodziny Rożanków. Historia trochę kryminalna*, [w:] Tenże, *Z epoki renesansu, reformacji i baroku. Prądy-idee-ludzie-książki*, Warszawa: PIW, 1971, s. 400-452.

⁵The edition by F. Froben, 1528. See, the Library of Collegium Maius, Jagiellonian Library, manuscript 242.

⁶ The humanist, latinist and hellenist, the adherent of the reformation. He was a pupil of Cracow Academy (1506-1509) and the creator of the richest humanistic libraries in Poland. Among his collection one could find *Moriae Encomium* (Strasburg, Mateusz Schurer 1511), paraphrase of the letter of st. Paul to Romanians, *Lucubrations* (Strasburg 1515) and *Apologia ad Jacobum Stapulensem*. (Barycz 1971, 25)

principia Christiani, Paraboles (from 1516), *Hyperaspistes, Lucubrations* and *Moriae encomium* (edition of Basel 1515 r.) (Barycz 1971, 26). Probably, he bought these positions from Kreutwald, who left Nysa and moved to Wrocław.

After the move of Kreutwald to Wrocław in 1514, that city became the important source of the ideas, of the Philosopher from Basel. The early Erasmian contacts between Wrocław and Cracow reached 1515, when Jan Turzo, the Rector of the Cracow Academy in 1498, Jan Hess (the further religious reformer of Wrocław and Stanisław Saur – the humanist and polyglot together initiated the cult of Erasmus himself and his works. Walenty Kreutwald joined this team soon. But the most significant place in the history of Erasmian contacts between Wrocław and Cracow was occupied by Jan Rullus, who collected in his library a dozen writings and editions of Erasmus, divided into two thematic groups. The first included grammatical-stylistic handbooks and three editions of *De duplici copia verborum*, the commentaries to comedy of the Terencius *Andria*, the handbook for the epistolary art, the edition of *Apophtegmatów* (of Plutarch and *Institutio principis Christiani*). The second group of Rullus collection included the literary writings of Erasmus, among which one could enlist *Apophtegmata, Colloquia familiaria, Moriae encomium, Epistolae* (Barycz 1971, 29). The death of Rullus in 1523 broke the Cracow-Wrocław bond in popularizing the Erasmus thought. Simultaneously, the Cracow Academy turned away from the Erasmian movement and creation. Since the middle 16th century Polish Erasmianism acquired an individual, unofficial and a slightly secret character of contacts with his work. The remaining volumes of Erasmian works from private collection and the register of reading book from Collegium Maius Cracow Academy could be the evidence of that fact.

Contacts, letters

Simultaneously with the “discovery” of Erasmian works in Poland by domestic intellectuals, a certain snobbery appeared among them. It consisted in the strong will to be in contact with him, if not in direct – unless indirect, epistolary one. This will was not unfamiliar even for kings. The signs of adoration for Erasmus, which streamed from Poland, were undoubtedly like a “soothing balm” for Erasmus (Backvis 1975, 563), who at that time became the object of attacks from the Western intellectuals, which resulted in his sourness and misanthropy at the end of his life. Polish intellectuals as well as European ones, who acted in Poland, who contacted with him directly and who were in correspondence with him, were the witnesses of his psychological condition at that time. Direct, personal contacts of Poles with Erasmus were, however, very rare and difficult, which was the result of the difficult character of the scholar. The highly valued by contemporary Polish scholars correspondence between Erasmus and Polish humanists is usually overestimated, taking into account that out of 3141 of preserved letters of Erasmus, those from/to Poles comprised only 92 or the small percentage of Erasmus contacts (Cytowska 1965, 9). Among permanent correspondents of Erasmus there were Church notables: Piotr Tomicki¹, Andrzej Krzycki² and Andrzej Zebrzdowski³, dignitaries: Krzysztof Sztydlowiecki⁴ and Piotr Kmita⁵ and citizens of the German origin: Jost Ludwik Decjus (Dietz)⁶ and Seweryn Boner⁷, Jan Dantyszczek (Danticius)⁸ from Gdańsk and Jan Antonin (Antoninus)⁹.

¹ (1464-1535) The Bishop of Cracow and the Great Vicechancellor of Polish Kingdom, secretary and advisor of the king Sigismundus I (Cytowska 1965, 106).

² (1482-1537). The Bishop of Przemyśl and Plock, later the Archbishop of Gniezno (1522) and Prime Bishop of Poland. The nephew of Piotr Tomicki (Cytowska 1965, 36).

³ (1494-1560). The nephew of Andrzej Krzycki. The pupil of Cox and Erasmus. He was in turn the Bishop of Kamieniec, Chełm, Kujawy. Since 1550 he had been a Bishop of Cracow and Chancellor of Cracow Academy (Cytowska 1965, 62).

⁴ (1467-1532). The Great Chancellor of Polish Kingdom, voivode and castellan of Cracow. Erasmus dedicated him the work *Lingua* Basel 1525. (Cytowska 1965, 30).

⁵ (1477-1553). The Great Marshal of Polish Kingdom (1529). He belonged to patrones of Erasmus (Cytowska 1965, 292).

⁶ (1485-1545). He originated from Wisemburg. He was a historia and economist, the member of Cracow city council and the secretary of the king Sigismundus I. During one of his travels in 1522 he stopped in Basel, where he met Erasmus (Cytowska 1965, 22).

⁷ (1486-1549). The castellan of Sącz, the district chief and governor of Cracow. In 1531 he sent his son Jan with a friend Stanisław Ajchler (Glandinus) and under the tutorship of Anzelm Eforyn for a vojage to Italy. In a way young men stayed in Fryburg at Erasmus house (Cytowska 1965, 195)

⁸ The other name: Flaschbinder (1485-1548), the newlatin poet, diplomat and secretary of the king Sigismundus I. At the end of his life he became a Bishop of Warmia. In 1531 he stayed in Netherlands as a legate at the Charles V court (Cytowska 1965, 218).

⁹ From Koszyce (Czech Kingdom) (1499-1543). He was a student of Cracow Academy and Padua University, the medical doktor. From July to November 1524 he stayed AT Erasmus house. In 1526 he settled in Cracow and died as the Court doktor of the king. (Cytowska 1965, 31).

The most loyal Polish correspondents of Erasmus and simultaneously the most respected by him were Antoninus, Tomicius and Cricius. Tomicius was treated by his contemporaries as a man of the new culture and new life style. Cricius, then of an expressive personality and impressive way, as well as of his poetical talent, became the most representative person of the early modern Poland (Backvis 1975, 566). Cricius, with the companion of such Erasmianists as Cox, Decius, Antoninus and Tomicius was an inspirator of the idea, to place Erasmus at the Chair of Cracow Academy, in order to offer him a peaceful haven for the rest of his life. This initiative influenced Erasmus and aroused his liking for Poles, which appeared by the Erasmian increasing interest for Polish affairs, so domestic as international (Cytowska 1965, 10). As the result of this curiosity there was the correspondence between Erasmus and King Sigismundus I, of an irenistic character¹. The King recommended the son of Seweryn Boner – Jan to Erasmus care². Young Polish dignitary sons consecutively availed themselves of Erasmus hospitality. Except the mentioned Jan Boner, who reached Erasmus home with his friends, the Bishop Cricius sent to him his nephew Andrzej Zebrzydowski, the pupil of Cox. The unexpected, but the most important journey there was a visit of Jakub Growicki at Erasmus house. Jakub Growicki was a canon and custodian at St. Giles church in Cracow, who accompanied the abbot of Cisterians from Mogilno in his way from Vatican. They met Erasmus in their return journey.³

The separate attention one should pay to the contacts of the Łaski family with Erasmus, which had not only epistolary character. There were initiated by Jan senior⁴, then continued by Hieronim⁵, Jan Junior⁶ and (Stanisław⁷. The friendship of Erasmus and Jan Junior seems to be the beautiful charter in the history of Polish humanism, but simultaneously it revealed the difficult character of the Philosopher from Basel. His correspondence with Jan Łaski senior resulted with the dedication for the Bishop of Gniezno of Erasmus edition of St. Ambrose works. Was it the real expression of respect for him, or only the attention to the friendship and protection of the influential dignity to be in authority? While the dedication remained without any reply from the Bishop – and without any contribution – the intercourses of Erasmus with Łaski family significantly aggravated (Backvis 1975, 567). It is seen in the correspondence of Erasmus with Jan Junior connected with the purchase of Erasmus library in 1525 with the privilege of the lifelong use of it by the philosopher⁸. Łaski bought the library for 300 Polish zlotys, which was the equivalent of 200 florens, when meanwhile in his letter from 21 March 1533 Erasmus stated that its value was 100 florens higher and he had a lot of buyers, who could pay that price⁹. So, it seems that these difference in price meant the sum of gratification for a dedication for Łaski's uncle. It is interesting concerning the fact that the uncle of Łaski died two years earlier than the date of the letter of Erasmus (Backvis 1975, 567).

Analysing the correspondence of Erasmus with Poles and throwing away the conventional form and epistolary expressions, one could reconstruct the relations between Erasmus and his correspondents, independently from the frequency of letters exchange and the quantity of preserved documents. One could notice Erasmus's sympathy to the young intellectuals, tutors and educators of the Polish dignitary's sons.

The paternal relation is seen in Erasmus contacts with Marcin Słapa Dąbrowski, who accompanied Andrzej Zebrzydowski or with Anzelm Eforyn or Stanisław Glandin, who traveled with young Boners – Jan and Stanisław (Cytowska 1965, 11-12).

¹ Erasmus to Sigismundus I, from 15 May 1527 (XVI, AA 1819) , the reply from Sigismundus I from 19 February 1528 (XXIX, AA 1952), Erasmus to Sigismundus I from 28 August 1528 (XXXVII, AA 2034).

² Sigismundus I to Erasmus from 17 August 1531 (LI, AA 2520)

³ Jakub Growiecki to Erasmus from 15 May 1533 (LXXIV, AA 2811)

⁴ Jan Łaski (Lasco) (1456-1531) the paternal uncle of Hieronim, Jan and Stanisław, the Archbishop of Gniezno and the Great Chancellor of Polish Kingdom (Cytowska 1965, 30)

⁵ Hieronim (Jarosław, Jarosz) Łaski (1496-1541), voivode of Sieradz, diplomat and condottiere. Łaski met Erasmus during his stay in Brussel in 1520. He visited him two times in 1521 and 1524. Erasmus dedicated Hieronim two volumes of his *Modus orandi Deum*, Basel 1524, and *Institutio Christiani Matrimonii*, Basel 1526. (Cytowska 1965, 23).

⁶ Jan Łaski junior (Joannes a Lasco 1499 – 1560), brother of Hieronim, the nephew of Jan senior, the parish-priest of Łęczycza and Gniezno, religious reformer. He studied at German and Italian universities, from 1524 to 1526 he stayed in Paris, Padua and Basel at Erasmus house, from whom he bought the library. He was an admirer of Erasmus and one of the first propagators of his thought in Poland. He initiated the post mortal edition of his works. In 1539 he associated the reformation movement and acted in Eastern Frisland and England. Since 1556 he had settled in Poland where he acted towards the unification of Polish protestant movement in the national reformation church. (Barycz 1984, 610)

⁷ Stanisław Łaski, the brother of Hieronim and Jan junior (d. 1550) was a soldier and diplomat (Cytowska 1965, 23).

⁸ The contract deals with the selling of Erasmus' libr ary to Jan Łaski j. Basel 20 June 1525 (XCIII)

⁹ Erasmus to Jan Łaski j. from 27 August 1528 (XXXVI, AA 2033)

That “father-sons” relationship was reciprocal, because in letters of Jan Antonin, Jan Łaski junior and Anzelm Eforyn to Erasmus there are repeatedly used such phrases as “my father”, “the best friend”, “beloved Erasmus”, etc. The whimsical character of Erasmus was expressed in his letters to the Polish dignitaries. Letters to Szydłowiecki and Cricius, however cordial in its sounds, he kept a distance, nevertheless Erasmus evaluated the poetical art of the nephew of his the most life-long friend – Piotr Tomicki (Tomicius). Erasmus had the highest opinion of Jan Dantyszek (Dantiscius), however only one dedication letter remained, which Erasmus wrote to the Bishop of Chelm from 1532¹. Undoubtedly, the Erasmianism of Dantiscius, widely known in Netherlands, as well as his attitude in the defence of Erasmus against Belgian Bishops, contributed to the sympathy for him (Cytowska 1965, 12). This attitude, spoken at large about in the Church and at universities, was noticed by European Erasmianists, which resulted in the special gift for Dantiscius – the portrait of Erasmus painted by Hans Holbain. The Erasmianism of Dantiscius introduced him as a diplomat into the crown of European friends and adherents of Erasmus as well as into his correspondents (Cytowska 1965, 13). Except Dantiscius, one could find other Polish names in Erasmus letters to his European friends. Among others, one could enlist Tomicius, Cricius, Szydłowiecki and Zebrzydowski. The last one became an object of the anecdote, which Erasmus told to one of his correspondents – Daniel Stibar². In these letters Erasmus enlisted as well his Polish enemies who slandered his name. But this information had never been repeated in any letter to Poles. And Poles in their letter to Erasmus had never mentioned it as well.

***Moriae encomium* (The Praise of Folly) in Poland**

The reception of Erasmus in Poland was simultaneous to the reception of his most significant work *Moriae encomium*. According to the edition of this work (Shurer ion Stasburg 1511) it appeared in the collection of Piotr Tomicki (Tomicius) and Walenty Kreutwald, and in 1520 – in the possession of students of the Cracow Academy. The work became soon the one of the four most popular Erasmian works (with *Adagia*, *Colloquia familiaria*, *Institutio Principis Christiani*, *Novum Testament Greace*). But its reception at the beginning was very superficial and formal and it was the reason of the fact that the work did not have a recent translation into Polish. The next reason was that it included crushing critique of the middle ages. The translations of Erasmian works into Polish were accidental, casual and anonymous. Adaptations of Erasmian texts for the purpose of the reformed Churches prevailed and rapidly appeared in Poland. That is why it was in the Enlightenment that the Catholic milieu appreciated the value of non-theological works of Erasmus. The first translations of *Moriae encomium* into Polish language were done in the 19th century³. Meanwhile, other the works of Erasmus were translated anonymously or under cryptonyms. Two first translations from 1530s and 1540s were *The Holy prayer separated into seven parts* from 1533, and *Volumes called language (Lingua)* from 1542, which Erasmus dedicated to Decius and Szydłowiecki (Barycz 1971, 33). In 1545 the third adaptation of Erasmian work appeared, which was fitted to contemporary Polish situation, as the appeal for peace (*Quarella pacis*) entitled *Polish admonition to all Christians for the agreement, or namely to Poles made* in translation of Stanisław Łaski (Lascio). The same author inspired by one of Erasmian dialogues included in *Colloquia familiaria* wrote in the dialogue form a satirical poem for the Piotrków Sejm in 1535 under the title *De asiana dieta*. Moreover, Erasmian *Colloquia familiaria* remained as the satirical-lampoon pattern of Polish nobles against the marriage of the young king Sigismundus Augustus with Barbara Radziwiłł (Barycz 1971, 34). The next translation appeared in Królewiec in 1558 as an adaptation of Erasmian work *The Christian knighthood and the spiritual life* by Wojciech from Nowe Miasto, which was used for the needs of dissenting churches developing in Poland. The last Renaissance translation of Erasmian work was done by Sebastian Klonowic *The nobility of good manners* from 1674, which based on *De civilitate morum* from 1530.

However, the most important Erasmian work *Moriae encomium*, which included the critic of the society, governments, the poverty of religious and intellectual life, did not reach the separate translation to the time of counterreformation movement, which caused that – except some works of pedagogy or irenology – the rest of Erasmus ideas almost neglected. The similar situation was in Polish reformation movement, where *Moriae encomium* occupied the second-rate place in relation to

¹ Erasmus to Jan Dantyszek (Dantiscius), from 30 April 1532 (LXVI, AA 2643).

² Andrzej Zebrzydowski was the object of robbery in Paris. Unknown person in the crowd cut all his reachly decorated silver buttons from his clothes (Cytowska 1965, 14).

³ In 1513 *Moriae encomium* was translated into Czech by Sigismundus Jelensky – Gelenius. In 1517 appeared the first translation into French, in 1518 – German, and in 1549 – English (Barycz 1971, 32). Two first Polish translation were from 1975 as self-dependent and anonymous. The first, hand-written, were translated from French by Erasmus from Mazovia and it is still in the Library of the Plock Society of the Friends of Science. The second originated from Lviv and was supplemented by the autobiographic commentary of the anonymous interpreter, which indicated one of professors of the grammar school (Barycz 1971, 38-39).

Colloquia familiaria (Barycz 1971, 36). In the libraries of famous protestant intellectuals, as Wojciech Kaliszak in 1579 and Stanisław Lubieniecki junior (1679) *Moriae encomium* was in collection of the first of them, when the second one had only theological works.

The Enlightenment only “discovered” this Erasmian work for Polish culture. Its influence is significant in the art of Ignacy Krasicki in his *Monachomachia* (War of the Monks, 1778), which was the critique of monks’ ignorance and the monastery life deformation, and in *Satires* (1779), where the author used the Erasmian formal means – the reversed valuation of the phenomena, to criticize its positive side and to glorify – negative one. During the partitions times *Moriae encomium* was perceived by all three invaders as a work which disseminated the socio-political impatience and the muddle in human mind, and at the same time it came within a censorship. Not till the second half of 19th century was the interest in Erasmian works brought to life on the territory of partitioned Poland. Then, we had the two mentioned anonymous translations, from Plock and Lviv as well as the third one – by the bishop Ludwik Łętowski, the church dignitary, who found in the work of the Great Hollender the similarity with his ideas on the ecclesiastic world, its ignorance, material greed and the hankering for power. In his creative translation of the Erasmian work entitled “The defense of stupidity for rational people” from 1861-62¹ Łętowski used the persiflage, which means the upturned critique and the ambiguous praise of all indications of stupidity and offence, which originated from it (Barycz 1971, 40). This work differed from the original in its form as well. Instead of the long narration of the original, Łętowski proposed the aphorism. The next attempt to the inspiration of the Polish reader by *Moriae encomium* undertook the Ossolineum Press in 1953 through the translation of Edwin Jędrkiewicz. Since 1960s Maria Cytowska has been the best Polish translator of Erasmian works².

The literary Erasmian inspirations

The reception of Erasmian work in Poland had a multilayered character. It started chronologically from the reception of Erasmus esthetical- literary work, through theological-religious, which inspired the Polish reformation movement, educational-didactic, which were present in the Polish intellectual milieu. Even in the times of intensive critique of Erasmian ideology, his satirical works inspired the art of the Enlightenment artists. What is significant for the Polish Erasmianism is that there was the interference of different social and religious orientations, which was the result of the irenology of Erasmus and which rather connected people rather than separated them, independently of their political convictions.

Moreover, since the first phase of the reception of Erasmian work there had not been the resolute polarization of religious standpoints and one could believe in the unity of the Christian Church in Poland. These ideas penetrated the group of intellectual leaders concentrated around Andrzej Frycz-Modrzewski (Andreas Fricius-Modrevius), Franciszek Lisnianin (a monk, Franciscian, the preacher of the queen Bona Sforza, and later – the Calvinian activist in Malopolska and Królewiec – Koenigstein), Jan Drohojowski (The Bishop of Wrocław, the friend and patron of Andreas Fricius-Modrevius), Jakub Przyłuski (the parish-priest in Mościska, the Calvinist, establisher of the press, where he printed *Leges seu statuta Ac privilegia Regni Poloniae*). Bernard Wojewódka (the translator of psalms, the chief of Calvinian press in Brześć), Stanisław Orzechowski (an outstanding stylist, the advocate of Catholicism, publicist, who got an absolution after the break of celibate for his zealous fight against the reformation) (Ziomek 1977, 36-37)

The Polish esthetic Erasmianism

The reception of Erasmian works started from his esthetic writings, devoted to the epistolary art as well as from the idea of “new Latinism” based on the perception of Cicero’s works. The most outstanding representative of such Erasmianism in Poland was Jan Dantyszek (Jan Dantiscius – 1485-1548), the diplomat, who traveled around Europe in diplomatic missions, the Church dignitary, connected with the court life. He was the most conscious publicist poet Polish-Latin. Considering his diplomatic mission, he stayed in 1530s in Lovanium in Belgium, where he informed local intellectual about the discoveries of Nicolaus Copernikus. The famous poet Niderland-Latin Johannes Secundus devoted several poems to him. His compatriot and friend – Jan Stratius settled temporarily in Poznań, and the Hebraist Jan van der Campen (Campensis) from Lovanium owed the help and protection in his work on Paraphrasis of *Psaltar* to Dantiscius. This paraphrasis became

¹ This translation was rather in a form of biographical notes, which he wanted to include to the second or third volume of “Miscelaneas”, which, however, had never appeared after a scandal which accompanied the edition of the first volume and its buying up by the Cracow Chapter (Barycz 1971, 40.)

² *Common dialogs* (*Colloquia familiaria* - 1962), *The correspondence of Erasmus with Poles* (1965), *Dialogs. Selection. Cyconianus* (1969).

later a basis for the translation by Mikołaj Rej (Nicolaus Rey) ¹ (Borowski 1984, 60). Erasmianism of Dantoscius appeared mainly following the program of Erasmus, who focused on the reanimation of neglected Italian humanism. Dantoscius acted in line with this idea. He inclined Jan Campensius, the Dutch humanist to undertake the production of the poetical paraphrases of psalms *Psalmorum omnium... paraphrastica interpretation*, which was of a realization of anti Ciceronian opinions of Erasmus. The Work appeared in Cracow in 1532 with the introduction of Dantoscius (Ziomek 1977, 91).

Erasmus and the governmentality in the art of Polish reformers of the State and Law.

The reception of Erasmus ideology in Poland was simultaneous with two tendencies characteristic for the Polish culture of 16th century and which shaped, for the first time in this country, the so called (public ratio, which was the main political orientation and a consistent set of features, recognized as the "national spirit" of Poles (Backvis 1975, 517). The first of these two tendencies was to become audible and to supervise the leadership of the state affairs. The second one – was to create the integrated and united society of the Polish Commonwealth (Res Publica), the name of which had become an official one for the Jagiellonian Kingdom since 1512 and it was to be identified with the State. It was the period of creation of a certain governmentality, in the meaning of the post-modern philosopher Michael Foucault. In other words, it was a tendency, which overwhelmed the whole West and which continually tended towards the creation of a such type of power, which one could call as a management (government), and which would be situated beyond the rest of types as sovereignty, or discipline, and which – at last provided to, from one hand to the development of a specific sorts of power tools, and from the other – to the development of a specific types of knowledge. It was a process, or rather the result of the process, which caused that the medieval state of law – that became in the 15th and the 16th century the state of administration – was gradually "governmented" (Foucault 2004). The Polish Erasmianism, which overlapped these tendencies since the beginning of the 16th century, produced the outstanding individuals and the intellectual ferment of the Cracow and Silesian Centres (increased the several social-reformist, political and legal works.

As the first of such experiments one could acknowledge the work of Andrzej Glaber from Kobylin (a. 1500-1572), the lecturer and Erasmianist from the Academy of Cracow in 1540-1543. Glaber, clever and of a wide scale of interest, was undoubtedly the proto-feminist, because he – as the first in Poland – undertook an effort of the knowledge popularization and the intellectual emancipation of women. His work *The biographies of Praiseworthy Women*. The expression of his greater literary ambitions there were the satirical narrative work, written in defence of bourgeois laws *Senatulus or the women's Seym* from 1543, the inspiration of which he took from Erasmus² (Barycz 1984, 303).

The year 1543 brought the next work of the famous Polish Erasmianist Andreas Fricius-Modrevius. It was a work *Lacius, sive de poena homicidi* (Lascius, Or On The Penalty For Manslaughter), so called *Oratio prima* (The first speech). It was a work in the form of Hieronim Łaski (Lasco) speech in Senatus, and it dealt with the problem of social injustice connected with the punishment for the homicide (Ziomek 1977, 179-180). Andrzej Frycz-Modrzewski (Andreas Fricius-Modrevius 1503-1572) was the most outstanding Erasmianist of the Christian humanism. There was an attitude characteristic for Erasmus as well. It meant the critic of the status quo and the demand of deep changes, both in the Christian practice (as a religious and moral life of Christians) and the practice in Christian culture. In these both dimensions Erasmus postulated the return back to the forgotten primary and authentic sources and to replace the secondary sources and contrary to Christian values by them. He propagated the return to Bible as a primary and authentic source of the Christian faith and to the classical ancient heritage as a root of Christian culture. In his Christian humanism Erasmus understood the faith more as an actual realization of the moral life rules included in the Gospel than the theoretical attitudes and motives of these rules. This attitude consisted in the realization of the plain and intelligible common ethical values but not on the building of the coherent system of its motivation. The second, very important intellectual option of Erasmus was an interiorization of Christian essences and values, which was expressed through the degradation of the range of rituals, signs and symbols so important in Christian religion and through the (emphasis of (values (of experiences and the moral dimension of Christian

¹ Andrzej Borowski, „Belgijsko-polskie związki literackie”, [w:] Literatura Polska. Przewodnik Encyklopedyczny, red. J. Krzyżanowski, Cz. Hernas, Warszawa, PWN, 1984, T. 1., s. 59-61.

² Henryk Barycz, „Glaber Andrzej”, [w:] Literatura Polska. Przewodnik Encyklopedyczny, red. J. Krzyżanowski, Cz. Hernas, Warszawa, PWN, 1984, T. 1, s. 303.

life. In this type of attitude there was a ruthless condemnation of the war between Christian sovereigns. Erasmus criticized the Christians contemporary to him, stigmatized (hypocrisy, which transforms sins and faults into appearance of virtues¹.

The opinions of Andreas Fricius-Modreuius were similar to Erasmus. Contrary to the reformation movement which commanded the superiority the Grace over the Order and contrary to Martin Luther's claim, for whom the Virtue did not constitute the Charistian, but there was a incidental result of „Christianity”, Modreuius – like Erasmus – proclaimed the kindness of the human nature, which was exercised and perfected through the act of faith and Grace (Ziomek, 1977, 186). After studies at Cracow Academy (1517-1522), he received the inferior holy orders and worked at the chamber of the Prime Bishop – Jan Łaski (Lascius) senior. In 1531 he started his service at the office of the Bishop's nephew (- the humanist and reformer Jan Łaski junior (Joannes di Lascio), he stayed in Germany, where he met M. Luther and Ph. Melancthon. After the death of Erasmus (1536), he brought from Basel to Poland the library of the Philosopher, bought by Lascio. After his return to Poland (1541) he stayed in Cracow at the Łaskis court and got acquainted with the reformation milieu. In 1547 he became a secretary of the king Sigismundus Augustus and in that dignity he traveled several times abroad. After the abandonment of the function, he settled in Wolborz. He was oppressed by the Catholic Church for his reformist sentiments and even for a heresy (Literatura Polska. Przewodnik Encyklopedyczny 1984, 279-280). Since 1546 he had started the work on his most eminent work *Commentatorium de Republica emendanda libri quinque* (edited partly in Cracow in 1551, in full version in Basel in 1554, partly translated into Polish by C. Bazylik as “On the Improvement of the Commonwealth”, Łosk 1577) ². The work was deeply settled in the ancient and Christian tradition and connected with the contemporary socio-political, religious and pedagogical Erasman thought. It increased based on the observation of contemporary socio-political relations in Poland. The work brought the proposal of the fundamental reconstruction of the Polish noble state into the centralized monarchy. It consisted of five volumes: *de Moribus* (On Customs), *de Legibus* (On laws), *de Bello* (On war), *de Ecclesia* (On Church), *de Schola* (On School) and it postulated the equality of all citizens in law, regardless of the social status, the faith and fortune, the primacy of the law in the State, supported by fair courts. The educational system and the Church should be supervised by the State as well (Tazbir 1984, 151). The problem of fair and unfair wars mentioned in the volume III (On Wars) was similarly treated by Erasmus. In that volume the arbitrary argumentation of Fricius-Modreuius was originated not as many on the Holy Bible or Christian tradition as on the opinion of the ancient historians, philosophers, writers. In this volume the next time Fricius postulated the efficient functioning of the State, which defended its borders, built forts, supported and financed the regular and disciplined army. The same opinion was expressed twelve years later by Jan Kochanowski (Joannes Cochanovius - 1530-1584) in his *The Dismissal of the Greek Envoys* (1578).

Erasmianism of Jan Kochanowski appeared in various forms. On the one hand, it came to light in *Epigrams*, which the poet had written for the whole life (published in 1584), and especially in the idea of the “world as a theatre” which was closed to Lukrecjus, Plotyn, Erasmus and Marcus Stellatus Palingenius. In Kochanowski's formulation the topoi lost its tragic dimension and assumed the ridiculous, comic, modest and shiftless character (Ziomek 1977, 288). On the other hand, the influence of Erasmus revealed in Kochanowski's work in his governmentality, which became the nucleus of *The Dismissal of the Greek Envoys*, but it was present in *Carmina* (two volumes 1586) in Erasman motif of the sovereign's responsibility for the society entrusted (*Carmina* XIV, vol. II “You, who rule over the Commonwealth...”). *Carmina*, which the poet had written for his life long, there were a certain dimension of the Renaissance autobiographism. The third, important dimension of Kochanowski's Erasmanism there was a Christian humanism, especially visible in his religious life. It was revealed in Kochanowski's translation of the *David's Psalter* (1579), where he sought the convergence between the Old-Testament and Christian religiosity, and the ancient-pagan tradition (Ziomek 1977, 310). He met the Erasman works during his long fifteenth years' period of studies, at the beginning in Cracow Academy (since 1544), in Padua (1552-1555). He visited Roma and Napoli and in 1559 traveled to France with a Flemish friend Karl Utenhove, with whom he visited Belgium and Rome and after the short stay there he returned to Poland in May 1559. Since that time he had started his court service with other Polish dignitaries and became one of royal secretaries and courtiers. The period 1564-1570 were the most productive in his poetic life and closely connected with the cultural-intellectual atmosphere of Wawel and Renaissance

¹ Juliusz Domański, „Erazm z Rotterdamu”, [w:] Powszechna Encyklopedia Filozofii, wersja dla WWW. <http://ptta.pl/pef/erazmzrotterdamu>. PDF (30.11.2009)

² The first edition – not completed because of the Church censorship (The censorship of the Academy of Cracow and synod of Piotrków) without volumes IV and V in Cracow in 1551, Lazar Andrysowicz Press, the Polish translation of C. Bazylik with the Latin introduction of A. Wolan and Polish of Sz. Budny as “On the Improvement of the Commonwealth, volumes four”, without the volume on Church, in Łosk 1577. (Tazbir 1984, 151).

Cracow and the milieu of courtiers – writers and intellectuals concentrated in this most important source of Polish culture. It was a period of his vivid interest in ideology of reformation and political affairs (execution of laws and the improvement of the State). After 1571 his connection with the court loosened. Kochanowski settled in Czarnolas, where he set up a family and started the period of life characteristic for the agricultural noble family of Polish Renaissance. He wrote poetics, led a life full of happiness and interested in current political-ideological affairs of the century. In 1579 he experienced the mourning after the death of his beloved daughter Urszula – the heroine of *Laments*, and the second daughter – Hanna. Kochanowski did not reach the full edition of his works, completed to print in the Lazarus (Łazarz Andrysiowicz) Press of J. Januszowski. He died in Lublin and was buried in Zwoleń. Kochanowski was a poet of uncommon talent. He gave to Polish culture the modern poetical language, the wealth of the new poetical genres, versification and stanza forms. In his attitude to the native language, he shared the Erasmus opinion, who postulated a lecture of the Latin ancient texts “with the notebook”, and the imitation of them with the artistic initiative. Therefore, in the opinion of Erasmus who wrote in Latin there was the intuition and motivation of the development of poetry in national languages (Ziomek 1977, 344).

Kochanowski exposed in his poetry – for the first time in such dimension – the world of inward, personal emotions (poetical autobiographism) being at the same time the sensitive observer of the reality (the phenomena of everyday life, public and national affairs) and deeply anxious of the reform of the State and customs. His personality was shaped in connection with the European intellectual culture of humanism and Renaissance, and he became an expression and symbol of it. Close to Erasmus in his meaning of irenism, Kochanowski was an exponent of the deep faith in the world hegemony, the natural law, the possibilities of human mind and virtue, which he acknowledged as the greatest value, especially the virtue of the civil service for the State¹ (Ulewicz 1984, 452-453). His most famous work *The Dismissal of the Greek Envoys* from 1578 took under consideration the moral problem of war and peace in the tradition which reached back to Cicero, St. Augustine and Erasmus, to the tradition which divided fair and unfair wars, defensive and offensive ones. Tradition, which considered, that one could use all peaceful means to avoid the war, but if it was inevitable, one would have used the most effective tactics as well as offensive one (Ziomek 1977, 299). *The Dismissal*... situated itself (among the humanistic intellectual commonwealth as *De republica emendanda*... by Fricius-Modreuius, where war and peace was not so much a topic, but a situation, in which the moral condition of the society was checked. The ancient mask of the drama referred to the Erasmian postulate of the lecture “with a notebook” of ancient works, but without “antiquating” the contemporaries through giving it the ancient names, pen-naming instead of denominating (Ziomek 1977, 344). That is why Troya in *The Dismissal* is called as Republic (Polish Republic)

Kochanowski, who created more than he wrote, became an authority in the Renaissance Poland and the certain „school” for his imitators as well for admirers of Erasmus art. Marcin Bielski (Wolski)² came to the top of the pleiad, the author of *Satires*, in which one followed the *Satire* of Jan Kochanowski. *Satires* of Bielski consisted of three parts of the different value and poetics. The first: *The May dream of one hermit in the green forests*, the second – *The Women’s Sejm* and the third – *The Dialog of the three Profets*. *The Women’s Sejm* (1586-95) which is the outstanding parallel. Bielski took an idea from Erasmus, whose *Senatulus* was known and read. The facetious and grotesque description of the women’s debate process was taken from Erasmus. In Bielski’s work women debated as well in quarrelsome, disorderly and narrow-minded way and in that dimension the work in anti-feministic. But women debated similarly to men’s way, and – what is sure- not less efficient as their husbands or fathers. In this moment the anti-feministic pretext transformed into the satire of a general, political and social character. Women – contrary to Erasmian work – represented the rational program of political and social reform e. g. regarding to the common duty bound to the defense, the excessive import of goods, or the precautions against the separatist tendencies of the Prussian Duchy (Ziomek 1977, 354). He revealed the eminent orientation in administrative, political and economic affairs of Polish Republic. That is why his work was included into the political-social stream of

¹ Tadeusz Ulewicz, “Kochanowski Jan” [w:] “Literatura Polska. Przewodnik Encyklopedyczny, red. J. Krzyżanowski, Cz. Hernas, Warszawa, PWN, 1984, T. 1, s.452-454.

² (c.a. 1495-1575), the poet, chronicler and translator. In his youth – the courter of Piotr Kmita. He sympathized with reformist movement, when he stayed in Cracow. Since 1540 he run a farm in his own country. The literary career he begun under the name Wolski with *The Lives of Philosophers* in 1535. Then, he wrote the *Chronicle of the whole World* (1551), and the first in Polish history the general history from the time of the Old Testament to 1550 (The first edition: *The Chronicle or the History of the World*, Cracow 1554). The rest of his works included: moralitet *Justyn I Konstancja Comedy* (1557), pose treaty *Noble’s affair* (1569), *Satires* (1566/67) edited with adnotations of his son Joachim (1586/87) (Krzyżanowski 1984,83).

Erasmian inspirations, into the stream dealt with the improvement of the State and the civil responsibility for the country. It included the anti-clerical and anti-bourgeois accents as well (Krzyżanowski 1984, 83).

The 17th century brought the greater depth between the antiquity and Christianity. From the great source of the European culture that the antiquity was, the Middle Ages profited as well, but the greatest difference between the Middle Ages and Renaissance towards to the antiquity was that Renaissance artists in their inspirations of antiquity threw away the mediation of the Church. Erasmus saw in this throwing away of the Church, the dangerous effect of Renaissance in which the contemporary man preferred to be a Ciceronian than a saint (*Cyceronianus*, 1528). In Middle Ages the antiquity supported the Christianity, when antiquity in Renaissance supported the opposition towards the Church. At the end of the Renaissance revealed the aim for the restitution of the superior role of the Church in the culture which appeared through the rebirth of topics and genres of medieval literature, adopted to the new cultural situation¹ (Hernas, 1978, 15). The Erasmian tradition in Poland in 17th century was manifested in spectacular, marginal and secular way, in opposition to the hegemony of the church literature. It was a shoddy theatre, the cultural niche of the secular literature. The new Polish comedy was born at the end of 16th century within the mischievous culture, from the work *The Plebeian Expedition* (1590), which used as a base the dialogue between the priest and his servant. The drama realized the simplest dramatic foundations. The same form was used by the mischievous comedies which referred to the humoristic Seyms, which followed the Erasmian pattern. The work of Erasmus *Senatulus sive gynejkosybwedrión* (Publisher in *Colloquia familiaria* from 1516) caused a wave of imitations. In Poland there were: *Senatulus of the women's Seym* of Andrzej Glaber from Kobylin (1543), and *Women's Seym* of Marcin Bielski (1586). The literary stream of seym's dialogues develop its own genre similar to the drama. Its value consisted on its sociological representativeness. Social classes deliberated on the parliamentary right for the assignation of the common constitution. It was the public opinion of the other social strata than the privileged one, achieved in the poetic of a joke and satire, but (- truthfully – exposing the other spheres of social customs, ideas and types (Hernas 1978, 202). One could see the shoveling state in *Synod of Shoveling from the Foot-hills* from 1607, the beggary's state in *The Beggar Peregrination* from 1512, women's seym in *The Seym of Women* (1617) and in *The Seym of Virgins* of Jan Oleski (1617) and in *Prerogatives or Wives Freedom* of Jeremiasz Niewieściński, and at last – the priests' state in *The Synod of Heretical Ministers* from 1611, with the visible reformer accents. The peasants' state was presented in *The Peasants' Lament against Nobles* of Jan Dzwonkowski, in *Seym or Domestic Constitutions* (1608) and in *Law Paragraphs how to Judge Scoundrels and Jugglers* (1611), which was the real constitution of slyboots' life (Hernas 1978, 202). Beyond the minstrel culture, Polish Erasmianism, or rather theological anti-Erasmianism revealed in the art of Fabian Birkowski, who – in his sermons *Orationes ecclesiasticae* from 1622 and in *Sermons for Sunday and Annual Feasts* (1620) warned students' youths against the lecture of Erasmus (Hernas 1978, 203).

Wacław Potocki (1621-1696) was the last, great, Polish Erasmianist of 17th century. He was a poet, a noble from the Arian family, who spent the whole life running the farm. He started to write in Arian tradition, using genres, esteemed in this tradition, as didactic and emblematic poems, religious songs, rhymed tales based on the biblical plots. After the decree of Arians outlawry in Poland in 1658, he refused to quit the country and converted to Catholic faith to continue his literary work² (Kukulski, 1985, 209).

The early work of Potocki, whose main elaboration was the *The Progress of the War of Chocim* (1670) was closely connected with the baroque dispute on the worldly and spiritual values. The poetical expression of these tradition was an allegoric Christian knight, patterned on the work of Erasmus *Enchiridion militis Christiani* from 1502, who covered with the beaver, which meant the eternal life, protected by a shield, which meant the faith and fought with a sworn, which meant the God's truth – against five enemies, which represented the power of Evil: the devil, the death, the world, the sin, and the body (Hernas 1978, 404). There is a work of Potocki entitled *The Duel of the Christian Knight*, treated as a debut in 1644. The next one, which to Erasmus was *Moralia*. The collection consisted of 2100 works patterned on Erasmus *Adagia* which the Philosopher edited for the first time in 1500 as the collection of the Latin proverbs. *Adagia* had been completed for years and the work obtained a lot of admirers and followers. In 1670 Potocki received the work from one of his friends (edition from 1551) and started his own work in 1688. He finished it in 1694 and he started the work on the second volume, which was broken by his death in 1696. Contrary to Erasmus, whose *Adagia* could be used a practical help in the learning Latin,

¹ Czesław Hernas, "Barok", Warszawa, PWN, 1978, s. 15.

² Leszek Kukulski, "Potocki Wacław", [w:] "Literatura Polska. Przewodnik Encyklopedyczny, red. J. Krzyżanowski, Cz. Hernas, Warszawa, PWN, 1984, T. 2, s. 209.

Potocki in his *Moralia* brought into relief the value of the common sense (delivered by the antiquity (Hernas 1978, 433). The lecture of *Adagia* became the point of reference of the unconstrained moralist and publicist associations. At the same time *Moralia* became the synthesis of the reflection of the old poet. *Moralia* was not thought as a work for a print, that is why one could find there the sharpness (of conclusions and the pessimistic civil reflection. Potocki had observed the degradation of the Polish Republic for nearly 50 years and he discovered the sources of the regression mechanisms of the State. He saw it, described it several times and concretised them. As the loyal towards Erasmus, he criticized all that he disliked in the Church, especially the collapses of the conscious rules and the obligation of the "innocent to the faith" (Hernas 1978, 434). *Moralia* included also the apocalyptic view of the Polish future, in which the disorder led to the loss of the Polish independence (Hernas 1978, 437). The art of Potocki ended the 17th century period of Erasmian inspirations in the Polish culture, especially in the dimension of its "governmentality" and the spirit of the improvement of the Church institution and the religious life, and the State condition as well.

Christian - humanistic reflection on the human nature and own's nature as the inspiration of Polish humanists.

The second stream of Erasmian inspirations in the Polish culture is visible in the art of Mikołaj Rej (Nicolaus Rey) in his certain literary autobiographism, which revealed the deep humanistic reflection on human nature and the value of one's life. Nicolaus Rey (1505-1569), the poet, prose writer and translator was the one of the leading representatives of the Renaissance literature in Poland. He learned at the beginning in Skalmierz, in Lviv and in 1518 he became a student of the Cracow Academy, but after a year he returned to the family in Żurawin. He was the leader of the reformation in Poland, "the kindly man", who realized in his life the rule of perfection expected by the Renaissance ethics. Staying at the court of Tęczyński's dignitary family he obtained the culture and education, he shaped his artistic, literary and musical abilities. He was a good landlord, thanks to which he obtained a property and he (could establish such towns as Rejowiec and Oksza¹ (Krzyżanowski 1984, 278). He (was interested in politics, the evidence of which can be found in the work *A short dispute between three persons, the Landlord, the Village Chief and the Priest* edited in 1543 under the name Ambroży Korczbok Rożek. That work dealt with the current political system, religious and customary problems, and was settled in the stream of Renaissance "governmentality" and the fight for the execution of the Royal laws and goods. The work was, at the same time a critique of the customs of nobles and clergy, and being an apotheosis of the peasants' state had no equivalent in the Polish literature. The prototype of the work one should look for in the Swiss literature, in the out-put of the Lutheran Joachim Vadianus, the author of *Karstans* from 1521, and at the same time it was situated in the stream of polemic literature of the reformation period (Ziomek 1977, 219-221). But the most important work which is consisted in the Renaissance autobiographism there was *The Life of the Hones Man* written in 1558, which showed the philosophy of life of the poet. In was the noble attitude towards the world, a human being and the poet's own life, which became an important accent of the work of Rej. Simultaneously this attitude was characterized by the contempt towards the fashionable and worldly life, which was a result of the Calvinism of the writer (Ziomek 1977, 240). In 1567-68 Rej explained his attitude the second time in the work *The Mirror or The Image of a Good Man's Life*, which is treated as a testament of the writer. The first volume of that collection included the apophthegmas what meant the speeches of famous people from antiquity and later times, originated from the Latin collections of humanists, first of all – from Erasmus. The work illustrated the everyday life of the Polish landlord of 16th century (Krzyżanowski 1984, 693).

In the same stream of the self-consciousness of the human being towards the world and God was represented by Jan Kochanowski in his works distinguished by the autobiographism. His religious attitude, which one could call as a Christian humanism directly linked to the concept of Erasmus and co-related to the writing and translation style of the religious works. In this spirit Kochanowski translated the *David's Psalter* (1579 – Lazarus Press) and he wrote *Carmina*, where the autobiographism was not mean the recalling facts from the poet life, but the creation of the special atmosphere. The autobiographical atmosphere was the one of the most important element of the shaping the Renaissance lyric. In contrary to the Middle Ages, when it was impossible to separate a human being from the (material- carnal Universal, the man of Renaissance accepted its uniqueness and subjective character. Kochanowski found in his *Epigrams* the place for consolidation of the lyric moment, the colour of event and a man's behaviour. In his *Carmina* he went further. This disclosure of subjective "I" from the human world, material things and nature was only a perception of human uniqueness, but the philosophical-moral category as well. The Renaissance autobiography is also the manifest of the artistic self-

¹ Julian Krzyżanowski, „Rej Mikołaj”, [w:], „Literatura Polska. Przewodnik Encyklopedyczny, red. J. Krzyżanowski, Cz. Hernas, Warszawa, PWN, 1984, T. 2, s. 278-279.

consciousness. The fullest expression of this self-consciousness one could find in *Laments* written after a death of Kochanowski's daughter – Urszula (Cracow, The Lazarus Press 1580), which dealt with the Erasmian understanding of religiosity as the feeling of responsibility of one's fate and the proverb – "I believe, because it is rational". *Laments* of Kochanowski indicated the masterpiece of epicedial poetry of the Polish Renaissance. The ancient epicedium as the work should consist on *Laudes* (praise), *iacturae demnstratio* (manifestation of the loss), *Lucius* (grief), *Consolatio* (consolation) and *Exhortatio* (admonition). Kochanowski created the cycle, in which the epicedial parts were realized by the followed works (Ziomek 1977, 319). The difference character of *Laments* in the literature consisted of the new conception of the hero. In epicedias there was tripled: the dead person, the relative and the poet. Meanwhile in *Laments* there was a outstanding relationship between them. The main is the poet in his double role as consoling and being consoled, admonishing and being admonished. This is a poetry of the personal crisis of the poet, which meant that the world seen as a harmony and order – lost all its beauty. The autobiographism in *Laments* had its different dimension, because the collection as well as the character of Works illustrated the process of mourning – from the protest to consolation. The part of consolation included the repulse by the poet the philosophy of nature and stoicism and the consolation in the faith. The personal and emotional crisis impaired the poet's optimistic view of the world, but it did not change the general rules of Kochanowski's religiosity. This religiosity was connected with the idea of Erasmus, for whom the faith is connected with a life style and the feeling responsible for one's life (Ziomek 1977, 321-322).

In the similar epicedia character Piotr Rozjusz (Petrus Roysius vel Petro Ruiz de Moros 1505-1571) created his work. He was the Spanish origin, lawyer, poet and priest, educated in Italian universities and brought to Poland in 1542. He lectured the Roman law in Cracow Academy to 1550, and since 1549 he had been a courtier of King Sigismundus Augustus¹ (Zablocki 1984, 292). Roysius was a friend of Rey, Kochanowski, Fricius-Modrevius and Górnicki, and he was a hero of *Epigrams* of Kochanowski (*About the Spanisz Doktor*). He wrote the court and anniversary poetry. He was an author of epicedium after a death of the king Sigismundus I in 1548 *Historia funebris in obitu divi Sigismundi Sarmatiarum regis...*, which was a description of the Royal Funeral and the praise of the dead, through the enumeration of serf, neighbours and sovereigns, who arrived for the ceremony. Roysius followed in his work the Homer's description in the meaning of Christian Cyceronianism which is disseminated by Erasmus (Ziomek 1977, 350)

Erasmian reflection on language and the heritage of the Polish-Latin and Latin-Polish poets

The idea of Christian Cyceronianism, which Erasmus proclaimed after Vida (the imitating not the Cyceronian Texas but his creative initiative) was present not only in Roysius texts and Kochanowski's (*Chess*, Cracow 1562 or 1566). It was present also in the creation of the Polish intellectuals of the second half of 16th century, who inscribed into the European humanists stream. One of them – Patrycy Nidecki (1522-1587), the classical philologist, Latin poet and church writer, who studied in Padua and was friend with Jan Kochanowski. Since 1556 he had been a secretary of the king Sigismundus Augustus, later of the queen Anna Jagiellonka. He remained as an esteemed editor and the specialist in commentaries of Cicero's works (*Fragmentorum M. T. Ciceronis tomi IV cum... adnotationibus*, 1561). At the same time Nidecki was the ceremonial poet and the religious polemist² (Ulewicz 1984, 21). The next Pole who was inspired by Erasmian Cyceronianism was Jakub Górski (1525-1585), the humanist, rhetorician, logician, philologist and priest. After the studies in Cracow Academy, he became a docent and eight times a rector. He published three handbooks on rhetorics, which increased the latynist culture in Poland. The next handbook of Górski served to dialectics by Cicero patterns and humanists, and it was highly evaluated in Europe³ (Barycz 1984, 322). In his polemics with Benedykt Herbest (1531-1593), the author of works devoted to the creation and life of Cicero, he supported Erasmus in his position on rhetorical period against the adherents who supported the Cicero's opinion. In spite of the insignificance of the polemic it was important to mention it because of the exhibition of the intellectual atmosphere of 1550s and 1560s, and indicated the certain common value of the European humanists (Ziomek 1977, 345). Although, that common value became looser in 1570s, that was the Erasmian Cyceronianizm inspired the intellect of the Polish-Latin poets in 17th century, when the counterreformation in Poland assisted with the regress of

¹ Stefan Zablocki, "Poizjusz Piotr", [w:] "Literatura Polska. Przewodnik Encyklopedyczny, red. J. Krzyżanowski, Cz. Hernas, Warszawa, PWN, 1984, T. 2, s. 292.

² Tadeusz Ulewicz, "Nidecki Andrzej Patrycy", [w:] "Literatura Polska. Przewodnik Encyklopedyczny, red. J. Krzyżanowski, Cz. Hernas, Warszawa, PWN, 1984, T. 2, s. 21.

³ Henryk Barycz, "Górski Jakub", [w:] "Literatura Polska. Przewodnik Encyklopedyczny, red. J. Krzyżanowski, Cz. Hernas, Warszawa, PWN, 1984, T. 1, s. 321-322.

intellectual literature located Polish Erasmianism at the margin of culture. The end of 16th century and at the beginning of 17th brought the crisis of social consciousness as well and as the result of an offensive counterreformation it brought the necessity of the religious choices, the verification of values and basic notions. It became a fact after the Council of Trent (1545-1563), resolutions of which paved the way for the broad counterreformation movement and dealt with the educational, sciences', arts' and literary program. In Poland, that crisis appeared through the retreat from the European sources of humanistic culture, and from Erasmus ideas, which was evidenced by the new publications hitherto Erasmianists, who reversed their values there. As the pattern one could recall the collection of poems of Jan Dantiscus *Hymni aliquot ecclesiastici* (1548), which were in ideological opposition to hitherto poet's and diplomat's achievements and were close to medieval values. The similar statement represented Stanislaw Hozjusz (Hosius), the author of the Preface of Dantiscus collection, and the leading representative of Polish counterreformation (Hernas 1978, 16). The most significant pattern of the Polish attempt to the Erasmian work in 17th century there were sermons of Fabian Birkowski. The problematic of his two volumes *Orationes ecclesiasticae* (1622) and *Sermons for the Sunday and Annual Feasts* (1620) included the deep critique of Erasmus ideology and the caution against the lecture of his work by Youths (Hernas 1978, 350-351).

Conclusion

The reception of Erasmus in Poland proceeded in different parallel streams. The work of the Great Humanist inspired Polish intellectuals in the 16th and the 17th centuries variously as well. The theological inspirations, linguistic and philosophical ones initiated the Polish „governmentality” and „self-consciousness” of the Polish humanists. That phenomenon accompanied the Erasmian position in propagating the New Latinism gave the beginning to the development of the literature in the national language. Not all of Polish writers and in not all of their works the name of Erasmus (was mentioned as the Master and the inspiration of the work or even its part. That happened in works of Jan Kochanowski and Andrzej Frycz-Modrzewski (Fricius-Modrevius), which however were deeply Erasmian. Sometimes he was only a “bridge” between the Polish and European humanism with its specificity, the “bridge” which was named the “Christian humanism”. The real adherents of Erasmus one could not find within his correspondents but just after the death of the Great Humanist, between the generation of the most significant representatives of, what Claude Backvis called, the “generation of 1543” (Backvis 1975, 572). In 1543 both Janicjus and Copernicus died, two outstanding Polish intellectuals. That year brought the first texts of Mikołaj Rej (Rey), Andrzej Frycz-Modrzewski (Fricius-Modrevius) and Stanislaw Orzechowski, three representatives who perfectly differ from each other. In the same year the important decision were taken, such as the decision of the written form of the “Constitution” passed by the Seym in the Polish language. This generation consisted of people, who – through their birth status and orientation represented the full consciousness of the social strata which created the high culture and successively held sway over nation, but originated from the middle and small noble class. Simultaneously that group required the reform and represented the different degree of fancy toward reformation movement. The fact, that the full reception of Erasmus took place in Poland after his death, thanks to new people, whom Erasmus would have not known, and whom he probably would have not esteemed as his dignitary friends, guaranteed the permanent influence of the Great Humanist on Polish culture. Because of that generation one could talk as of people who established humanism in Poland. They were the authors of the national form of humanism, the rejection of Italianism and accepting of Erasmianism as the point of reference (Backvis 1975, 572).

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Values Education from Perspectives of Classroom Teachers

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Abstract

Values education is a process, which begins at home and continues in society and in formal education institutions. The purpose of this research is to determine the opinions of primary school teachers about values education in primary schools. In the current research, the qualitative research method and focus group interview technique were used. The participants of the study were eight classroom teachers who were pursuing master's degree at the classroom education program of Afyon Kocatepe University. The participants were selected using the intense case sampling, which is part of purposeful sampling technique. The data were collected through audio-taped group interview. The credibility of this study was enhanced by expert review. The interview schedule was sent to experts for review. The trustworthiness of this study was established by the formula proposed by Miles and Huberman. It was calculated as 0.92. The data collected from the interview were examined using a qualitative data analysis approach. The findings of the study showed that if value education starts at early ages it would provide much more opportunity to prepare for future life, to improve personality and to have long-lasting values. The participants argued that parents are very significant in value education. The participants suggested that value education should be either an independent course or certain values should be taught in existing courses. They also proposed that in value education case studies and drama can be used and that positive and desired behaviours and empathy should be encouraged among children.

Keywords: Values, Values education, Teachers, Primary Schools, Primary school students.

Introduction

Value education is a process, which begins at home and continues in society and in formal education institutions (Başçı, 2012). In recent days the significance of values and having certain values have been emphasized (Özdaş, 2013). Given that values play a significant role in social life educational systems cover value education and it may be either through independent courses or through integration of values in different courses in the educational programs. On the other hand, educational institutions transfer values to students, which is one of the ways of socialization (Güngör, 1998). Therefore, teachers play a significant role in this regard. It is certain that in order to fulfil this specific role teachers should assimilate those values to be taught to students (Yılmaz, 2010). On the other hand, values have a significant effect on teachers' educational decisions and acts (Fasheh 1982). Values are related to the perception of anything as important or not important. For instance, a math teacher may or may not attach importance to reasoning, problem-solving or the use of technology in courses (Seah 2002). Values allow for individuals to understand what are prior and what are not. On the other hand, values should be taught at home and at formal education institutions (Bridge, 2003). If an educational approach which supports only cognitive and psycho-motor competence is adopted, then students cannot acquire affective gains which include values of the society (Baysal, 2013). Therefore, value education should be emphasized both at home and in schools.

There are many distinct definitions of values. In addition, Brown (2001) argued that it is not easy to define what value is. Turkish Language Association defined value as follows: "(value) is an abstract criterion to understand the significance of something" (www.tdk.gov.tr). Rath, Harmin and Simon argued that values are general guides for behaviours, which are

resulted from personal experiences (1987; cited in Seah & Bishop 2000). Swadener and Soedjadi (1988) regarded values as a concept or an idea, which is about the value of something. Saġnak (2004) stated that values are beliefs about individuals' ideal behaviour or their purpose of life, or multi-dimensional standards, which guide their behaviour.

There is limited number of educational studies dealing with values (Bishop, Fitz Simons, Seah, & Clarkson 1999; Seah & Bishop 2000). Although there are references to values in general educational goals of the ministry of national education and in general goals for primary education programs and secondary education programs, in Turkey there are no intensive studies on value education. In one of rare studies on value education Turkey Ateş (2013) revealed the views of primary school teachers and secondary education teachers about value education and the related teaching activities. The findings of the study showed that for the majority of the teachers sampled value education is needed and that families are not very powerful in promoting values, leaving it to schools without any support from media, non-governmental organizations. Baysal (2013) also analysed value education in Turkey and found that those teachers participated in value education-related seminars are much better in the use of materials in contrast to those who did not participate in such seminars or activities. It was also concluded that for teachers with parental involvement value education could be much more productive. Özalp-Kaplan (2014) argued that value education should be delivered in a specific course in which necessary sources and materials are used and that value education should be delivered with coordination between school, parents, society. Therefore, teachers should be informed about value education through in-service training activities. On the other hand, the perspectives of teachers about value education should be uncovered. Based on this assumption, the study aims at revealing the views of classroom teachers about the problems related to value education activities. In parallel to this aim the study attempts to answer the following research questions:

1. What do classroom teachers think about the necessity of value education for primary school students?
2. What do classroom teachers think about the contributions of parents to value education?
3. What do classroom teachers think about the process of value education in schools?
4. What do classroom teachers think about value education in teacher training programs? What are their suggestions to improve it?
5. What do classroom teachers think about making value education more efficient in out of school contexts?

Method

Design

The study was designed as a qualitative research. It employs group interviews to collect the data. Group interviews are part of qualitative research approach. The goal of group interviews is to gather people together to express their views about a specific topic. Group interviews take shorter time to complete. It is mostly employed when the participants work for the common goal and the views of each participant is significant for other participants (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007).

Participants

The participants of the study were classroom teachers who were pursuing master's degree at the classroom education program of Afyon Kocatepe University. The participants were selected using the intense case sampling, which is part of purposeful sampling technique. The intense case sampling is realized through the selection of those who have intense experience or views about the topic at hand (Schreiber & Asner-Self, 2011). The participants took the courses of "contemporary approaches towards science and technology education" and "novice approaches towards social studies teaching". In both courses value education was studied and discussed. The total number of the participants was eight, five of whom were males. Two participants were novice classroom teachers. The other two had a one-year teaching experience. One of the participants had a three-year teaching experience. Another one had a seven-year teaching experience. The remaining two had a nine-year teaching experience.

Data collection tools

The data of the study were collected through use of semi-structured interview forms. The interview form was developed by the author. It covered eight open-ended items. Internal validity of the interview form was established through the review of field specialists. A good field specialist review should deal with the question of whether or not the items are reasonable (Merriam, 2013). At the initial phase the interview form included ten open-ended items developed through the review of the related literature. The form was reviewed by three field specialists. They analysed the items in terms of the consistency of the coverage of the items and the understandability of the items. Based on the feedback of the specialists two items were excluded and the final form covered eight items. The items were asked to the participants in a face-to-face interview context.

Data analysis

The data collected from the interview were examined using a qualitative data analysis approach. Qualitative data analysis is mainly made up of coding the data, dividing the text into small units, using labels for each unit and grouping codes under themes. Code labels can be developed from either any word used by the participants, or any statement used by the researchers or any social scientific term (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2014). The interview data recorded were transcribed. The authors independently reviewed these transcriptions and developed the categories. Then categories were developed based on codes. Lastly the related categories were combined and were placed under sub-themes.

Reliability in qualitative research refers to consistency of the reviews of multiple coders. Therefore, mutually agreed ones indicate the reliability (Creswell, 2012). In the study codes developed by the authors were compared to reveal those which were mutually agreed. In the reliability analysis the formula developed by Miles and Huberman (1994) was employed (reliability = mutual agreement / (mutually agreement + disagreement)). The reliability coefficient was found to be 0.92.

Findings

Following the data analysis, it was found that there was one theme, value education process. This theme was found to have four different subthemes: Why early ages? Who are effective? what should be done? and What do the participants suggest? The subthemes were also found to include several categories. Table 1 shows the theme, sub themes and categories about value education found in the analysis.

Findings about the sub theme of “why early ages?” in value education

The participants mostly stated that value education should start at early ages. They argued that such a value education will help children to prepare for future life, to develop their personality, and to have long lasting attitudes and acts.

Life preparation

As stated earlier the participants thought that value education should start at early ages if it is to contribute to life preparation. One of the participants, Selçuk, stated “for me value education at primary school is important to prepare children for future life. It deals with life experience, perspectives and their attitude towards other people. I teach students in these topics to prepare them for future.”

Personality development

The participants argued that value education at early ages is effective because it helps personality development. One of the participants, Vildan, explained it as follows: “some values can only be acquired at early ages and become part of personality. For instance, being respectful for elderly people. If it is not taught at early ages, they may not learn it later. So we as primary education teachers should deliver value education.”

Permanence

The participants argued that skills and values learned at early ages will be long-lasting, therefore value education should be given at early ages. For instance, Ayçin stated the following view: “Value education should be given at the level of primary school. We have a related proverb, saying as the twig is bent so is the tree inclined. Therefore, some values should be acquired at early ages, making them long-lasting.”

Findings about the sub theme of “who are effective?” in value education

In regard to the sub theme of “who are effective (in value education)?” three categories were found: teachers, parents and society. The participants stated that although value education is related to the society as a whole both parents, teachers and society have their own effects on value education.

Parents

It was stated that parents are very significant in value education since it is first given at home. One of the participants, Ümit, reported “value education begins before formal education process. Values are first taught by parents. But does it true for all parents? Not possible. Some parents are not interested in value education of their children. For instance, in rural areas parents do not have enough time to focus on value education. As a result, children have insufficient education on values such as respect, tolerance, fairness and honesty. This may be complemented by formal education institutions.”

Another participant, Şerife, reported “when children come school they bring different cultural values to the school. They begin school with the values taught by the parents. Teachers try to teach different values. If parents cannot manage to teach values to children teachers cannot teach every single value to them. However, teachers are expected to manage it.”

One of the participants, Burak, dealt with the negative effects of parents on value education as follows: “some parents do not support value education, instead they have negative effects on it. Fathers may learn how to swear to their children. Such negative behaviours are sometimes supported by peers. It is hard to change this behaviour and to them that swearing is not desired in our culture.” Therefore, in some cases parents have negative effects on value education.

Society

The participants argued that society has also effects on value education and that in order to have children with well-established values formal value education at schools should be supported by society. For instance, Harun stated “I think there are disadvantages in teaching values in Turkey. I am not sure that teachers could effectively teach such values as being honest, protecting environment. Although these are taught at schools, I think students do not practice them in daily life. In order to have an efficient value education it should be supported by society.”

Another participant stated that everybody has a role in value education: “what we taught at schools is not reinforced by society. If it is reinforced, the goal can be achieved. Students come across very different situation society. I always tell my students that we must respect all living beings. One of my students saw a man who was broking the tree and warned him. That person exhibited very negative reaction what my student said. So he frustrated. I think he will not say the same again in similar situations.”

Teacher

The participants stated that for school-age children teachers are the models. One of the participants, Ömer, stated “Teachers are the models for students. One day I went class late since I was talking to the administrator. I told my students that I was late because of that. I think giving such explanations is useful to make them honest. Because when they are late for the class they can also say the reason for it honestly.”

Findings about the sub theme of “what should be done?” in value education

Value education courses in the educational program

Some of the participants argued that value education course can be covered in the primary school education program. They stated that all necessary values can be taught more easily. For instance, Harun expressed his view as follows: “religious culture and ethics course is given at the fourth class. It is about some of the values. But if we have an independent value education course students can develop an awareness about values. Can we teach values in each course? I think it is hard because of time constraints. I think it is reasonable to have a separate course for value education.”

Integration of value education with other courses

There are other participants who argued that instead of having an independent course for value education, values can be taught in different existing courses. For instance, Ayçin, reported that: "For instance, in life sciences course we taught such values as being respectful for their peers and others during the teaching of the democracy concept. In addition, in the Turkish language courses we teach other values including friendship, caring for other people while discussing related materials. While teaching divisions in mathematics course I encourage students to share what they have with their friends. Therefore, given that there is no independent course for value education we can use other courses to teach values whenever it is possible."

Using cases

The participants stated that in value education case studies can be employed. Such cases can be discussed in the class or can be used in drama activities. They also stated that if any student exhibited a positive behaviour he can be reinforced and can be given as an example for other students in classroom. One of the participants, Selçuk, stated "one of my students, Mehmet, accidentally hurt another student while playing a game in the school yard. When he saw me he embraced and escaped. Another student Emre brought the other student to toilet and washed his face. I said Mehmet that it was incorrect, since he should have brought him to toilet instead of Emre."

Parental support

One of the participants, Ömer, who believed that parental support is crucial for value education stated "if value education at schools are consistent with the values at home parents support it. Parents should be part of value education to increase the common values. For instance, parents can be informed about the values to be taught at school and they can be part of decision making process about which values should be integrated into the program. If children have experience about the same values at school and at home, learning will be long-lasting. It also facilitates value education."

In a similar vein another participant, Vildan reported "as Ömer argued it is in fact the education of parents. They should have contradictory ideas. If any value taught at school is not given importance at home teaching is not significant for students. For instance, if child is not part of decision making process at home, he cannot comprehend the value of democracy. And a contradiction occurs if it is taught at home. Therefore, parental support should be granted if value education is to be effective."

Out of school activities

The participants emphasized the fact that the task of value education is not solely responsibility of schools and that it should be shared with society. They suggested that activities should be designed with all related parties in value education.

One of the participants, Burak, stated "for instance in the town where I am working a project to avoid swearing was carried out. It was started by local administration and all people supported it. In the project using different devices such as brochures this value was emphasized and children became aware of it."

Society based projects

One of the participants, Selçuk, talked about another activity to maintain permanence of values: "In the school we have society based activities. We connect value education with such activities. There a widower living alone in the village. Students brought several materials for her. Some of the students visited her at home and they helped her. Out small scale activity reached its goal."

Findings about the sub theme of "what do the participants suggest?" in value education

Teacher training programs

The participants stated that teacher training programs do not have any subject dealing with the activities related to value education. For instance, Ömer stated "I have been a teacher for three years, I did not hear even the name of value education

in the teacher training program. I heard it following my profession as a teacher. I which I got courses on it, because I could easily handle it. I had hard times to think about designing activities in value education.”

In-service training activities

The participants suggested that insufficient knowledge base of teachers about value education may disappear if they participate in in service training courses on value education. They reported that in-service training activities about value education should include both theoretical information and practice. Such a training will assist them in teaching values. One of the participants, Harun, stated “If in in-service training activities we are given both theoretical information and practical knowledge about value education, we will experience problems in value education at minimal level.”

Project-based performance practices

The participants suggested that in order to promote value education the projects developed by teachers may be rewarded and teachers may be given extra credits for their activities. For instance, Ümit stated his view as follows: “projects can be carried out in relation to value education. Such projects can be evaluated by inspectors. If it is found to be useful, either school or teacher may be given extra credit. It should be rewarded.”

Selection of teachers

The participants argued that teachers should have the values to be taught. in the selection of teachers this point can be taken into consideration. For instance, Ayçin stated her view as follow: “teacher responsibility is very significant. Each step in teaching profession several criteria should be used to choose future teachers. I think it is the most significant part of the process.” A similar view was expressed by another participant, Vildan: “The behaviour of student teachers should be followed. They can be tested in terms of values they have. Those who could not have a certain level should not be teacher.”

Results and Discussion

The findings of the study showed that if value education starts at early ages it would provide much more opportunity to prepare for future life, to improve personality and to have long-lasting values. The participants argued that parents are very significant in value education. However, parents may either positive or negative effects on value education of their children. Lucas (2009) also emphasized the significance of parents and found that for teachers one of the significant actors in character education is parents. Ateş (2013) concluded that positive values taught by parents reinforce value education at schools, but if there is any contradiction between the values of parents and those emphasized at schools it is hard for teachers to teach the desired values. Kılıç Şahin (2010) also maintained that parents are very significant in value education and that value contradiction between home and school makes hard for teachers to teach the desired values. Similarly, Aslan (2007) found that the inability of teachers to teach basic skills, knowledge and values is directly related to the indifference of parents. All these findings are consistent with each other.

The findings of the current study also showed that social support is needed to make value education successful. Robinson-Lee (2008) also reached a similar conclusion and emphasized that involvement of all related parties is needed for an effective character education. Cooperation of educators, school administrators, parents and society members should exist if the values taught to be effective and all these parties should be informed about character education.

In the study it was also found that for school-age students the effects of teachers on value education begins and teachers function as significant role models for students. This finding is consistent with the findings of the previous studies. For instance, Ishii (2010) found that teachers' caring behaviour, honesty, peaceful manner are significant part of an effective character education programs. Similarly, Veugelers (2000) found that in teaching values teachers are significant and they encourage students to acquire certain values. Ateş (2013) concluded whether consciously or unconsciously teachers are role model to students and therefore, they should reinforce positive values through this function. Can (2008) also concluded that teachers effectively make use of being model, empathy and value clarification in value education. Veugelers and Kat (2003) suggested that teachers should be aware of the fact that they are role models for students and should use this function to reinforce the values that are being taught.

The participants suggested that value education should be either an independent course or certain values should be taught in existing courses. They also proposed that in value education case studies and drama can be used and that positive and desired behaviours and empathy should be encouraged among children. Therefore, teachers should be prepared for such functions. There are previous findings, which are consistent with the findings of the study. For instance, Çengelci (2010) analysed how value education is delivered in the fifth grade social studies courses. It was found that several distinct activities are used for value education, including case studies, example events, being models, certain days and weeks, drama, actual events, empathy, association, relations with other courses, non-governmental organizations, parental involvement, and out of school activities. Johansson (2002) found that teachers employed empathy, using different perspectives, modelling, rewarding positive behaviors to teach ethical values. Tokdemir (2007) found that history teachers used case studies, narrations, demonstrations, empathy, projects, visits and observations in value education. Similarly, Akbaş (2004) concluded that teachers employed various methods in value education including stories, movies, drama, biography, drama, discussions.

The findings of the study also indicated that parental support contributes to value education at school and that there should be consistency between the value of parents and value education at school. Similarly, Baysal (2013) concluded that for teacher's parental support is very significant in value education. Deveci and Dal (2008) concluded based on the reports of classroom teachers that when values taught at school are not supported at home long-term behaviour modification cannot be achieved. Similarly, in the study by Yaşar and Çengelci (2009) parents argued that in value education they are very significant and they should be models for their children. Beldağ (2012) found that in acquiring values the parents play very significant role and that both teachers and parents should model for the children.

Another finding of the study is that the participants were not trained about how to deliver value education during the teacher training programs. They suggested that teachers can be informed about value education through in-service training courses. On the other hand, there is no obligatory course for value education in teacher training programs, but some programs have optional course about value education or character education. Previous findings are consistent with this finding of the study. For instance, Başçı (2012) concluded that teachers do not have necessary knowledge base about value education and how to deliver it and that teachers should be given an opportunity to fill this gap through quality seminars. Yalar (2010) also concluded that in-service training activities will be useful for teachers to deliver value education. Fidan (2009) concluded that student teachers are not trained on values and how to teach values, indicating that they do not have enough information about value education. Thornburg (2008) found in a qualitative study that teachers do not have sufficient knowledge about value education.

Based on the findings of the study it is safe to argue that value education should be reconceptualised and reorganized taking into consideration the relationships between teachers, parents and society. For instance, with the cooperations of ministry of national education and higher education institutions campaigns can be organized concerning values to inform society. Teachers may take part in seminars on value education. Teacher training programs may include optional courses on value education in which micro teaching activities are used.

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Tables

Table 1. Theme, sub themes and categories about values education

Theme	Sub theme	Categories
Values education process	Why early ages?	Life preparation Personality development Permanence
	Who are effective?	Parents Society Teachers
	What should be done?	Inserting value education course into the program Integration of value education with other courses Using case studies Parental involvement Social projects Out of school activities
	What do the participants suggest?	Teacher training programs In-service training activities Project and performance implications Criteria for choosing teachers

Problems Following the Education of Roma Children in Their Free Movement and Their Attempts for Asylum

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Abstract

Immigration is a growing phenomenon in the recent years with its characteristics on the social groups which are mainly involved and with its impact on the educational level of children also. The life of Roma children is associated with a lot of economic and social problems. They often move inside or outside the country for a more normal life. Frequent changes have their own psycho-social impact on children, as the most sensitive category of the society. They often suffer the long-term consequences which influence the progress of their education and future. Multicultural education and inclusive education are considered to be a good opportunity for marginalised groups offering equal education opportunities in the destination country the same as in their native country, but still they come across some difficulties. This is a qualitative research which aims at giving an analysis about the impact of immigration on the multicultural education and on the inclusion of children within the education system. What happens to these children once in the destination countries and how do they adapt their old experience? What is the impact of this transition on their emotions? The case study was performed through the: theoretical study of the phenomenon, monitoring, students, parents, educators and focus groups' interviews. This study is focused on the primary and low secondary school students. This study introduces some evidence provided by children, educators and parents, proving that returning back to your home country does only enrich their life experience. It does not have a clear positive effect on their education and inclusion to the education process.

Keywords: Education, Inclusion, Multicultural Inclusion, Asylum, economic – social difficulty.

Introduction

Problems following the education of Roma children in their free movement

Globalisation, economic problems and disputes are some of the reasons causing free or obliged movement of different social cultural groups towards more developed countries. They are obliged to seek for better living conditions and they also have to live with the variety of problems related to the cultural characteristics of the nation that they represent and of the country that they come from. Usually the movement takes place from developing countries to already developed or economically consolidated countries. Immigration is a growing phenomenon in the recent years with its characteristics on the social groups which are mainly involved and with its impact on the educational level of children also.

Educational experiences of refugee children in the developed countries, for example in the United States, are from the most marginalised educational groups internationally. Actually, more than half of the 57 million out-of-school children globally live in conflict-affected environment (UNESCO, 2013).

Often the actual kind of knowledge migrant children possess is not of an academic type and as such cannot be measured by the available standardized assessment tools. (Adams & Kirova, 2005, p. 8). This can result in teachers giving priority to socially sensitive teaching practices, but teachers may also feel less competent to provide the adequate level of content to the newcomer children, and to facilitate their learning. The lack of appropriate curriculum (materials) and sound information about the child's previous educational experiences, as well as poor assessment of general knowledge and skills, can pose challenges to teachers' daily life in a classroom with these children (Educational International, 2010).

While parents try to improve the quality of their children's lives, they fail to think of their education. Despite the multicultural profits and life experience gained, they risk a permanent disengagement from school. Children face several challenges once in the new country, such as, facing the unknown, social-emotional adaptation, cultural adaptation, extreme difficulties which their families go through, etc. Beside the tradition of the destination country, becoming part of a new education system usually it is based on two strategies, the inclusive and multicultural education, which the last two years are globally considered to be priorities.

Theoretical point of view on the inclusive education and multicultural education

Inclusive education and multicultural education are education strategies which aim the inclusion and qualitative education of vulnerable and marginalised groups in both the origin and destination countries. Inclusion means being offered equal education opportunities and multicultural education means to give support and show respect for the culture of the country from where the children come.

Banks (1996) defined multicultural education as "a field of study and an emerging discipline whose major aim is to create equal opportunities for students from diverse racial, ethnic, social and cultural groups."(Banks, 1996, p. 46). Nieto (2004)views multicultural education as a process that requires not only challenging issues of difference and diversity, but also those of power and privilege. In other words, when inequitable structures, policies and practices of schools exist, they must be confronted.(Nieto S. , 2004).

Nieto and Bode (2008) expand upon this definition to include seven characteristics of multicultural education. First, multicultural education is antiracist. (Nieto & Bode, 2008)

First, multicultural education is antiracist.

Second, it is basic, meaning multicultural education should be considered as important as reading, writing, and math. Thirdly, multicultural education is critical for all students, not just for students of colour, or those who are considered disadvantaged. Fourth multicultural education is pervasive. It is embedded in all aspects of school life, environment, lessons, and relationships among teachers, students, and the larger school community. Fifth, multicultural education promotes social justice. Sixth, multicultural education is an ongoing, complex process that is never fully complete. Last, multicultural education is critical pedagogy based on experiences, knowledge, and viewpoints of the learners and the teachers.

Manning and Baruth (2009) suggest multicultural education is both a concept and process, designed to "teach learners to recognize, accept, and appreciate differences in culture, ethnicity, social class, sexual orientation, religion, special needs and gender"(Manning & Baruth, 2004, p. 5). In addition, they believe multicultural education should instill a sense of responsibility and a commitment toward the democratic tenants of justice, equality and democracy. Bennett's (2011) writes, "Multicultural education is a complex approach to teaching and learning that includes the movement toward equity in schools and classrooms, the transformation of the curriculum, the process of becoming multiculturally competent, and the commitment to address societal injustices"(Bennett, 2011). Regardless of minor nuances in these descriptions, educators bear the responsibility for changing school culture to reflect the values of multiculturalism(Dimmock & Walker, 2005).

Inclusive education is an educational strategy aiming the effective inclusion of children in educational activities. Inclusion and integration represent two concepts being so close but far from education.

It is important to make the difference between these two concepts. Inclusion represents a wider concept than integration. Even though integration aims the inclusion of special needs students within the education system, still it is different from inclusion. Different authors (Soder, 1991; Jordan and Powell, 1994; Major, PijandHegarty,1997) stated that "integration comes after exclusion, as a way to avoid it. Integration can result in adapting the scholar programme to the special needs of students, but that is not enough for their inclusion within education. In the worst case, integration leads only to physical presence of children with special needs within the general schools or to a new version of the scholar programme."

Inclusion means much more that physical presence. "In order to provide inclusive education, various levels of politics and thoughts are needed as it is not only a school concern. It goes beyond connected to the life of children beyond school, to their family and community" (Stangvik, 1997). "Inclusion does not mean only to arrange school environment, but reforming

the school”(Pijl, Meijer, & Hegarty, 1997). Reformation means changes in the mentality of the policymakers and professionals of education. Traditional mentality in favour of the education system shall be open for changes influenced by the contemporary paradigm in education and it shall offer solutions for the children’s advantage.(Pijl, Meijer, & Hegarty, 1997, p. 151)

Education in Albania and marginalised groups

Albania is undergoing an extended economic, political and social transition. Its education system is being reformed due to the need of changes under the influence of globalizing factors. From time to time laws and strategies have been created in favour of thereformation of school policie supporting the multicultural and inclusive education. The first concerning issue seems to be about what’s written and what is being put into practice within the education institutions. The implementation of education reform in Albania leads to an education system that includes diversity of students and that adapts education to this diversity. In general, the education environment is characterised by the mentality “one-size-fits-all” and the concept of inclusive education is based on equal teaching for all students, despite their profiles, social background, skills and personal style and without following them individually” (Sultana, 2006). Various researches on the education field have shown that the education reform goes through three levels: the teacher’s attitude against students with special needs, adapting the curricula and factors outside the school. The second concerning issue is about how trained and qualified is the pedagogical staff in order to work with those students part of that contingent that needs inclusive education. Inclusive education opposes the avoidance and oppressive values against people and groups in need. These values consider these people as weak due to their problems and negate them as humans.(Armstrong, 2003). In the form of inclusive education, multicultural education interferes as an effective approach. Reducing prejudice and being socially fair, are key standards which need to be empowered and extended within the education system. It presents the role of school in the development of the key attitudes and values to a democratic society. It appreciates the cultural differences and affirms the pluralism reflected by the students, their community and the teacher. It challenges all types of discrimination at school and within the society through promoting the democratic principles of social rights(Sultana, 2006). But still education is a weak point for certain social groups, especially for the Roma people. Marginalisation is the cause to partial inclusion and integration. The Roma inclusion decade 2005-2015, which is the most absolute initiative for the improvement of their life, recognizes education as the key to their social integration. Through this research we are trying to provide a qualitative and measurable perspective of the Roma children education in Albania. Over than 90% of Roma children do not have a studying place at home. About 70% of them state that their parents are not able to offer them their help when studying. About 90% of children state that they do not follow any additional courses on those subjects they might face difficulties. The quality of education received by the Roma children is quite more reduced than that of others(Pasha, 2012).Inclusion and the inclusive strategy are considered by the law on eduation, still no achievements are accomplished.

Albania lacks the full and proper data on the level of education of Roma children, especially for those from official census. Meanwhile, contradicory data come from administrative resources, from various surveys, official estimates or nongovernmental societies. Even the results from Census 2011 did not provide real figures. A lot of debate and discussions came from the side of diferent societies and organizations interested on this target group. There are various reasons why we lack the correct figures. The Roma people live in the outlying districts, in remote not properly urbanised areas. There should be a clear record taken from the responsible people on the lack of roads and buildings fearing the stigmatization and misuse of the information for discrimination purposes or diesbelieving the state or the scepticism against the profits received from participating in the census;(INSTAT, 2011)

Meanwhile, it is generally known that school enrolment and attendance and the quality of education of the Roma children is very low, school dropouts rates are high and a small group of Roma children graduate in elementary school, even less graduate in high school or university. They say that the Roma children experience various forms of prejudice, discrimination and segregation.

The reasons why the Roma children do not regularly attend school or drop out school are: unregistered births, immigration, commitment to work or helping out their parents who work, lack of knowledge of the Albanian language and unsatisfying assessment at school, being embarrassed to restart school after several dropouts, the need to protect girls once they are teenagers, low educational support from their parents, goods poverty, racism/discrimination.

2.2. Social, economic and cultural characteristics of the Roma community related to education

The Roma and other migrating communities make the biggest minority group in Europe. They observed that in the European Union countries discrimination and other abuses of the human rights against the Roma and other migrating people have been deteriorating and no European government can pretend to be successful in defending the human rights for these minorities which urged the development of an inclusive report on the situation of the Roma and migrating communities in Europe.(UNDP , 2006)

Estimates show that the Roma population in Albania varies from 80.000 – 120.000. They are mainly located in the suburb of the cities. They have mainly their identity and conserve their language. The rate of unemployment and illiteracy is four times higher compared to the majority of the population(UNDP , 2006). Social exclusion is viewed as the main cause of their poverty. Governmental policies for the Roma community are known as Ethno-linguistic and not as a national minority due to the lacking a motherland. Yet government says that rights deriving from the Framework Convention on National Minorities are applicable to the Roma people also.

There is a special act related to the policies of education of the Roma children (OSCE, 2003). Even though, many positive attempts referring to school reconstruction or new classes available in the Roma community areas, referring to teachers' trainings and free books dispatching, education strategy objectives have been partially achieved. Although there are specific plans for the implementation of this strategy, the government has not provided the necessary manpower, institutional and financial resources for the implementation of relevant monitoring and evaluating bodies. The ministry of Education and Sports has undertaken the initiative of "second chance" for the education of the Roma children, which represents the most important step towards their educational and social integration. The current strategy for the Roma has not addressed the problem of racism segregation that they do actually experience at school. The objectives of the Roma strategy have not addressed the influence of their family as the most important aspect of education. Education provided to the Roma children does not take into consideration the special sociology of the Roma as a social group.(FRA, 2014, p. 13). All these special and important issues of concern have direct impact on their studying progress. The vicious circle leads only to poverty which can be avoided through giving up school.

The methodology of study

The case study has been achieved through: theoretical study of the phenomenon, research on documentation, interviews with students, educators, school directors and focus groups of parents.

The qualitative study has been performed in a school in the outlined district of Tirana where 35% of its students are Roma students and 90% from those who have been seeking asylum are Roma students. Children who together with their families lived in destination countries were included in the study. The theoretical study of the phenomenon was based on the contemporary literature in order to have a study with multiple points of view.

The research has been mainly focused on the data provided by schools. These documents reflect the attendance and progress of children in the countries where their families were seeking asylum. Only those attending German schools have submitted documents from corresponding schools. Students studying in other countries were not provided with the requested documents.

Through the interviews with students we were introduced to the long way towards asylum, their emotional experiences and description of schools that they have attended in the destination countries.

The interviews with teachers were performed in order to make an analysis on the situation of the children after their return from relevant schools.

The interviews with school directors were performed to have information on the behaviour towards them once they are returned in their old classrooms and to have a deeper knowledge on the problems which follow the phenomenon.

Focus groups were created in order to have an answer why they are always leaving to other countries, regardless of the refusal of their request for asylum, in order to confront their thoughts and understand in depth their lives challenges and their mentality.

Which are the factors that lead the Roma community in Albania to seek asylum

Poverty is the major factor that draws them to seek asylum. Albania lacks the official statistics but subsequent studies have been made from various organizations offering their help to this community as per humanitarian and study purposes also.

The average income per head for Roma people in Albania, in the first half of the last decade has been estimated less than one third of those non-Roma people and over 80% of them live under the living level of 14%.

On the other hand, the regional study of 2011 for the Roma gives the average 37% live under the estimated indigence rate for the Roma population or more than the duplicated estimated indigence for the non-Roma population who lives near to the Roma areas.

The study results published by the UNDP in 2006 show the Roma unemployment level is almost 3 times higher than the non-Roma population as a result of the combined poor teaching and discrimination. According to the regional study of the Roma in 2012, the quality of their living conditions is problematic. 36% out of the Roma houses, 61% from them do not have a toilet. A considerable number of Roma houses (30%) do not have direct access to consumable water. (OSCE, 2013)

Two years later, another study writes: generally the major problems for the Roma community have economic nature related to the possibility to afford a decent life, like, unemployment, lack of food, lack of living conditions etc. The Roma seems to be quite pessimistic about their near future finance. Only 15% of them think that their economic condition will be better in 2013 than in 2012. The remaining think that it will become worse (33%), or that it will continue to be the same (24%), or that they do not know how to answer (29%).

According to their statements, their family income can only help them survive and in the majority of cases they can hardly survive. Incomes from informal activities, like collecting and selling recycled materials is the main way 40% to earn their living. If we come to include those who declare to earn their living from employment in the informal private sector (10%), and those declaring occasional employment as the main way of earning a living (day based work, 11%), the result is 61% of Roma families earn their living through working in informal sectors.

The only chance of doing a state paid job is for some family heads working in the greenery or cleaning service, etc.

The Roma community is unsatisfied even from the labour office (about 74%). They state that from those declared as unemployed; only 29% are registered in the labour office while 71% of the unemployed Roma people who could have the support of the labour office services are not able to register.

The Roma state several causes for their unemployment. They are mainly related to the lack of job opportunities generally in Albania, ethnicity, their low educational and professional level. So, the data show that 81% of the Roma people do not have a profession, 9% have low demand professions and only 6% have inn-demand jobs.

Living conditions for the Roma are too difficult. According to the study, 35% of Roma families live in no larger than 40m² areas and that 31% of their houses are used by two or more families. 18% of Roma families live in huts and shacks, in very difficult conditions and there is no opportunity to turn them into legal properties, while 50% of them declare living in old houses.

Nearly one in three Roma people say "unemployment" is their major problem in their ordinary life. Generally, the real problem of this community is their financial status and challenge of affording a decent life... (Pasha, 2012, p. 14)

Among the most common works are: second hand goods trade, collecting recycling materials, plastic and paper. In order to collect all these materials they wander through garbage bins near to the urban areas or at the garbage patches. We have to stress that different aged children are involved in these works.

Another common phenomenon is their exploitation as street beggars. Cases when they are monitored by mentors are even more serious, working under pressure to collect certain amounts of money. Very often TV investigative programmes have shown facts that these children are victims of human trafficking. Often, Roma families are big families which consist of numerous members and the elders take decisions on behalf of the young members, usually affecting their education in

favour of early marriages or keeping girls at home. During a session from the interviews of focus groups with parents, they say: "although we have been through a lot of difficulties such as our journey to Germany and moving from one camp to the other while seeking for asylum, after being unsuccessful and returning back here, we will keep trying. We cannot have a proper job here; we collect various materials, refrigerators, washing machines whenever we find any. Our earnings per day depend on the goods we collect. Women are unemployed while our little kids need care. We do not have assistance and if we go there, for sure we will be provided financial support and shelter. Besides, we can do some works of community and maintenance service etc. Our major problem is language, as it prevents us from getting a job but we hope our children learn."

Another parent says that they sell second hand goods but this is not being allowed anymore as the police are asking for business license and permits and in contrary they take hold of all goods. "But we don't have licenses for this! I won't apply for one anyway! Do we earn enough money to apply for one?"

Free movement and immigration impact on education and confrontation of the Roma children to new reality

Being a group in need and always affected by subsequent changes and traditionally moving from one country to another, they often experience new things. A lot of refugee children experience dropouts from school or limited approach to education.

Based on relevant policies in the destination countries, refugee children are included within the education system and they can attend language classes according to their age. A lot of difficulties related to adaption to the new educational level are witnessed, mainly related to their learning progress in their homeland.

The educational experience of the refugee children in the First Asylum countries seem to be far from the objectives of the UNCHR. These global education models for the refugee children in the First Asylum countries have had their impact on their education after resettling to the destination countries.

Refugee children might manifest some learning difficulties, due to school dropouts, not because they are lacking skills. Learning gaps can be minor (after dropping out school for some weeks only) or big (years without attending school). Education is often sporadic after they are settled in the new country, which can influence their families' attitudes. Based on the past experience, teachers can recognize the parents or children's hesitation to invest time on school and relevant relationship. Refugee children are usually exposed to multiple language learning which can lead to language confusion and limited opportunities to master academic language.

Careful attention is necessary in order to identify the learning needs based on their academic experience, compared to the born capacities to learn. There are various factors that might prevent refugees' enrolment at school, including their living in acute needs; conflict, legal restrictions according to enrolment and frequent displacement in the first asylum countries, and also the fear of getting exposed to migration applications or other authorities.

Refugee children usually face language barriers. They can have obstacles with lessons that have to be learnt in a different language from their own, or in case they have to take lessons in a limited resource environment in order to support language learning. Refugees in the same class can speak different languages which need various interpretations; they can slow down or interrupt the teaching process. They are usually exposed to many languages which prevent them from mastering one of them.(Bourgonje, 2010)

Children leaving Albania, face two language challenges. First, in their country the lesson is not held in the Roma language. They speak their language just in the family setting and when they attend Albanian schools, they start to learn Albanian language as their first foreign language, spoken and written. In the asylum countries they are introduced to a new unknown language. So, in a very short time, they are exposed to three different languages. If we add academic barriers to this, children then will feel not ready to attend school.

Education in the destination countries

Problems with education in the destination countries have been treated by various researcher in the recent years. International data show the growing rates of migration all over the world and more than the half of refugees consists of

children. Migration has several educational impacts (Bourgonje, 2010). It is important to highlight that there is no difference between educational problems and needs. Children of refugee and immigrants seeking asylum has turned into a global concern for educators. Education systems face the need to answer to the current tendencies of migration and to the demographic changes of students in an adequate manner.

Migrant education is high on the policy agenda in many OECD countries. Growth of the ethnic and cultural diversity provides new opportunities and challenges within the education systems. While, focusing on outcomes for these children and reviewing education policies at the international level, has rarely been done. In 2008, The OECD Thematic Review on Migrant Education has started a project in support of developing practices by ensuring a deep analysis on the approach to immigrants' education (OECD, 2008).

There is a low and unequal education provided to refugees. As a result, even those refugees who have displaced their children from the first asylum countries might have lower skills and knowledge than their peers.

Another problem for Roma children from Albania is that they leave without getting any documents from schools. How do they integrate in their new classrooms?

The focus group with parents said: "school enrolment was arranged by the social centre that used to cover: monthly payment, health problems, school, so, you could turn to them for any issue of concern. Enrolment in classes or language courses was done according to age. You could receive language classes in common classrooms for three days and in your classroom for two days. They were integrated at school but depending on the interest and possibility shown by their parents. Parents' interest was relative from one family to the other. The most important thing was learning the new language, and this was worth for us parents as well."

The Roma students who had attended school came from several European countries, such as: Italy, France and Germany. Only a few students had attended classes regularly according to their age. Only those students coming from German schools were provided with the corresponding documentation. Picture 1, shows one photo of the documentation provided to student A. R. by the school she used to go to.

Picture 1

61130 NIDDERAU - WINDESHEIM

Schuljahr: 2014 / 2015 2. Halbjahr Jahrgangsstufe: 3
Klasse: 3c

Zeugnis

Arbeitsverhalten	<u>1</u>	Sozialverhalten	<u>2</u>
Pflichtunterricht			
Religion	<u>*</u>	Kunst**	<u>2</u>
Deutsch	<u>*</u>	Musik	<u>2</u>
Sachunterricht	<u>*</u>	Sport / Schwimmen	<u>2</u>
Mathematik	<u>*</u>	Englisch** (1 Fremdsprache)	<u>2</u>

Bemerkungen: Anisa lebt erst seit Oktober 2014 in Deutschland und geht seitdem regelmäßig zur Schule.
* Als Seiteneinsteiger erfolgt, durch die Verordnung zur Gestaltung des Schulverhältnisses Teil 7 §56 geregelt, in diesen Fächern eine Verbalbeurteilung. Benotung nicht zu vertreten.

Versäumnisse: 0 Tag(e) (0 Tag(e) entschuldigt / 0 Tag(e) unentschuldigt)
0 Stunde(n) (0 Stunde(n) entschuldigt / 0 Stunde(n) unentschuldigt)

Sie wird in die Jahrgangsstufe 4 versetzt.

61130 Nidderau, den 24. Juli 2015 Kenntnis genommen.
(Datum)

In the document it is said: A.R. lives in Germany from the last October and since that time she attended school regularly.

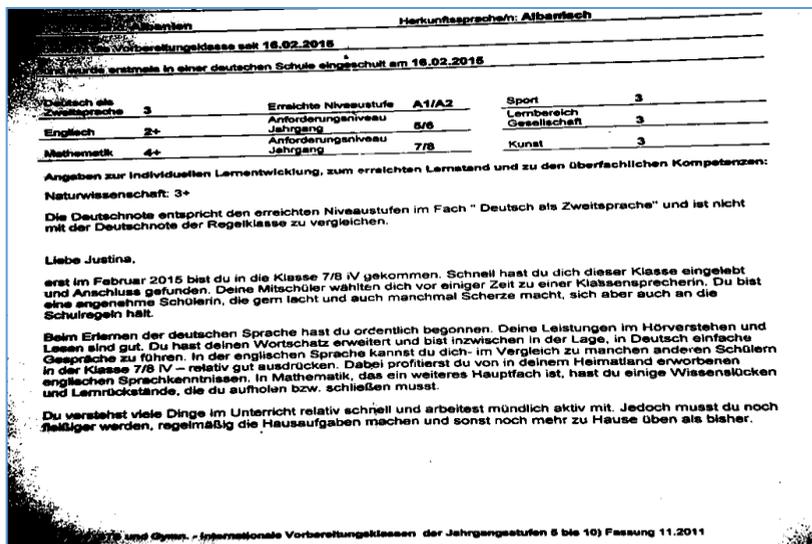
In German language she masters reading. She is confident when reading already conducted texts but her reading skills in new texts are vulnerable. Her writing is recognizable. A. R. is able to use capital or lower case letters in her exercises. She has done progress in mathematics. She is willing to work according to her abilities and enjoys her achievements. A. R. is interested in ethics and her inclusion varies according to her language skills during the class. She is very active during school activities. She learns quickly and she is highly motivated. Her vocabulary has improved and she is able to discuss with teachers and peers.

Picture 2



Certificate of Attendance. She was born on 19 May in Tirana and she is attending the academic year 2015-2016, seventh grade. She attended school from 01.08.2015 to 11.11.2015

Picture 3 is a photo of the document from student J. XH.



In the document it is said: for student j. XH., German language assessment shows the achieved level in German language and it is not the equivalent to the normal classes evaluation. Dear J. XH. you came at school in February 2015 and you integrated within a short time. You are a very good student, always smiling; you make jokes but always respecting the rules. You are always learning and your listening and reading skills are very good. Your vocabulary is improved and you are able to make simple discussions in German language. As compared to other students, you can express yourself very good in English language. There are a few deficiencies in mathematics which you need to improve, as it is one of the key subjects. You can understand things relatively fast, and your verbal communication is active. Even though, you have to show your earnest effort to regularly do your homework and get more exercises done at home.

Observations performed within the school environment after returning back at their homelands

In some countries, the Roma asylum seekers have been provided kind of temporary defence, which prevented them from getting the status of the resident even not progressive exhibition of their rights. Repetition of the disposition of a shortly "tolerated" status has prevented thousands of Roma people to come and integrate within the new societies. The right to asylum has been recognized by the United Nations Convention relating to the Status of Refugees (1951) for all refugees without discrimination. The Roma asylum seekers and displaced persons have to be treated the same as the non-Roma asylum seekers or displaced people. Many European countries have performed banishing practices for the Roma. The document from the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe, 20 guidelines on *forced return* provides the standards on defence procedures which the state members should respect when undertaking forced return. The guidelines stress that group banishing of expats is forbidden (UNDP, 2006).

After they return back to Albania, schools adapt the current laws, that means putting the child at the same classes they were attending before leaving. The school director says: "based on the guideline for students returned from immigration date, 10.11.2015, students returning from immigration, especially those coming back from Germany, and from other countries also, get enrolled according to their age, after doing an exam testing the level of their knowledge, or converting the results from the documentation provided by the previous school. Usually there is no documentation provided, or it does not fit with our system. So, they attend classes just a limited number of subjects, such as language, mathematics and a few sciences, but they have proper attendance at school and regular learning. There are 19 students who returned from immigration and started to attend the same grade that they were previously attending. Their performance was poor even though they keep attending school regularly, but still improvement is difficult. The documentation provided by these students, they evaluate the language knowledge as a second language, basic knowledge which makes not possible for them the understanding of the information but evaluation is given to their commitment and willingness to learn. There are at least 11 students who have decided abandon school as they think they will not make it and they do not accept to follow lower grades. Separation from school have many consequences in children, they aim at dropping out school, especially if they are in the higher grades."

After going back to school, student L. 13 years old describes her return as follows: "we left our country because my mother was unemployed, my father sells second hand clothes in the trade market, but we cannot afford a living as there are 6 members in my family. We left on July 2015, traveled by bus, ferry, and then by bus again, changing a country every 3 hours. We stayed for 1 month in camps. We spent 15 months abroad. We couldn't attend a lot of courses as we were moving quite often. If we stayed more we could go to school. As we were told the school was a very good one. We couldn't go to school, so we attended just a few courses instead. I was happy to come back because I missed my friends and my school."

Student I, 6th grade, says that: "we could learn some things, some German, some English, we did some sports like swimming and other sports, we sometimes went to excursions or camping. I can't say it was not good, but I like it more here. My mother, my father and my sisters and brothers went back to Germany again, but I didn't want to. I preferred to stay here with my grandparents because I missed them, I missed my neighbourhood, my friends and my school. Despite this, I feel better with my old friends. When I first came here, I knew just a little Albanian as we used to speak Roma language at home, then I got used to it, while I had to learn German and English there. It was difficult for me to learn two additional languages and even though I tried, I could hardly find the words to speak."

Student E, 5th grade, after her return back she says, "We were so happy to come back, especially me and my sisters as our home and friends are here."

H, 5th grade, describes her journey back like this: "We used to go to school there. A kind of a supervisor, used to come and enrol us in different courses. There were about 20 students from different nationalities and age in these classes, but we didn't feel bad about it. I liked the way how we used to learn English and my performance was good. There were TVs and the blackboards were similar to TVs. We used to do mathematics and we it was clear those coming from Afghanistan were very good in mathematics. I like it more there, even school was better. I started being friends with an Italian girl. I would like to go back again."

A, 15 years old, says: "I stayed at school for 9 months. There were 40 students in the classroom. There was food service at school. I had a school card and I used to go there regularly. I started to like school after learning German. I will regularly attend school here also, even though I started being absent a few times before leaving Germany because I had to help my family at the trade market sometimes."

Student J, 15 years old, reveals her experience: "we spent almost 2 years there. I went there with my family and the cause was financial situation for sure. We don't earn a lot here; my parents do not have a permanent job. I started to go to school there, so did my sisters. There is not much similarity between schools here and there. I don't know, but school there is less busy and more practical than here. We will try to go back there again. Meanwhile I will finish elementary school here."

In their interviews, teachers describe some of their students who returned back here.

The second grade teacher says: "when I ask him, "what did you learn? Which were your favorite subjects there?" - He looked at me amazed. He tells me that they used to play with friends and teachers in the classroom and in the yard also." The teacher describes her work like this: "We aim to provide teaching techniques based on games, not only because of the physical conditions of school, but the program itself prevents us from free activities. We try to exercise children continuously because our job is also measured by testing students' achievements in the key subjects: mathematics and language."

The fifth grade teacher describes the return of her student as follows: "when he first came back, he was kind of more driven back, as he was not as troublesome as the others, but now he is similar to them. I noticed that children would notice the change also."

The seventh grade teacher, she describes her 3 students: "there are many gaps in their learning, maybe because of the big distraction or loose of interest. I often talk to them in order to recognize the causes, but there can be too many; comparison to the previous environment, lose faith in parents, impossibility to earn back the lost time etc. In the beginning I thought they would be more mature and take it more seriously, but I see they are putting less effort than before."

Conclusions

The qualitative research brings light on the immigration phenomenon of the Roma population from Albania to the developed countries of the region for a better living. The main reason of leaving the country is poverty and lack of the basic conditions of living. Because of poverty, their children do not attend school regularly as they are being exploited to work since an early age. Frequent displacing leads to even longer separation from school. Seeking for asylum offers the opportunity to leave in other countries for some months. Depending on the destination country policies, children attend courses or classes according to their age. Their education in these countries faces language difficulties and academic formation such as maladjustment. In the documentation provided by schools the go to in the destination countries, it is said that their knowledge is not comparable to those students going to normal classes. Destination countries institutions evaluate the students' attitude and social relationship more than the acquired knowledge. Asylum rejection sends them back to the origin country where they have to face the same problems as before, even worse than before. In this case, families will be looking for another chance of immigrating and again children will have to leave school. In conclusion of the study, we can say that frequent displacement of the Roma families in search of better living conditions do only enrich their experiences without providing a clear positive impact on the multicultural education or inclusive education.

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Appendix 1

How competent do you feel on understanding the Roma community - from 1 to 5 meaning, very competent, competent, somehow competent, a few or not at all.

Did you gain confidence after the social justice training - from 1 to 5 meaning, very competent, competent, somehow competent, a few or not at all.

Did you gain an experience from the training on the treatment of the Roma children in the classroom? - from 1 to 5 meaning, very competent, competent, somehow competent, a few or not at all.

Appendix 2

sex	F	M		
Age (circle)	25-30	30-35	35-45	45-55
Have you heard of multicultural education	yes		No	

If Yes, please try to write a short description

Does It represent an important element of teaching, or you think it is not suitable for Albania?

Yes	No	it is not suitable for Albania
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Mark with +

According to your opinion, multicultural education has to do with racism, sexism, classism, linguistics, religious intolerance or xenophobia

Do you think teacher are prejudicial to students?

If Yes, is that relate more to:

Economic background, racial background, sexual orientation, religious belief, Gender belief corresponding ethnicity (Aromanians, Greeks, Macedonians) put numbers from 1 to 6.

is there any prejudice reflected if the teacher asks the girls to clean and the boys to fill the water?

Yes No if Yes, what type of prejudice? _____
 is the teacher more familiar to the child of the businessman or the cleaner?
 What type of prejudice do we have here? _____
 Do you think it is reasonable to have information on the culture and tradition of your students so the teaching process is more qualitative? Yes No
 Were there any Roma students in your classroom? Yes No
 If Yes, did he/she sit in: the front desk last desk in the middle you do not remember
 Can you make the difference between a Roma and an Egyptian? Yes No
 If yes, which is the indicator? _____
 Is it important for you to make the difference between them? Yes No
 What do you think about his/her development, if there was a Roma student in your classroom?
 Good Very good Bad Sufficient Comment _____
 Is it necessary for you to follow any training in order to help you with minimizing your prejudicial attitude towards the students?
 Yes No
 Do you think that this is a prejudicial questionnaire? Yes No
 Semi-structured interviews for parents and teachers
 Appendix 3
 The questions included within this semi-structured interview are:
 Did you decide on who your teacher will be, or just as it goes by chance?
 Which was the selection criteria, age, personal knowledge, being rude or accurate with the children?
 Do you think you have to meet the teacher often?

The Role, Responsibilities and Duties of the Homeroom Teacher in Albania Education System During the Communist Regime (1945 – End of '60-S)

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Abstract

Education is one of the most sensitive topics on a worldwide scale as it is one of the core components for a qualitative future generation. In Albania, education is always related and affected by the greatest political movements and events of the country's history. As such important, observation the history education evolution can serve as a great source of understanding different issues that today society is facing and by the quality and quantity of the actual education we can invest in a better future for the country. The emphasis in this research is put at the period in between 1945 until end of '60 as a timeframe snapshot of the evolution of the Albanian education. Extreme ideologization and politicization, are the key features of the role, responsibilities and duties of the homeroom teacher during the 50's but that doesn't mean that it continues the same for the homeroom teacher at the end of '60s. The ideologization and politicization expansion in Albanian schools comes intensified significantly based on the political and economic relations in between Albania and the Soviet Union. This is clearly expressed in the majority of articles and explication by the specialized pedagogical bodies in the periodicals of the time. Despite the fact that the model of the homeroom teacher had to be oriented toward the soviet model, some core features/functions are not changed as; The homeroom teacher been a key figure in the Albanian school, high school as well as seven grade education; He/she was responsible for the progress of his/her students, for order and discipline in class and the education of the class as a collective and each student of it; To achieve his/her role, the homeroom teacher must organize differentiated work as well as individual with students, to collaborate with other teachers with the pioneer and youth organization, with parents and with the school, where was obliged also to report periodically; In conclusion, although the Communist Party was inducting its models in the school and specifically in the role, responsibilities and duties of the homeroom teacher, this key role created some core values and competences inside the institution that would remain mostly untouched throughout different political changings.

Keywords: *Education, homeroom teacher, school, ideologization and politization, Communist Party*

Introduction

For this period, is used an extensive literature review of mainly primary sources of the periodical press of the time. All the published materials in the periodical press that are related directly to the role, responsibilities and duties of the homeroom teacher are reviewed. A particular importance for our study have been the published articles in specialized educational bodies of the time such as pedagogical magazines, Magazine "National Education" and the "Teacher" Journal (today "Teacher" magazines). Thousands of pages and hundreds of articles are read and reviewed. To analyze the role responsibilities and duties of the homeroom teacher for this period are carefully selected over 50 articles. In these bodies many directors of the Ministry of Education, other educational institutions, inspectors, field experts, school principals, teachers, etc., have been contributing with articles.

1. The role, responsibilities and duties of homeroom teacher in the 50s

Through all the articles of this period the emphasis is put on the role of the homeroom teacher in the framework of the overall goal of the school. The main purpose of the school in that period was "... to equip the younger generation with a qualitative education, courageous, to possess the fundamentals of science, be equipped with features of will to overcome beyond the difficulties faced in the job, love the people and fatherland, love the Soviet Union, be passionate partisan of peace. (Magazine "National Education", 1950, no. 8, page 6).

The ideological and political indoctrination of Albanian school, its direction, the work of homeroom teachers, education of students with this spirit, the support and influence of the Soviet school in all its aspects, are constant features throughout this decade. "To our new School - notes the Ministry of Education and Culture of the time - is assigned the duty to teach and educate both children with communist morality, fatherland's next generation" (magazine "National Education" 1957, no. 6, page 27).

These two requirements are a central feature of the work of the homeroom teacher of this period.

Within this framework it is defined and the role of the homeroom teacher, who has to deal with the education of the young generation. "Our school - stated in the press of the time - based on the principles of Soviet pedagogy, does not conduct educational work on special hour" (Magazine "National Education" 1958, no. 12, page 53); it is spread across the educational system. The homeroom teacher has a special responsibility to coordinate and direct all educational work. (Magazine "People's Education" 1958, no. 12, page 53).

The main duties of the homeroom teacher are (Magazine "National Education" 1950, no. 8, page 7-12) to ensure the development and implementation of school rules, to monitor progress of students of his/her class on behavior and how they use their free time. It is the duty of the homeroom teacher to recognize the characteristics of the class in general and each student in particular. He/she should aim at creating a healthy collective spirit in the class, but not based on orders from above, but through promoting student initiatives from below. He/she is also responsible for the health of each student, as for the patriotic education of students of his class. It is his/her task is to empower students not only to plan learning activities, but also the way of using their free time.

To achieve these objectives, he/she designs a specific plan of activities, documenting the implementation of this plan by holding a special diary and reports on the implementation with a report to the Director. He/she has to coordinate work with other teachers of the school, the pioneer or youth organization.

Special role is given to the cooperation with the parents of each child, but previously he/she is required to get to know the conditions of each student's family.

Some forms of work that are recommended to the homeroom teacher (Magazine "Popular Education" 1950, no. 8, page 7-12) are: organization of scientific circles, the class wall journal, organizing excursions and visits to in production and work centers, publishing the school literary newsletter, organization of meetings with personalities from different sectors. It is considered as responsibility of the homeroom teacher to make it possible for every student in his class to engage in useful social work, especially in the organization of patronage, the form of work in which most advanced students contribute towards pupils with lower performance or students of higher classes students take on the patronage students of the lower grade classes.

The homeroom teacher must make differentiated work especially with the lower performance students. He/she was asked to organize separate meetings with the parents of these students in the school, but also to organize visits to the families of these students. (Magazine "People's Education" 1950, nr. 7, page 50). For the lower performance he/she had to organize in school study sessions through a specific work plan based on the subjects, as well as with all those students who did not have suitable working conditions in their homes. (Magazine "People's Education" 1951, no. 8-9, page 51). He/she was also responsible for organizing the morning study or morning consultation. (Magazine "People's Education" 1951, no. 8-9, page 52).

Organizing visits in the student's family are recommended especially during exam season. (Magazine "People's Education" 1951, no. 8-9, page 52). Especially during these seasons he/she was asked to coordinate the work with the parents committee. (Magazine "People's Education" 1950, nr. 7, page 50).

When it comes on the collaboration of the homeroom teacher with parents, he/she is recommended organizing meetings with parents last Sunday of each month, during which he/she had to present not only the grades of students, not just the state of their behavior, but it was required by him/her to come prepared to develop an educational lecture. (Magazine "People's Education" 1950, nr. 7, page 49). To the school it was asked that through the homeroom teachers to organize "Teacher's Service" to welcome the parents to come for consultation. (Magazine "People's Education" 1958, no. 12, page 58). Also in school is required the creation of the school parents representation corner. (Magazine "People's Education" 1958, no. 12, page 58).

The importance of teacher visits in the families, as well as the organization of meetings with parents, are mentioned in many articles of this period. (Magazine "People's Education" 1951, no. 8-9, page 51); (Magazine "People's Education", 1953, no. 5, pages 35-36).

Particular authors, consider as an important "front" for the education of students the cooperation between the school and families. (Magazine "People's Education", 1953, no. 5, page 35). The same thing happens with emphasis on the role of the wall newspaper and the development of working visits in to the production centers. (Magazine "People's Education" 1951, no. 8-9, pages 53-54)

In the press are brought concrete examples of the homeroom teacher's work in high school as well as in the seven grades education. It underlines the need for connecting the homeroom teacher with other teachers, coordination of the work of teachers with students, organization of their free time and especially the creation of collective within each class. (Magazine "People's Education" 1957, no. 6, page 27).

However, there are also critical writings as well as the presentation of problems that schools and homeroom teachers face of the time. One troubling problem of the time that involved the homeroom teacher, in high school as well as at seven grade education, was in school discipline and regime. Indicator concerns in this regard were: the worst grade evaluating student behavior, school expulsions, unsubscribing and a number of other disciplinary actions. (Magazine "People's Education" 1957, no. 6, page 28). Among their main causes are identified as: lack of internal regulation of the school, the homeroom teacher's indifference, lack of educational plans, significant concessions to enforce regulations, poor work with parents and students, etc. (Magazine "People's Education" 1957, no. 6, page 28).

To address and resolve these concerns, importance is given to the designing and implementing internal regulations of the school. According to the Ministry of Education and Culture "Drafting of internal regulations is a responsibility: where participants need to be not only the school director and deputy director, but also the secretary of the base organization of the party, youth secretary, the chairman of the professional committee as well as experienced class tutors... The regulation project is reviewed in the pedagogic council meeting and approved by the director of the school. (Magazine "National Education" 1957, no. 6, page 29).

One of the homeroom teacher working forms with his/her classmates should be the weekly class meetings. The topics of these meetings was to be different, interesting and useful. They should be used as forms for creating the behavior of cultured and courteous speech and general cultural education of the students. (Magazine "People's Education" 1958, no. 12, page 55- 56).

The homeroom teacher was required to combine the stimulation and encouragement form, with criticism and sanctions. Even in this direction there are provided concrete examples. (Magazine "People's Education" 1958, no. 12, pages 56-57).

The most important article on the role, duties and responsibilities of the homeroom teacher for the second half of the '50 and early '60, we believe that is the article Nos Delianës, Director of the Institute of Teacher's Perfecting in Tirana. (Magazine "People's Education" 1958, no. 4, page 25- 38).

In his article the author interprets the regulation of the tutor's class, drafted and sent by the Ministry of Education and Culture in November 1956.

In this article there are many new responsibilities and tasks that are added to the homeroom teacher, as there are repetitive duties that belonged to the homeroom teacher before the release of this regulation.

The role of teachers is generally seen as provider of knowledge and skills, and also as an educator.

The homeroom teacher should be subject teacher in his/her class and was responsible for all educational work developed with students in that class. He/she was considered the closest assistant to the director.

First, it was required of him/her ideologically, politically and educationally growth.

The homeroom teacher should draft a detailed plan of its educational work, which had to be coordinated with the general plan of the school, with the working plan of the pioneer or youth organization.

"The homeroom teacher's duty is to monitor the progress of the students of his class and student behavior, so he/should should keep records on the progress of enrollment and student behavior." (Magazine "People's Education" 1958, No. 4, page 25). For this purpose, he/she is obliged to assist in the classes of other teachers, talk with them, control of student notebooks, their cards and register of class. He/she should recognize his class students at school, outside of it and in the family. It is his/her task is to determine how united are the class students, which is the level and interest of each student towards the political life of the country and the international situation, and whether they evaluate them right or not.

The homeroom teacher studies and verifies the main characteristics of the class as a collective and those of each student as an individual. He/she should discover each student's family conditions, the past family's past as well as the relations among family members.

He/she should keep detailed records for each student at the end of the year and had to build a wider characteristic which was placed in the student's personal file.

A special responsibility of the homeroom teacher's work was considered the work with the lower level performance students, so he/she was asked to design a specific plan of concrete measures.

In the article is emphasize the special role of the wall newspaper class for progress and discipline in the classroom and also the creation of patronage teams for poor the lower level performance students.

In the framework of cooperation with other teachers, he/she had to regulate the student's homework load in all subjects, he/she was demanded to organize periodical meetings of teachers who teach in his/her class.

The aim of his/her work had to be the ensured of unity in the educative teaching work.

It was considered his/her duty to care for the cleanliness and hygiene of students and class.

In this article the emphasis is placed on the headmaster responsibility for organizing weekly class meetings and the implementation of "the rules of the students".

Also it is emphasized the responsibility of the homeroom teacher to organize thematic meetings on festive occasions or commemorations and particularly celebrations devoted to political events. He/she was asked to organize these meetings by including preferably all the students.

On the same time, the homeroom teacher was required to organize the "amusement" of the students. These evenings are known by the term "thematic-amusement" which aimed to combine education with entertainment. It is recommended that these evenings should be organized in the premises of the school (Education and Popular Culture 1955, No. 11, p 58).

Also, the homeroom teacher can also organize student's birthday celebrations, but only of those who had very high scores. It was recommended these celebrations to be organized in the homes of students "... so that the celebration might have a familiar character and serve to better recognition of them and for further strengthen of their friendship" (Education and Popular Culture 1955, No. 11, pp 58-59).

For excellent students it was recommended that "... The homeroom teacher in cooperation with the pioneer and youth organizations can organize symbolic gift, certificates of merit, etc." (Education and Popular Culture, 1955 No. 11, p 59).

The homeroom teacher duty for creating different clubs and different liaising with parents, was highlighted.

The homeroom teacher's work was monitored directly by the school principal, who provided this not only through the asked documentations but also by organizing separate meetings with the homeroom teachers, he was even asked to organize methodical meetings with the homeroom teachers; and for this purpose it was recommended translated literature from the Soviet school.

At the end of the article it is given the educative work plan of the homeroom teacher as well as a concrete work plan for the homeroom teacher of the sixth grade. (Magazine "People's Education" 1958, no. 4, pages 25-38).

If we generalize what was said above, we can conclude that:

- The homeroom teacher during the '50 has been a key figure in the Albanian school, high school as well as seven grade education.
- He/she was responsible for the progress of his/her students, for order and discipline in class and the education of the class as a collective and each student of it.
- During this period, special importance was given to ideological and political education of students relying on the experience and the Soviet school.
- To achieve his/her role, the homeroom teacher must organize differentiated work as well as individual with students, to collaborate with other teachers with the pioneer and youth organization, with parents and with the school, where was obliged also to report periodically.

2. The role, responsibilities and duties of homeroom teacher in the 60s

Based on the legal, political and administrative perspective, the 60s are distinguished for some important moments that affect the Albanian school in general and the role and responsibilities of homeroom teacher in particular.

In the 1960 was published a number of decisions known as the "*Theses of the Central Committee of the PPSH and the Council of Ministers for the reorganization of schools and for the further development of national education*", which "aimed to link more closely the school with life, to give the young generation general polytechnic education and prepare them for manufacturing work, without reducing the level of knowledge of students". (National Education, 1960, No. 7, Page 28).

In the 1963 was compiled the new law "*On the organization of the education system in the RPSH*".

- According to this law "*The education system in the National Republic of Albania has as objective the general education of the young generation and their preparation to take active part in the construction of the socialist society. Its duty is to equip the young generation with genuine knowledge, to build the Marx-Lenin outlook, to provide vocational training and jobs, to educate youth in the spirit of socialist patriotism and proletarian internationalism and to provide their moral, physical and aesthetic education*". (Article 1)
- It also stated that: "*The fundamental principle of work in schools and in institutions of higher education is the connection of learning and education with life, production, the socialist mode of the construction of the country*". (Article 4)

In enforcement of the law, in 1964 was compiled for the first time "*The Educational Work Program*" and in 1966 was compiled "*The Regulation of General and Vocational Schools*."

The strongly emphasized idea in all these documents and in the press of the time, was the need to combine "*the teaching work with educational work in one process of comprehensive training and education of children and youth*". (National Education 1964, No. 1, Page 128).

A special role in this direction was needed to be carried on by the homeroom teachers. This was limited not only by the fact that their responsibility in the education process was crucial, but also because until that moment, there were emphasized problems in their performance. In the press of the time it is highlighted that "Our teachers (homeroom teachers) many times they fall into formalism in their educative work with the students. This responsibility is reduced into some formal meetings of the class, into compiling of standard education working plans in the class, in a "campaign" way of work, mainly superficial, without specific goals, without actual content... In most of the times the educational work is done in a spontaneous way, randomly, many times it becomes uniform and same despite the different ages of the students" (National Education, 1964, No. 1, Page 128).

Ascertain that in many cases the educational working plans were all almost the same (the "Teacher" journal. 1964, No.13, Page 4). Fundamental weaknesses were found even in the organization and development of weekly meetings with the class by the homeroom teacher, meetings that were mostly monotonous and non-relevant. In many cases the meetings of the class were even considered as a trial. (the "Teacher" journal, 1963, No.2, Page 3).

Special attention was given on the content of the educative work. Different authors strictly believed that the personality of the student is shaped during the whole process, activity and their social life: at school, at home, outside-outdoors. They emphasized that "these factors must be driven in the best way in order to create an educative balanced unity". (National Education, 1964, No. 1, Page 129). For this purpose, it had to be compiled a system of the educative work in general.

Precisely to define better the content of the educative work in schools it was compiled the "Educative Work Program". This document defined the basic characteristics of the educative work, the qualities that needed to be taught to the students; it recommended the activities that needed to be organized for each class and at the same time it had specific directives for the homeroom teachers. (National Education, 1964, No.1, Page 129).

It was recommended that this program needs to be executed in compliance with the concrete conditions of every school, but the main condition was that "in the educative work, the teachers should be focused on the clear directives on education given by the party". (National Education, 1964, No. 1, Page 129).

In many schools, it was observed a gap in between the teaching work and the educative work. Therefore, in the new program it was demanded that the educative work and the teaching work must create a unity and together to aim the creation of the new man. (National Education, 1964, No. 1, Page 129).

The homeroom teacher was recommended to use a variety of methods, forms and activities in the educative work, starting with the class meetings, continuing with the educative work of all the class combined with the individual educative work with each student, to the "5 minutes" appointments with the class at the end of each lesson.

For the meetings with the class, it was recommended that the homeroom teacher should give special importance to the process of preparation as well as continuity of the work even after the meeting.

The homeroom teacher should give importance to the clarifying and convictive work with the student, taking organizational precautions to achieve the targeted goals, persistence and discipline for the accomplishment of specific duties as well as delegation of some responsibilities to the students. The homeroom teacher should be very careful in order to assist the students so they will be able to "walk on their feet". (National Education, 1964, No. 1, Page 132-33).

The homeroom teachers should work systematically during all the scholastic year starting since the first grade.

The Educative work program gave special importance to the work "in the psychologic front". "This-stated there- is a working front that touches directly the content of the educative work". (National Education, 1964, No. 1, Page 136). Therefore, it was required psychologic preparation, high morale, persistence and patience.

Whereas the *Educative Work Program* has to do more on the content of the educative work in schools as well as some methods and forms of its organization, the other document, *Regulation of General and Vocational Schools*, addresses issues more based on the administrative character.

In article 12 of this regulation it is stated that: *“every class should be led by the homeroom teacher, who is assigned by the Director of the school. The home room teacher, continues article 12, is responsible to coordinate the educative work of the teachers, to collaborate with the pioneer or youth organization for the communist education of the students, to follow and take care of the behavior and their progress, to maintain closed relations with the parents and help them in their children’s education.*

The homeroom teacher works based on a trimonthly or semester plan of education work. He/she organizes meetings with students of the class when needed. (Regulation of General and Vocational Schools, Tirana 1966, Page 10).

In regard to the actions undertaken for the student’s promotion and punishment, in the power of the home room teacher is acknowledged only the right to accord the disciplinary action of remark in front of the class. (Regulation of General and Vocational Schools, Tirana 1966, Page 18).

In the periodic press of that period, especially in the education area, the discussion on the above decisions and documents, as well as the specific problems of the Albanian education, hold a considerable position. Many articles and texts are written before, during and after these decisions have been published. We will focus on those problematics that are tightly related with the role, responsibilities and duties of the homeroom teacher.

Since the first year of the 6th decade (1960), it is reemphasized the role and responsibility of the homeroom teacher in the framework of the whole Albanian education system. There it is specially highlighted that the role of the homeroom teacher it is not limited in just producing statistics or evidences of the student’s progress or just the organization of some class meetings. *“In the whole learning process – educative of a class, the homeroom teacher plays a very important role: he/she will unite and balance the work of the other subject teachers, will transmit to the class the directives from the School Directorate, will organize their implementation in collaboration with all the other teachers, the youth organization, parents and the School Directorate.* (National Education, 1960, No.6, Page 50).

Herein, the homeroom teacher work must be concentrated towards the student’s progress in the learning process, as well as towards their education. He/she should know the group of the class as well as each individual separately. For this purpose, he/she should keep a special diary. (National Education, 1960, No.6, Page 51).

For the first time, importance is given to the work of the homeroom teacher with the classes compound by boarder students. It is a duty of the homeroom teacher that for these children he/she *“should keep closed relationships with the caretakers and vice director of the dormitory; he/she as well should keep continuous contact with the parents of the students by writing to them letters, to inform as well as guide them in relation with their child”.* (National Education, 1960, No.6, Page 55).

The homeroom teacher is advised to rely on the *“archives of the class”*, the group of students with high results and excellent behavior, to accomplish with a high quality the educative work and achieve great results in the class. (National Education, 1960, No.6, Page 50).

Special importance is given to the qualitative organization of the class’s meetings, the better usage of the newsstand of the class, organizing patronage groups, etc. But special focus is put on the relationship and collaboration in between parents and teachers. *“The homeroom teacher informs on the student’s behavior as well as on the progress, guides them on the ways of studying at home, on the entertainment time and ways, on the household, sleep, etc.”* (National Education, 1960, No. 6, Page 54). It is required that this collaboration must be extended during the whole scholastic year, not just at the last month of the year.

The homeroom teacher is required to work with enthusiasm and coordinate his/her work with the neighborhood around the school and its organizations. (The “Teacher” journal, 1961, No.12, Page 2).

He/she is asked to organize together with the students, helpful/useful social works. In the press channels are given examples of these activities, among which are mentioned *the collection and delivery of medicinal herbs* (The “Teacher” journal, 1961, No.12, Page 2), *cleaning of the surroundings of the school, cleaning different areas of the neighborhood or the city etc.* (The “Teacher” journal, 1963, No.2, Page 3). Throughout these activities it was aimed the education of the students with the passion for work, the feeling of hygiene, as well as to save the state enough money. (The “Teacher” journal, 1963, No.2, Page 3).

The teacher possessed the “leverages” that could “use” for the successful execution of his/her responsibilities. Suchlike, was the student trustee, who had to be considered as the connection in between the class and the homeroom teacher. (The “Teacher” journal, 1961, No.12, Page 2). Furthermore, the homeroom teacher was recommended to “use” the active part of the class’s parents, compound by 3-4 parents. The active part of class’s parents constituted the core of the *Class’s Parents Council*. This organization could help the homeroom teacher by becoming his/her coordinator in the relations with the other parents. The members of this organization could pay visits in the families of the students with learning, discipline or frequentation problems, or even by helping the homeroom teacher in organizing general meetings with the class’s parents. (The “Teacher” journal, 1961, No.12, Page 2).

By all means it was required that the work with the parents should be coordinated “*in order that the requests should be equal, adapted, according to the age and as much consequent as possible*” (The “Teacher” journal, 1963, No.2, Page 3). In the education press are given many positive examples on the successes or results of the homeroom teachers of the time. These are often used as models for the other homeroom teachers. According to a model presented by a group of teachers, at the beginning of the scholar year they group the class based on the weaknesses and based on this they build their educative plan for the whole year. In this direction they have in mind the “organizational measures, the ideological work, the out of the class work, working with parents as well as other thematic. (The “Teacher” journal, 1963, No.2, Page 3). Anyhow most important for these teachers remains the progress, discipline and attendance, besides the personal example of the teacher. For this there are used also proverbs as “Words teach you, examples educate you.” (The Teachers Journal, 1963, No.2, Page 3).

One of the ways that is still recommended massively in between the concrete examples, is the patronage form and the placement of the patrols; the first, to help weaker students; the second, to control the compliance of the daily regime decided in the class meeting. (The “Teacher” journal, 1963, No.12, Page 3).

The collaboration and relationship of the homeroom teacher with the other colleges that teach at the homeroom class, remains a very preferred way of the homeroom teacher work. He/she had to talk to them in regard to the weaknesses of each student, had to ask them on giving extra assignments if needed, to specific students, to activate them as much as they could during the lessons, etc. Most impressive are the visits of the homeroom teacher in specific teaching hours of other teachers, to observe the standing of the students, their behavior, the activation, the quality of the response, presence, etc. (The “Teacher” journal, 1963, No.12, Page 3). This was necessary so that all the teachers would have the same tactic with the students of the class.” (The “Teacher” journal. 1964, No. 19, Page 3; No.8, Page 2).

The student’s booklet is considered as important documentary way of the communication in between the homeroom teacher and parents. The booklet was specifically used to show the student’s progress.

Many teachers practice successfully the visits in the families of the students with different problems, like low frequentation and absences, low results, absence long periods of time for medical reasons, as well as other joyful occasions. (The “Teacher” journal, 1963, No. 12, Page 3).

In this framework are seen also the conversations with the parents regarding different issues. Parents are invited in the class meetings, in order to know better the situation in the class, the level of progress, weaknesses, accomplishments, frequentation problems, behavior and discipline. (The “Teacher” journal, 1963, No. 12, Page 3).

In several special occasions and activities parents are asked to contribute voluntarily through their work, experience and knowledges, or even help with materials according to the type of the activity.

An interesting way how to mobilize the students on the preparations for different activities, have been the invitations for special guests during these activities in the class. The presence of these guests was used as a chance for the students to better clean the class, decorate it properly, prepare the activity with greater desire, passion and responsibility and be more active during its implementation. (The “Teacher” journal, 1964, No. 19, Page 3).

Inside the publications, it is stated that the students gradually start to appear with uniforms and “pioneer scarfs”. One of the successes of the homeroom teachers is the fact that “boys and girls sit on the same bench together”. (The “Teacher” journal, 1964, No. 13, Page 4).

The 60s of the XX century mark the intensification and enlargement of the role, responsibilities and duties of the homeroom teacher in the Albanian education system.

- This feature is part of the politic aspect (*The Thesis of the CC of PPSH and Council of Ministers of 1960*), as well as the legal one (*Law on the organization of the education system in the Republic of Albania 1963*), enriched by other important documents with professional character (*The Educative Work Program 1964*) as well as administrative (*Regulatory of General and Vocational Schools 1966*).
- On an ideological outlook, it is evident for the first time the concept of “*the creation of the new man with the Marxism-Leninism outlook*”.
- As we have emphasized previously, during these years it was demanded that the educative and learning work in the school should create a sole unity.
- In this framework, the homeroom teacher duty was to coordinate the educative work of the teachers, to collaborate with the youth or pioneer’s organization, on the communism education of the students, to follow and take care of the behaviors and their progress, to maintain closed relationships with the parents and assist them in the education of their children.
- In the specialized media of the time there were offered models, forms, ways and examples on how the homeroom teacher must and could achieve an objective like this. Besides the already known ways from the 50’s, new ways were introduced also.
- The reliance on the soviet school, in the pedagogy and soviet model, are not mentioned anymore.
- Despite the ideologization and politicization of the Albanian education system, and specially the educative work in the Albanian school, the core of the homeroom teacher work on taking care for the progress of their students, on frequentation, discipline and holistic education, even in the 60s remains unchanged, constant.

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Cultural Influence on Educational Leadership in Albania

Magdalini Vampa

Abstract

Leadership theories, the "Great Man" theory, charismatic theory of leadership, contingency theories, the theory of attributes, etc. help us understand and explain the leadership process and the role of leader, but none of them treats the complexity of human interaction in the leadership phenomena. Implicit theory began to draw some conclusions in early 90s, by defining leadership from the perspective of subordinates when leadership attitude is manifested, and more specifically how cultural groups "prepare" and respond to leadership. The main aim of this paper is to describe some aspects of management styles of school organizations in Albanian society, by taking in consideration the cultural influence on management effectiveness. Implicit theory of leadership developed by Lord & Maher, as well as the results of the prestigious GLOBE project, guided the elaboration of this work. Cultural dimensions used by researchers in GLOBE project, are reused in data collection of this study, but in a narrow context: only for educational organizations, in a Region in Albania. Concerning literature, we have tried to explain how school management practices are built upon an epistemological relationship and empirical life experience, which is qualitatively distinct from north to south and from east to west.

Keywords: leadership, school management, cultural dimension, leader profile, etc.

Introduction

The challenge of globalization requires that cultural organizations and schools should be identified by the right leaders, who know how to recognize, understand, respect and manage the cultural differences between societies and countries.

Referring to the situation of countries like Albania, the need to achieve global standards in education, and the recognition of cultural influences in management, is directly related to the implementation of the reform models that derive from these different cultures.

This paper is focused on leadership understanding from the perspective of culture, and is based on implicit theory of Lord & Maher, and in particular, on the conclusions of the GLOBE Project, run by the House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman and Gupta in 2004.

The results of this study were based on data collected in 62 different countries with the participation of 17, 000 managers of 980 cultural organizations. The involvement of Eastern European countries in this project has facilitated the monitoring and collection of preliminary data on school environments in Albania.

Actually, the data and analysis realized in relation to the school leadership in Albania, was conducted through several measuring instruments as surveys, structured interviews, semi-structured interviews, on a sample of 300 subjects, 200 of whom managers of educational institutions in Korca Region and the rest, teachers and employees of educational organizations and institutions. Korca Region is one of 12 regions of the country, where education levels and institutions are from preschools to higher education institutions, both public and private.) The field study was conducted in a two-year period, 2012-2013. Besides, surveys and structured interviews, a significant part of the interviewees were ready to participate in unstructured interviews, by providing broader information. Some conclusions of this study are presented in the final part of this paper.

The conclusions drawn in this paper explain some problems encountered during the reform processes, as well as provide modest recommendations to improve understanding cultural interaction in the management process.

Structure of the paper

At the beginning of this paper it is defined the concept of leadership, ethnocentrism and prejudice, trying to clarify the understanding of these concepts from the perspective of this study. Then, there are described the cultural dimensions and findings of the Globe Project, focusing on the Eastern Europe culture, and on the other part we will bring the results of this study in Albania.

Definition of management and culture. Concepts related to them.

Leadership is a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal. Northouse, R, 2010, p. 3) In this definition, it is important the treatment of leadership as a process, which implies the leader influence on the group performance and vice versa, the group influence on leadership as a linear and interactive event.

Groups are contexts where leadership appears, and orients the energies and potentials of group members towards achievement of common goals. The researchers believe that although the leaders and their followers are related to each other, leaders initiate relationships, establish communication lines and try to keep a sustainable cooperation.

Culture is a set of learned beliefs, values, rules, norms, symbols and traditions that are common to a group of people. It is exactly these qualities that make a group unique and special. Culture is dynamic and it is transmitted to others.

Two concepts related to culture and management are: *ethnocentrism and prejudice*.

Ethnocentrism is the tendency of individuals to give priority to their own beliefs, values and attitudes over the others. Ethnocentrism means that individuals of a culture judge other groups in a subjective or critical way.

Ethnocentrism could become a serious obstacle to the effectiveness of leadership because it doesn't allow managers to understand or fully respect others views, e. g. a leader who strongly believes in respect to authority, has difficulties in treating and respecting his followers when they challenge their leader and his authority as part of their culture.

Prejudice is an attitude, a belief or an emotion formed without enough thought and knowledge and based on unfair and unreasonable opinion or feeling. Prejudice includes inflexible conclusions that cannot accept the alteration or even the total change.

Leader faces continuous challenge to confront their prejudices toward subordinates and subordinate's prejudices against management and him as a leader.

Cultural dimensions and cultural groups according to the project Globe

Various scholars in the past 30 years have tried to characterize the term culture from the leadership point of view.

Hall in his book *Beyond Culture* (1976) focuses his research in two features: individual and collectivist culture.

Trompenaars (1994) in his observation of 15, 000 individuals in 47 countries classifies two important dimensions of culture: equality versus hierarchy and the person as a human being in front of his duty and responsibility.

Hofstede (2001), based on the analysis of questionnaires conducted on 100, 000 respondents in 50 countries, identifies five dimensions that differ in every culture: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism-collectivism, masculinity - femininity, long-term and short-term orientation.

The study of House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman and Gupta (2004) provide one of the most referred studies and reliable results concerning the specific field of culture and leadership; it is also called the GLOBE study of 62 societies, with the observation and interviews of 17. 000 managers of 980 organizations.

The researchers of this project identified nine dimensions of culture from the perspective of management: uncertainty avoidance, power distance, Institutional Collectivism, In-Group Collectivism, gender egalitarianism, assertiveness, future orientation, performance orientation, humane orientation.

The GLOBE research program investigated cultural approaches to leadership in 62 countries related to their cultural dimensions. The sample of 62 countries was divided in 10 groups based on common language, geography, religion and historical data. They are: Anglo, Germanic, Latin Europe, Central Africa, Eastern Europe, Middle East, Confucian Asia, South Asia, Latin America, and Nordic Europe.

Table 1. Cultural groups classified according to their cultural dimensions

Cultural dimension	The highest scores of cultural groups	The lowest scores of cultural groups
Orientation towards being assertive, determined and aggressive. Assertiveness	Eastern Europe Germanic Europe	Nordic Countries
Future Orientation	Germanic Europe (Nordic Countries	Eastern Europe Latin America Middle East
Gender Egalitarianism	Eastern Europe Nordic Countries	Middle East
Humane Orientation	South Asia Central Africa	Germanic Europe (Latin Europe
In-Group Collectivism	Confucian Asia, Eastern Europe, Latin America, Middle East, South Asia	Anglo Germanic Europe Nordic Countries
Institutional Collectivism	Nordic Countries Confucian Asia	Germanic Europe Latin America, Latin Europe
Performance Orientation	Anglo Confucian Asia Germanic Europe	Eastern Europe Latin America
Power Distance	None	Nordic Countries
Uncertainty Avoidance	Germanic Europe Nordic Countries	Eastern Europe Latin America Middle East

Source: This table is taken from Leadership, Theory and practice Northouse 2010, which is adopted by the author with the permission of GLOBE project, p. 344.

Based on the GLOBE project, House & Javidan 2004, Hofstede 1991, Trompenaars & Hampdin-Turner 1997, we were able to identify six global management features:

Charismatic type is a visionary leadership, inspirational, reliable, determined, and performance-oriented.

Team-oriented is characterized by integration, team collaboration, diplomacy, and aims to create the group by making clear the common intention.

Inclusive leadership, participative in decision making process; encourages involvement and engagement in decision making process and is characterized by non-autocratic behaviour.

Human orientated displays support, consideration, compassion and generosity, is characterized by modesty and compassion for others.

Autonomous; is characterized by an independent and individualistic approach to leadership.

Self-protective; is reflected in the behaviour of leader, focusing on the safety and security of the individual and the group, egocentric, emphasizes his status, capable of inducing conflict when necessary, but at the same time being conscious of his reputation, etc.

Ten cultural groups, mentioned above, are analysed after data collection by defining respective profiles of the leader and leadership.

Eastern European Leadership Profile

An ideal leadership, especially in educational organizations, in Eastern European countries, would be an individual who first and foremost would be independent while maintaining strong interest in protecting his position as a leader. Preferably, he would be charismatic, value-based leadership, team-oriented and humane-oriented, but much less interested in the involvement of his followers and staff in the decision-making process.

In summary: this culture clearly describes his leader as autonomous, who takes the decisions independently, presents some degree of being inspiring, guides the teamwork and to some extents pays attention to human needs.

In an attempt to use this important information about the situation in Albania, this paper has brought just a few cultural profiles of the region as well as those cultures which have served as models in the long process of educational reform in our country.

Anglo-American leadership profile:

The Anglo-American leadership profile emphasizes that the leader, first of all, should be charismatic, a value based leadership, who allows and supports the participation of his followers in the decision-making process, is sensitive toward his staff and others. This culture requires leaders who are extremely motivated and visionary, not autocratic and take in consideration others opinions. These countries prefer a moderate level of work in group and respect toward an independent attitude. Less important feature of the leader's image in this cultural group is the protective role. They believe that it is ineffective if the leader tries to establish his status, or attempts to be at the centre of every situation.

Germanic Europe leadership profile

The ideal leadership in Germanic Europe should be unique, visionary, autonomous, charismatic, human oriented as well as team oriented, but not with a self-determined status or who takes care of protecting the dignity of his staff.

Nordic Europe leadership profile

The ideal example of the leadership in Nordic Europe is a leader with clear and inclusive vision of decision-making process, and with some characteristics of independence and diplomacy. In this culture, it is less important the humanity and self-determined status of the leader, in other words, Nordic countries prefer leaders who inspire and involve their staff in decision making process, and do not expect them to be concerned about their status or others attitudes.

Summary:

Scholars and supporters of the theory of *leadership and culture* summarize and elaborate a set of characteristics and capabilities that universally define the negative and positive qualities and attitudes of the leadership. Specifically, the most distinguished personality of a leader is that of a person of high integrity, charismatic, and with interpersonal skills. An ineffective leader is someone who appears asocial, ruthless, egocentric and autocratic.

Some characteristics of leadership in Albanian culture

The implicit theory of leadership is still developing and elaborating its ideas, because of its philosophy which stands and takes care of the perception of leadership and management from the perspective of others, and does not take into consideration the leader's behaviour, situations and different contexts.

The presented models and efforts for the democratization of the schools in Albania, in order to achieve European standards, always refer to educational systems of western developed countries. To achieve the purpose and a successful implementation of these models and changes, we should be conscious and clear about the impact of culture on leadership, and how the culture of our country differs in several dimensions to the culture of these countries.

The knowledge and the study of these characteristics will bring better opportunities for communication and change of the targeted program as well as its adoption in a natural way.

The received information about some dimensions of culture according to the above-mentioned definitions will be presented below, by treating (1) *the aspects of management process*, (2) *management of changes* and (3) *evaluation of teachers by the leader*.

The GLOBE project research concluded that Eastern European countries present a group-oriented culture and evaluate the importance of the relationship between members and not the effectiveness or performance of the individual. In these countries, education is mostly marked as a tool to adapt students and staff with community expectations.

Leaders in educational organizations in Albania are more focused in increasing the harmony of teaching staff and then on student's achievements according to the standards required by the Ministry of Education, and it is of primary importance

too. Leaders in Albanian schools tend to establish the relationship with the staff, before taking the position as leaders. The first request or advice of an Albanian leader to a new employee is: try to create a nice atmosphere, a good communication with the staff and. . . then we can talk about the duties and performance.

In European countries like Germany, France or the Netherlands, school leaders and managers are more interested in meeting the individual needs of students and teaching staff.

In Albania, where the power of individual depends on external factors and is closely related to politics, the leader is headed toward an autocratic behaviour. Interviewed people agree that the leader's status and reputation can be attributed to his age, position, family or relation to the central government. The same views are shared in some of Confucian Asia countries, while in western countries such as Anglo countries, Germanic European and Nordic countries; the respect toward the leader is attributed to his competence and management skills.

In Albanian culture, facing the conflict is very different compared to the same situation in Anglo-American and Germanic countries. Albanian staff tends to avoid open confrontation and persistence against the leaders. Thus, interviewed people claimed obvious deviations of the disapproval of leader's opinion, even when staff interests were affected.

Leaders themselves try to precede conflicting situations with an authoritarian style in decision making process, appearing self-protective. In other countries, as we mentioned above, decisions and policies are faced by all the staff, and conflicts are allowed to develop up to negotiations, and often leaders allow the status quo but not an authoritative decision-making process.

Change, reform and access to "Western" ideas, are challenges that stand before the Albanian education system for over a century now. Reforms based on western models aim a curricular reform as well as a contemporary pedagogical approach. The example below will reveal the importance of the role of education leaders, particularly in schools where changes will be implemented, but the implication of cultures make it difficult (the culture of model's origin and the culture where it will be implemented).

Specifically, in unstructured interviews about the student-centred teaching model, 90% of interviewed teachers expressed uncertainty in understanding it. Continuous requirements for training, application or even pilot projects regarding the benefits of using this model, has had an inefficient impact because of the lack of clear philosophy transition. School leaders, accompanied by their autocratic and non-participative character couldn't initiate this change. Leaders and teachers understood it as a new technique of putting the students chair in a circle, not in classical form where the teacher stands in front of the class.

The same situation appears in Hong Kong (Walker & Dimmock 2002), where education reform projects failed after many efforts. It was intended to implement during '95-'96, but failed for almost the same reasons: lack of culture recognition, the philosophy of that model and the different pedagogical approach. And at the same time in Thailand, it is the voluntary choice of some school leaders to apply this model.

They were trained, worked hard, and managed to integrate the student-centred teaching model in three pilot schools. This became possible after leaders themselves avoided autocracy and non-collaborative attitude (part of Confucian national culture) to their staff and students when explained and oriented them towards the application of this model.

In their (3) **teacher evaluation** models, Western countries generally try to focus on individual performance rather than to the relationship with their colleagues or the ability to adopt with group or school environment.

When school leaders were asked about the evaluation of their staff, they were focused on a common position: their concern and interest was related to how teachers adapt to the staff, their communication skills, how they support and were supported by their colleagues and then about their professional ability. So, the relationship is appreciated more than duty and efficiency. In general, the leader instructions are related to the motivation of individuals to adopt with the staff, to control their own emotions, to avoid competition and conflict. In regard to these conclusions we can quote Westwood & Kirkbride (1998) after a research study in Eastern European countries and Asia: "Harmony (in these countries) is a primary moral norm, is the foundation upon which grows the "collectivism".

It is claimed that teachers in Albania have a high threshold of tolerance toward judgment and subjective assessments, as long as they believe in their leader. They choose to be evaluated for their efforts and not for their achievements. The

comparison to Anglo American countries clearly shows the opposite position. To measure their achievements, teachers in Western schools require precise and more sophisticated instruments based on standards and objectivity. Achievement is related only to the individual.

If Nordic countries appreciate the avoidance of uncertainty as a leadership value by implying the need for strict rules, specific and precise objectives, and clear destination, for Albanians this is a dimension that isn't measured, and doesn't comfort individuals belonging to this group-oriented culture. GLOBE)

Conclusions:

Globalization is creating a need for leaders who enhance understanding of cultural differences and competences in intercultural communication as well as in practice.

Hofstede quoted by Walker&Dimmock (2002, p. 190), states: *Institutions do differ. By way do they differ? In attempting to understand institutional differences, one needs history, and in understanding history one needs culture. Culture is at the root of institutional arrangement, and even if the sociologist does not dare to venture historical/cultural explanations, cultural differences appear as a consequence of institutional differences...thinking is affected by the kind of family they grew up in, the kind of school they went to, the kind of authorities and legal system they are accustomed to. The causality between institutions and culture is circular: they cannot be separated.*

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Social Contract: Sovereign Contracted or Created? - Comparative Analysis Between T. Hobbes and S. Pufendorf

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Abstract

This paper has in its focus the notion of 'Sovereign'. The discussion will be conducted within the "School of Natural Law", which we will focus on two representatives; Thomas Hobbes and Samuel Pufendorf. Through a comparative philosophical analysis, we are going to stop on the basics, the genesis of sovereign power. Political philosophy in the context of finding the source of sovereign power is a problem in the landmark of the unsolvable. "School of Natural Law" referring to the natural condition has the solution to this problem. Compare lines will start from this premise, to know after, how the reason goes towards two different concepts of "Social Contract". Contract which generates sovereign person, it defines the nature and content of the power of this person. At this discourse, social contract as the core hub of transition, conversion to the state of nature in a civil context is rolling between the political and juridical character. Discussion, which essentially make us know the nature of the relationship between the Sovereign and members of society, sovereign and state, the member of society between each other. In other words, we will see how the political - legal forms of organization, the way of governing is determined by the nature of initial social contract

Keywords: state of nature, social contract, sovereign, civil society

Introduction

Europe of times of Renaissance and Reformation brought fundamental changes, to the forms of thought, lifestyle, socio-political organization, etc. In the context of a troubled continent, after the dissolution of the Holy Roman Empire and the birth of the nation state, the notion of "Sovereign" comes naturally as time requirement.

Time which inspired scientific thinking model and approach to problems. Scientific rationality was returning to humanity, to find there the fundamentals and not to the theological principles. In this sense, secular trend in knowledge it was premise to laicise the political power. On the other hand, the decline of domination of the Aristotelian and the fragility philosophy of moral relativism would be another argument - critical to find solid fundamentals, from which the society will be consolidated in the legal and political context. Further, to organize state - nations in mutual and lasting relationship. It is on these terms that was created and developed the thoughts of the school of natural law, which would inspire the modern political discourses.

The problem of Sovereign required secure premises, to justify a higher and strong power with the goal of organizing a sustainable society, Hobbes and Pufendorf (but not only) started from what nature teaches us. Knowledge of human nature and the natural condition of society would be basics, from where we will start a comparative discussion to find the source of sovereign power. The argument which in the context of socio-political organization, will lead to the "Social Contract". The focus will be on understanding them meaning that gives each of them to this act, like direct generator of the person with sovereign power. With interest, will be the juridico- political model, which comes as the post reality - contract.

Human by nature; law and natural law

What is the human by nature? In what relations, he stands with others? In the empirical logic of Hobbes, man is seen as a body, as an object among other objects of nature. In other words, man isn't seen differentiated from the natural environment.

He is part of the physical nature and is defined, determined by its nomocracy. Human acting in natural circumstances is dictated by the actions of the other objects, which are located outside him. For Hobbes is absurd to think that a man can be put in motion by himself (Tuck, 2008, p. 63). He is seen as a being totally passive and irresponsible for his behavior. The scientific rationality of Hobbes objectivised the natural explanation within the framework of psycho - physical. In this sense, man is seen more as a being naive; perceptive closely related with the direct interest of life (Levitani, 2000, p. 10).

The context of human gullibility and the state of perception is an indication that he follows its natural instinct. The instinct that essentially has factual existence (life). In such circumstances, the human is motivated by the fulfillment of this instinct, regardless of the object. Implying the total lack of regulation, means for Hobbes's that "only the present exists in nature" (Hobbes, 2000, p. 13). Importance has the momentary interest as a direct requirement of instinct for good and personal pleasure. Here falls the value or interest for the other, no moral or humane principles. Moment, the present is decisive for man in natural conditions, it dictates his behavior and actions, making a completely spontaneous human being and without given rules. The direction of the moment interest, essentially creates conditioned individual by natural requirements, but unimpeded by any other rule or principle to meet these requirements. Good and evil, right and wrong is always seen in the interest of the strongest. This is expressed from the antiquity by sophist Thrasimah (Plato, 1999, p. 26). Precisely here Hobbes gives the understanding of "Natural Law" when he writes: "The natural law ... is freedom of every person to use his power, as he will himself, to preserve its nature, in other words his life and, therefore, do everything according to his judgment and reason, he conceives as the most suitable for this purpose " (Hobbs, 2000, p. 80). In other words, 'natural law' is equivalent to 'absolute freedom', where the primary goal is to ensure the physical existence, and on this purpose any kind of action is more than justified.

The opposite of the right (freedom), for Hobbes is duty (law). Here is distinguished right by law, where the natural right is absolute spontaneity, and the law of nature is the discovery of reason. In this context, the right "... consists in the freedom to do or not to do something, while the law stipulates and makes mandatory one of the two. So, the law and the right distinguish between them as much as the freedom and responsibility, which are incompatible with each other if they are applied to the same " (Hobbs, 2000, p. 81). Discovering the reason (law) requires binding behavior to do or not to do something which serves to a specific purpose. In the contexts of the natural condition the reason discovers the natural law, this is unviolation of natural law of another, the right of life. The law of nature is a limitation of the absolute right of human (freedom). Relationship goes in contradiction with each other. Selfish tendency of the human, being perceptive in natural circumstances (without rules), the law of nature is not taken into account at all.

Pufendorf joins the Hobbes's idea that, external factors are often determinant in human behavior. However, otherwise from Hobbes, Pufendorf is dualist in the treatment of human nature. Man, is not just a physical being, but also mental, spiritual (Pufendorf, 2007, p. 75). From this point of view, we see man as a being not totally perceptive, but abstractive. In the judgement of Pufendorf, the human carries by nature minimum reason. If for Hobbes, human is moved by the outside world, from the perception of objects, for Pufendorf's man is more active. Man, by nature has the ability to overcome the constraints imposed by nature. So, he moves not only by external factors, but is motivated by cognitive abilities and will. He creates concepts and analyzes their meaning. How to say, the human depart from himself to act and is not just a physical object, which is set in movement by other objects, as Hobbes thinks. He chooses, without being imposed solely by external circumstances. So, man is author of his behavior, responsible for its actions (Pufendorf, 2007, p. 38).

Dualism of Pufendorf, from what I expressed, opposes the difference that makes Hobess between the "right" and "duty". Reasoning human nature means that the duty or the law is an expression of freedom and not the opposite. Whether in the Hobbes's we find the distinguishment between the duty and the right, as the difference between the law (reason) and liberty (perception), at Pufendorf's we have the expression of freedom as a combination of law and duty. In this sense the human is freedom for Hobbes, only when he is not limited by external factors, whereas for Pufendorf the human, somehow creates freedom as a synthesis between the right and duty, reason and perception.

The relationship of man with man in the natural condition

In nature, man according to Hobbes requires in complete freedom the fulfillment of private interest, it is characterized by selfishness and unkindness. This means that in the state of nature, man is seen as the enemy of man, he wants to defend himself by fighting or subjected other rivals (Hobbes, 2000, p. 77). Hence, the tendency to gain more power and he who has more power reaches to impose on others. Told in other words, natural human condition it is in a continuous state of war, for more force, more power (Hobbes, 2000, p. 61). In this sense man tries to provide an individual power to accomplish

essentially his nature, implied here the existence. He has the ability to create and enjoy the Individual power, which is always in function of his private personal interest. Within this force is measured even the freedom. The more power has this person, the less is limited. This is the power given by his ego that is exerted over others in its own interest. This is freedom in the concept of Hobbes, closely related to external factors.

The notion of "protecting themselves" is as well a central term to Pufendorf, whom identifies it as the strongest impulse of man than any other incentive (Pufendorf, 2007, p. 59). Primary in human nature is itself, unencroachment and maintaining the personal integrity (safety). This fact makes Pufendorf subsequent and sequential of Hobbes theory (Palladini, 2008, p. 34). The fact that man bears a distinctive minimum reason, in the judgment of Pufendorf is seen as a task to not affect the Other. Even he realizes that alone is incomplete in nature, which means that "man is not born only for himself. . . ." (Pufendorf, 2007, p. 75). Natural tendency to cohabit in the basics has fulfilling itself. The other is a prerequisite for this. In short words, man in all his complexity is ". . . designed by nature to social life" (Pufendorf, 2007, p. 114). The goal remains the mutual benefit and minimizes damages against each - other (Palladini, 2008, p. 34). Community is consequence of reason, which avoids the distress condition of living in conflict. This is the key difference with Hobbes, where Pufendorf didn't see the man as being extremely selfish and malicious. In the end, minimal reason makes the human to live in community, by featuring a minimal humanity. Humanism, which in the judgment of Hobbes constitutes appearance, the natural conditions of actual circumstances. At the core of this situation is the war, selfishness, conflict, unkindness - towards each other.

The necessity for a power sovereign

Referring the meaning of the "natural law" according to Hobbes as an absolute freedom, where ". . . everyone has the right to do everything, even over the body of another. So, as long as continue this right of every man to do anything, may not have security for anyone. . . ." (Hobbes, 2000, p. 81). Hence, naturally man goes toward finding ways to ensure natural existence. Rivalry, mistrust, greed for power, natural condition of war (chaos) comprise the premise of Hobbes, from where is seen the necessity of a power to change the situation by creating a sustainable social organization.

So, impossible and constantly frightened by the situation of the permanent war in the natural condition (social), man requires solid basis to realize its natural condition. He lifts up from his personal power (from liberty, his absolute right.) to surrender it to a greater power in function of protecting itself (Hobbes, 2000, p. 61). Somehow it becomes reasonable (is forced) to accept a greater power than every one in particular, but he takes care to build symmetrical relations inside of the society. But which is this power that stands above everyone? Where is it?

"Fear of repression prompted this man to come forward or seek help through friends. Because there is no other way, through which man can secure his life and liberty" (Hobbes, 2000, p. 62). To create stable and reliable reports in order to fulfill the natural law of self-defense, is accepted a government that stands above all. Only in this power we can see in real terms a compact society and deserved to be called like this. Without power, the society is in a situation of conflict, division, confusion, chaos and relativity. Judgments or other arguments on the creation of the human community, in the philosophy of Hobbes seem enough idealistic to be believed. In contrast with Pufendorf, moral for the other is against human nature. Ethical ideal is not valid because by nature man is driven by ego and personal interest.

The common thing here in both authors is, the fundamental law of nature is to achieve peace. However, at Pufendorf the man is reasonable and social being, then, why do we need the sovereign power? People can live in peace and harmony without the need for a power?! So, man will get enough with the sociality, with the natural condition, and another power would be unnecessary, excessively redundant?!

However, for Pufendorf the possibility of evil exists. Indeed, man by nature is unpredictable as human being, creeping, camouflaged, sophisticated in behavior, whom may tend to benefit selfishly in the expense of others and sociality in general. Most of people operate through a conscience acquired by sociality, tradition or social authority. However, this is not enough to think always to think always in the right way. Then, in paranoia circumstances, fear, where the moral of natural sociality is fragile, the man must proceed to protect himself, by referring to a higher power. A power, that takes care for unencroachment of the natural condition of life and sociality. "The conclusion is, to be secure, he needs to be social; which means to join forces with others like him, and to treat them in ways that they don't bear to have an excuse for harming him. But even to be willing to preserve and encourage the benefits " (Pufendorf, 2007, p. 62). Thus, despite the sociality achieved

exists the possibility to easily dismantle this condition. Taking the argument of Hobbes, the Pufendorf sees the consolidation of natural sociality to the presence of a higher power as a union of individual forces

To this argument, the fear of death is the greater natural bad, for Hobbes as well as for Pufendorf (Pufendorf, 2007, p. 61). Except fear and uncertainty, the argument that unites both authors are justification (finding) of sovereign power at the social community even in different contexts. Hobbes starts from a naive crowd, in a natural condition, while Pufendorf's departs from sociality, where every member carries a minimum reason to cohabit.

At this point of comparison, Hobbes sees man and community as totally terrible, differently from Pufendorf's where the bad is possible in society, not everyone want to affect the state of nature (sociality). Thus, the necessity of a higher power is justified by the possibility of the evil in society and not from the total bad that Hobbes describes. Hobbes saw the extinction of moral relativism (social chaos) only to the political power without socialite, while Pufendorf doesn't exclude the reason of social situation but when the situations don't get resolution by sociality, then we can refer to a higher power. In this moment of discourse, Hobbes creates short link between natural condition (the crowd) and political power, like necessity for drastic change, but Pufendorf, considering sociality as natural condition requires continuation, consolidation of the state of nature in order to avoid violation of natural law of life and sociality as an intermediary condition in realisation of this law.

Here stands clear that the sovereign power is justified over fundamentals of natural condition, but in different contexts. Interesting is the fact that the factors that lead to the necessity of a higher power are fear and uncertainty. This makes people more reasonable, being distanced from the natural law (absolute freedom of Hobbes), and seeking the law, as a guarantee to avoid the bad condition of nature. Guarantee that is given by a higher power means that it is absolute and inviolable. However different contexts of natural condition from both authors will lead us to different absolute meanings of law.

The Social Contract; Contracted power or created power?

In terms of instability and uncertainty man tends to avoid the risk that comes from moral relativism. This means that he is looking for objectivity behavior. So, he needs harmony and clear rules for himself, but even as expectation for another. Unable to achieve this in terms of individuality, the man requires a higher power, and beyond all. The greatest power that man can have is to unite all individual powers in a single one (Hobbes, 2000, p. 53). So, the greatest power is the unity of all as one body. But how can be achieved this unity?

For both authors, this unity is achieved only through social contract. From the description of natural condition, people are conditioned to enter into agreements with each - other. Pufendorf, 2007, p. 103). But, for what contract we talk about? Hobbes and Pufendorf although are contractualist they share different views for it.

In terms of insecurity and self-defense in the natural condition, everyone understands (is made more reasonable for Hobbes) should enter into agreements with other members. Basically, Hobbes contract means a daccordnes between members of society to authorize someone, as a third party, who acts on everyone. "Contract" and "authorization" have a complementary relationship in the context of the discourse of Hobbes. The authorization is an act of will and responsibility, and the contract as such should be treated as an act of deliberate and conscious. Hence, the social agreement makes the parties responsible contractual, author of its, in contrast of natural condition where the man was totally irresponsible and all his behaviors were legitimated. From this argument, Hobbes issue as a third law the absolute duty to respect the contract, as a personal responsibility (Hobbes, 2000, p 90). Expressed in these terms, Hobbes explores the concept "person" where is talking about actions, that represent him directly, what is called a "natural person", if he represents somebody else would be called "artificial person"

(Hobbes, 2000, p. 101). Precisely here, the term "person" is in the sense of responsibility. Natural person is also the author of his actions, this makes him responsible, and the artificial person is responsible for that which is authorized.

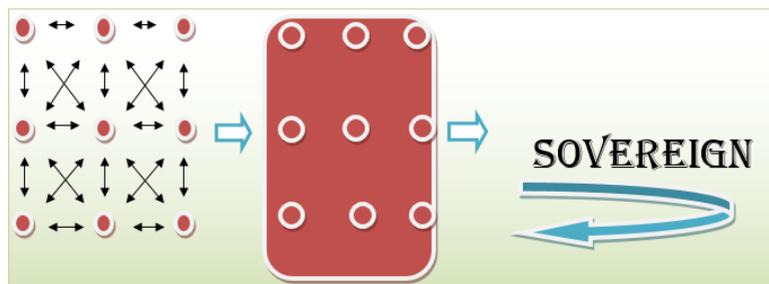
(Contract as willful and conscious act is reached when all powers are focused to a single joint force (Hobbes, 2000, p. 109). So, the contract is an act of authorization which is expressed to the postulate of Hobbes: "... I authorize and give up my right of governing myself to this man, or to this assembly of men, on this condition, that thou give up the right to him, and authorize all his actions in like manner" (Hobbes, 2000, p. 109). The members agree not to create a Sovereign but to contract a person, where everyone delegate the power and the right to him. The authorization of the Sovereign power through social contract is not an expression of unconditional abidance, without any sort of benefit. On the contrary, the social contract is

the mediator of mutual benefit, where for Hobbes equation is; individual give up on freedom and the right, he accepts to obey a higher authority, taking as a guarantee the peace, life and safety. So, the social contract is a form of exchange, where members are willing to give up the natural right (freedom) in function of peace, by accepting a minimum interaction of freedom (Hobbes, 2000, p. 81). Renunciation of freedom, the right to do something in a contractual relationship means that the other should do the same, in the same size. Abandoning the law in this case is the passage of this right to another person (Hobbes, 2000, p. 82). "Whom that carries this person is called sovereign, and is said to have sovereign power, and everyone else is called Citizen" (Hobbs, 2000, p. 109).

So the contract is an act-agreement between all to authorize individually a person with the right of power. Thanks, this pact, the society is created as unity or as a single political body, as a power of all that is given to an artificial person (Sovereign). Creating as a single body, as a political body or united in a state (Civitas). Beyond unity, the contract in the sense of authorization is a link between members, but also an individual link, directly to the Sovereign Person, after he authorize the Sovregin to carry power and his right, whereas, the contract has to do with the agreement that all the members have to do the same. A contract like this provides conviction and avoids the right of rebellion, because after all, in personal responsibility, the individual has authorized someone to subordinate to him. This becomes more often for the fact that the greatest fear of Hobbes is anarchy and chaos.

Rebellion is an expression of this trend, which will lead us again to the poor state of nature, condition which should necessarily be avoided. For this reason, this person is powerful Leviatani with primar aim peace in society and protection of everyone. His power overcomes each special and individual power.

In a schematic way, vieupoint of Hobbes will appear as below:



Kontrata shoqërore (Trupi politik (Civitas) dhe individi i dalluar në të (Personi Sovran

Fig. 1

(All this sematic explanation starts from the socio – political situation (as inductive logic), going to generalization, like it is the Sovregein Person, the bearer of power of all. Sovereign government action is actually deductive logic (juridical properties), where from the personification of all on, act on whole and each in particular. Therefore, the sovereign returns over the subjects and political entities by making it sustainable fact. If we have to do the reverse way: Sovereign person on top, after spreading on the whole society and each individual (citizen) in particular. For this reason the contract is mediation in terms of conversion to natural condition in civil society and natural mankind in citizen. In a schematicall way it would appear

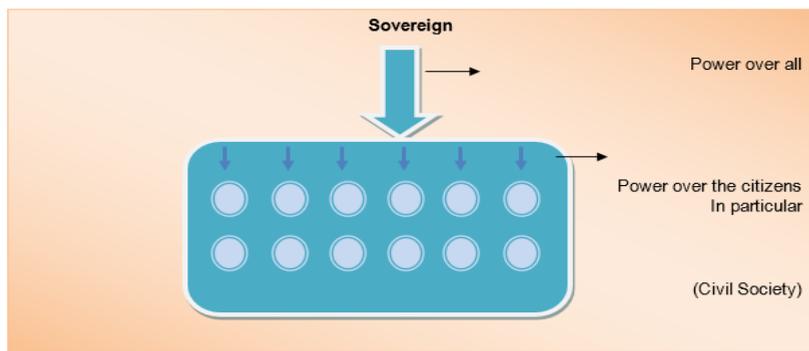
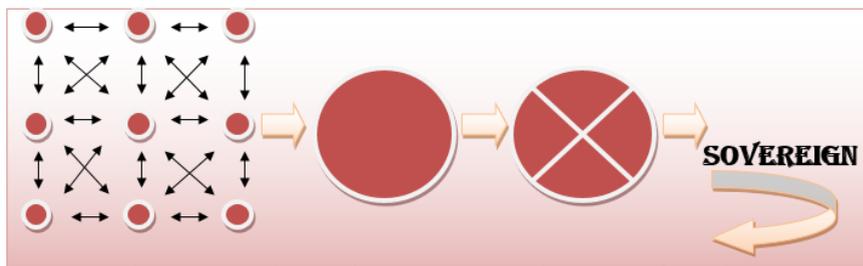


Fig. 2

Even so, Pufendorf, the theory of contract sought to lead further, by seeing the viewpoint of Hobbes for the social contract as too submissive and not enough. If for Hobbes it is just a social contract, for Pufendorf as a professional jurist is needed "two agreements and a decree. . ." (Pufendorf 2007, 184). The first is the agreement of free men by nature, who gather by create a contractual relationship between each other - turning from a state of natural sociality ". . . in one single union and permanent. . . with advice and common guidance; Well, they want to be co-nationals " (Pufendorf, 2007, p. 184). In contrast to Hobbes, for Pufendorf, minimum accountability in terms of natural sociality already is specified what to do and not to do. In this contract, everyone in particular, by creating the unity of the whole agree to create a new stage of society. Here is expressed between members of society to consolidate the relations between them, therefore, so to lead the natural sociality in a more organized stage. Here the society expresses as a single body. So, the initial contract consists in the agreement to create a more consolidated level of the natural sociality, emphasizing the duties, clarifies the responsibilities and hence in creation of civil society, where each member is part of the community, it is fellow citizen. Pufendorf emphasizes that power that finds its source in the voluntary union of individual forces. Even though, in a different concept from Hobbes, Pufendorf believes in a formed body, which represent the strengtest force than every other power, and this is the power of all ". . . namely the state (civitas) " (Pufendof, 2007, p. 184). Through a decree this social body as an objective unity determines the form of organization and the way of governing. Thereafter, is need another contract which determines who must be the individuals who deserve this power of the whole. From this moment, the second contract determines the nature and the profile of the person with sovereign power.

Just like Hobbes, even in the judgment of Pufendorf, the contract is an act of exchange not just material, but exchange (converter) of status, human attributes. Person accepts to give up some freedom and rights in the natural condition and in principle (theory) these to delegate the person with Sovereign Power, who cares for further consolidate natural sociality. From the deal, as we said society members commit to undertake tasks which arises now not as individuals, but as a citizen (citizen), which means obeying the created power, and from the other side in bases of exercising the power is the obligation to ensure the safety and tranquility of society, in function of natural law that every single individual enjoys (Pufendorf 2007, 184).

In a schematcall way, Pufendrof viewpoint will appear in this form:



Kontrata shoqërore → (Bashkësia qytetare (Civitas) → Dekreti (Forma e Shtetit) → Kontrata e dytë (Sovrani)

Fig. 3

Reverse path is in the same view as that of Hobbes. But here remains to be evidenced the difference that social body in judgment of Pufendorf's hides the individual. He mostly implied, in melting with the whole. According to this judgment, the sovereign and the subject lose the directly report. Mediator for the individual is the civil society where is placed in report to the Sovereign, in case when the Sovereign act over the individual the mediator is the state. At this point it seems that civil society and the state identify each - other. Schematically reverse way would be like this form:

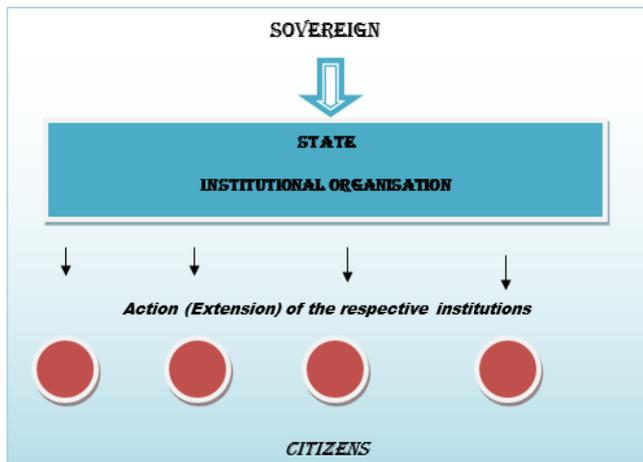


Fig. 4

Post - contract: the nature, extention and characteristics of the Sovereign

Mediator role of the contract makes possible the process of passing from the freedom or unconditional state in circumstances of absolute duties. Freedom for man after the contract is expressed more limited, as a minimum space of action (Hobbs, 2000, p. 97). Avoiding the natural condition and willpowergness (accountability) to enter in the civil society is an indication that the contract is not only intermediary, but it is untouchable, absolutely inviolable (Hobbes, 2000, p. 98). Inviolability and undifferentiabe of this contract, in the judgment of Hobbes, means that the sovereign power is absolute, untachable, unaltered. From this comparison, but even started from the meaning that Hobbes gives to the social contract, as an absolute converter, from the absolute freedom to the absolute duty we will express for a sovereign power that subdues, but in an absolute way.

Social pact means that we have determined the reference, the criteria on the actions and behavior of everyone. Now and on, the particular individual is not anymore arbiter of its actions. The sovereign in this discus is a necessary condition to society. Differently from Pufendorf he sees the politic body and the civil organization of the society with a governing power as the only meaning of the term "society". Sovereign power is the fundamental criterion of society creation. People by nature are asocial, and even don't have any inclination or desire, pleasure to live in society (Hobbs, 2000, p. 78). This criterion gives validity and regulates relations among the members. Order with Sovereign power it gives meaning even to the politic body or creates the nature of civil society. In short, the absolutism of Hobbes sees meaning over society, the political body or civilian society as fundamentally inseparable with sovereign power.

Pufendorf concepts somehow different Hobbesian premise, where the possibility of the bad and maintenance of natural sociality will conclude through contract in a sovergein power, which absolutize only the safety and guaranty of natural law, not interested at all for forms or other actions, which doesn't violate this principle, so differently from Hobbes, where at Sovereign everything is absolutised. Perhaps here we have a tendency to express a sovereign with reduced expansion, anticipating the political liberalism with the idea of "minimal state". Pufendorf in the reason of sovereign power absolutize only the fundamentals of natural laws allowing the moral and the authentic sociality in their simplicity until unencroachment

of this that makes the principle of natural law. So, Pufendorf differ the sociality from civil society (citizen), where the reason of the last makes the reason of Sovereign Power, as the above reason, the most cultivated.

Natural liberty like duty and right, in the judgment of Pufendorf is a wide concept and the reason of Sovereign power is included by this concept by referring to specific aspects, henceforth creating the other level of social organizing (Pufendorf, 2007, p. 25). Viewed from this point, the civil right unless it contradicts the natural law is within the application criteria and its applicability (similarity with Bodin). While in Hobbes, civil law must change the natural condition like a total bad, to ensure the fulfillment of human nature as an individual. In the condition of absolute freedom and absolute right in the natural condition in terms of duty, the Sovereign law. Levitani for him is an artificial body, which creates an artificial society (remember sociality is unnatural for Hobbes), with the primary aim of meeting the fundamental natural law, human survival. For this reason, the sovereign power should include the whole, therefore be absolute.

After the Social Contract, we are in a different context. Individuals are not yet a crowd as Hobbes describes, nether a natural sociality state (spontaneous) as it deems Pufendorf. Already they through contract are consolidating as a single body, as a unique political community by objecivising the force (powers) of individual at soverign person, who is personification of this unified body, So, the sovereign doesn't represent simply society, but a given concept of it, which is related to safety, the compacticy of organization. Thanks to this change, we have the passing from chaotic state or natural sociality in social society, which makes more stable human relationships to clear and strict rules. In this context, the contract and its implementation is the avoidance of the natural bad and this is a rule of reason to avoid being destroyed or selfdestroyed.

Anyway, here are showed two models of contracts. The contract of Pufendorf creates the Sovregein power, differently from Hobbes where the Sovereign is contracted. In the philosophy of Pufendorf, power is generated, created, formed by the "agreement", as a joint act, as internal community act. To Hobbes, the power of all is personified to a single individual, as a third party, by supporting the monarchy form of governance. The absolute power, inalienable that act to all, but without losing the individual connection (contract) with no one. Hobbesian contract creates a direct connection between the subject and Sovereign in a comprehensive context (public). Connection which in Pufendorf's is missing where mostly the individual delegates the right and responsibility to the community and the contracted community decides about sovereign power. How to say, the individual has indirect relationship with sovereign power. In this case, is more expressed an institutional form of Sovereign, giving the state importance as a way of extending this power. However, not clearly Pufendorf seem inclined to institutional Monarchy of governance or Republic form.

In this context, State for Pufendorf is seen as a "moral person" (Pufendorf 1964, p. 11). The double contract is not simply an act that creates individual reports between subjects and the Sovereign Person, like happens in contract of Hobbes. So, Sovereign doesn't contract, but is created based on the opinion of Pufendorf, where the community as a social body, organized politically delegates all his power to the Sovereign Person by distancing from the physic person in public person (Beaulac, 2003, p. 254). His action does not come in direct way as power of physic person over the members of society. Extension is mediated by the state, the shape of which is expressed in decree, by giving moral and public character, motivated by the creation of civic community thanks to the initial contract.

As the representative of all, the Sovereign except he wins omnipotence, he is completely free, as a separate entity, situated outside the society, but in function of it. So, he is discerned, separated and attributed virtue, quality, rights and duties that do not belong to anyone in particular. In the logic of Hobbes, it is the person who represents the society as a single body, consolidates and organizes it, even though it is not subject (member) of the society, consequently, nor subject to his power. Argument justifies the Sovereign as a higher power and absolutely unrestricted by other powers. Being, seperatly entity the sovereign acquires a quite special status, which for Hobbes does not even have comparance with the individual, nor with one part of society, not even with concrete society taken as whole. Characteristic described even by Pufendorf (Pufendorf, 2007, p. 185).

Conclusions

Invulnerability of some natural rights, fundamental like the one of life requires assurance and guarantee for the applicability of this principle, even this goes beyond the humanism expressed in the philosophy of Pufendorf. State of Nature is the premise from which initiates a conversion process (exchange) and the contract is the point of connection, intermediary moment. In this context, the contract is not only the main point of the transformation of human society from natural situation,

but it is also special because it of moral character, social and political. Hence, it creates an artificial Person with legal attributes. So, the social contract is something intermediate between the socio - political act and legal convention. Just so, one can justify the other. How to say, the socio – political act in terms of post - contract is dictated by the legal rule and vice versa, the legal act is justified by socio – political pact.

The difference to both authors comes as a result of different ways in concepting of the same premiss, such as the state of nature. Hobbes concepts it as a total chaos, like a state of absolute bad, where all are characterized by ego and private interest. Therefore, the contract should make an absolute conversion from the conditions of freedom in terms of duties. In this sense, the society beyond the contract, civil society, for Hobbes is the opposite of state of nature. Society has meaning only like a civil society, which, refers to a completely absolute power, as Sovereign (King). Discussion, which Pufendorf do it differently, where natural condition, without excluding the arguments of Hobbes, is not characterized by total bad, but from the possibility of bad. Man, by nature tends towards the community with others. For this reason, the Social Contract of Pufendorf is sequel of the state of nature as a kind improvement of itself, as a kind improved. It fixes, absolutise only the laws of nature through the guarantee of power sovereign.

Hobbesian contract is one and only, which focuses on dacordness among members to authorise (delegate) their power to a third Person. So, this model contract consists in individual authorization (personal) of power to a person made in a public context, such is social contract. Pufendorf thinks differently this moment; with two contracts and one decree, where the first contract forms civic community and this community through decree proclaimed the form of government, going further with a second contract, which defines the Sovereign Person. So, at Hobbes we have direct relation between the individual and the Sovereign, and to Pufendorf individual hides through civic community. This creates the difference in the way of action of the Sovereign on citizens, where to Hobbes is in the same time on everyone and anyone in particular, but for Pufendorf the extention of sovereign power is realized through the State, as an inclusive and public.

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Partocracy or Democracy: A Popperian Perspective of Democracy in Albania

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Abstract

"If the idea of democracy is sustainable, its implementation is uncertain," says Cister, in order to highlight the fact that, despite efforts of different societies to consolidate their democracy, the democracy as a governance system, continues to be at risk. In this context, this research paper aims to identify, argue and analyze the level of the Albanian democracy development, which is consolidating a declined democracy system, that of partocracy. To develop this discussion, we are focused on the examination and recognition of the above two systems, which in terms of Albanian democracy, put in front of each-other, two theses in the field of political philosophy, that of Karl Popper and Mauro Calise. The comparison and recognition of these philosophical theses will guide the study of Albanian model of democracy. This discussion will go through philosophical theses, based on indicators of democracy that are: pluralism, voting system and decentralization of powers.

Keywords: partocracy, "Popperian democracy", pluralism, voting system, institutional decentralization.

Introduction

Democracy and partocracy; where does the political power lie?

When we refer to systems of governance over the past century we conclude that: ". . . democracy is known as the ideal system of government: a prominent and legitimate form, which provides a political and social structure within which people can live a happy life". Dupré, B. ; 2012, pg. 24). But for the word "democracy" there are a variety of perspectives concerning its meaning, content and conditions for its implementation. These varieties of perceptions include a conceptual plan trying to understand the meaning of democracy, as well as the efforts for its implementation through different tools.

The word "democracy" was used for the first time in Ancient Greece to materialize the social relations of the time. Democracy in Greek language means: *demos*-people, *kratos*-power, so giving power to people. This concept is quite broad and serves to characterize the forms of government, political system features and to express social relations. If we refer to the logical relation between democracy and politics, we could distinguish that democracy from this perspective, is seen as a form of organization that ensures the power of majority and esteem toward minority, by creating space for free competition of political alternatives. But in fact the word 'people' raises the discussion if the word is in singular which means forms a body or is a relative plural. According to G. Sartori, " there are six possible interpretations of the concept:

People literally mean every individual

People mean an uncertain majority, a huge number of persons

People mean lower class

People are an inseparable whole, an organic whole

People are the absolute majority

People are the majority according to the principal of absolute majority. " (Sartori, G. , 1998, fq. 14-15)

These interpretations, which carry many contradictions, give meaning to the power of people, the democracy. Contemporary theorists and philosophers rely on three basic paradigms, which are:

universality or relativity of democracy; as a system of government

democracy, a process or a condition; as governing practice

democracy, as a method or as a substance and substantial result

George Burnham writes: "If we don't take in consideration the definition of the word democracy, but the way in which the majority uses this word, we will discover that it has nothing to do with self-government". Sartori, G., 1998, fq. 14) Democracy in this debate is related to power: the use, allocation, power control, and responsibility of those who exercise or seek to exercise it. The problem of power does not affect the right to power, but how to exercise it; the real power is on the hands of the person who exercises it. Sartori, G., 1998, fq. 20) Democratic systems generally are based on majority rules where is emphasized the transfer of power to the representatives through the electoral mechanism.

In order to give a general overview of the history of political ideas on democracy we rank some philosophers according to the criteria: How much influence should people have on the governance of their country? Among them we can mention:

Those that support the idea of a government over people: rulers have the right to use all means to maintain their power. We can mention here, Machiavelli, "all states, all powers, that have held and hold rule over men have been and are either republics or principalities." (Machiavelli, N., 2003, pg13). He writes: "A prince should always observe the progress of his own country; his methods will always be considered honest and appreciated by all, because people of all nations are the same, they see only the appearance and the results" ... (Machiavelli, N., 2003, pg. 87.) So, according to him, the prince stands over moral values when exercising his powers and can use corruption and random arrests when he judges them as necessary. The political power is guided by the belief that if you don't rule, someone else will do. Politics is a form of struggle for different power positions, from highest to the lowest ones, for the survival of the state and rulers.

Those who think that someone should govern for people: leaders must exercise all their power to make reality what they think is best for the society. Representatives of this idea were Plato, Hobbes, Locke, Marx etc. ...

Those who believe in a government elected by people: people should elect their political representatives who make decisions on their behalf. As representatives of this idea we can mention Aristotle, utilitarian's, Joseph A. Schumpeter, Alexis de Toqueville etc... Joseph A. Schumpeter (1883-1950) was a supporter of representative democracy. He thought that the core of democracy was that everyone (one person- one vote) must appoint their leaders through election or rejection of the parties that appear in the election process.

In the above-mentioned platform, philosophers attribute the sovereignty to people, arguing that he has the right to establish and abolish a government, because government is, as Lincoln said, "of the people, by the people, and for the people". But today the dimensions of democracy exceed the ideological meanings and are much more pragmatic.

In this framework, we can identify other forms of democracy:

Participatory democracy: in which political engagement provides valuable knowledge and experience, a political socialization. In this kind of democracy, it is important that all the members of political parties have a meaningful contribution to the elaboration of strategies and have close cooperation with the society.

Democracy and competition: according to which the only political activity of people is to choose between elites (parties) that are in competition with each other. They will rule and probably will change in the next elections, because people do not have the capacity and knowledge to become part of the treatment of complex social problems. People are easily manipulated by idealist and populist leaders who find easy solutions. Representatives of this democracy, think that, direct democracy leads to short-term, unpredictable governance.

Democracy of discussion, its supporters admit that the core of democracy is much more than to win elections, there must be a hard work on finding the right reasons that lead to agreement and compromise. Participants in this kind of democracy should explain their views, listen to others' opinions and then decide on the best argument for the benefit of the community and society.

This is the reason why modernists see democracy as a process based on some principles, admitting that the existence of a formal process is not sufficient for achieving democratic governance. This approach creates another paradigm: democracy is a way through which the majority delegates the authority to those who want to exercise some powers (defined or limited, undefined or unlimited). Based on this delegation of authority, democracy is a set of interactive processes, in which the brake mechanism balance or coordinate, continuously or periodically, the power between executives and people.

To speak about the attribution of powers, mechanisms of control and demand presupposes a choice in public institutions, which includes three branches of government: legislature, executive and judiciary.

Opinions about democracy are not always clear or identifiable. Advanced arguments are not always coherent or logical. This is obvious in the literature of political thought of the time and especially in the public debate about democracy. One of the reasons for this political and intellectual confusion comes from the fact that the word democracy is often used in different contexts belonging to three different concepts. They are:

Democracy as a process, including mechanisms, procedures and formalities from political organization to elections.

Democracy as a term or condition, that includes everything required for a given society and its political regime, including democratic processes and also democratic results.

Democracy as an output, which includes the effects of policies and practices that are accepted by the people. This result may derive from a condition or situation, and also may be the product of democratic processes.

These three concepts are not mutually excluded and are not contradictory; on the contrary, they are at the same plan. It is however important to mention that they represent three levels or three stages of democracy. "*The meaning and content of the word democracy, the difference with other systems of governance, is the right of people to take part in the management of public affairs, the legitimacy of governance and governance practices.*" (Sartori, G., 1998, pg. 22-23)

Vienna Declaration on the Human Rights affirms that "Democracy is based on the freely expressed will of the people to determine their own political, economic, social and cultural systems and their full participation in all aspects of their lives." However, to take into account these declarations in the light of cultural and socio-political experiences of the West would be a mistake. As stated by the General Secretary of the United Nations Boutros-Ghali, in his report in 1995 in the General Assembly, "*democracy is not a model that should be copied, but a goal that should be achieved by all people and assimilated by all cultures. It can take many forms, according to the particular characteristics and history of each society.*"

In democratic processes, the term democratization is well known and means "state of transition" of governance which renounces undemocratic practices in favor of new forms of power separations, governance practices and responsibilities toward public. Here we can mention democracies in developing countries, which are often described as protodemocracy, with arguments that it is not known the duration of the transition stage of the system.

In order to consider a society as democratic, according to the American professor Robert A. Dahl; to organize the relationship between people and political system there must be fulfilled the following requirements:

Voting equality and freedom of speech and organization. A democratic society should be characterized by a variety of views to oppose the government even by a small group.

A variety source of information.

Free and fair elections

Free vote competition, parties must fight for voters without barriers and under the same conditions.

Impact of the elected people. Bodies elected by people must have a real influence on the governance.

Thus analysis on democracy is extended in many directions which provide a clear and broader meaning of this form of government. Although democracy is traditionally divided as direct or participatory democracy, we identify that even in this division we can find subdivisions and different meanings of the concept of people-power relationship.

On the other hand, it should be highlighted that political realities, today under the name of democracy, reveal another view of the system of governance.

We could mention here partitocracy, which according to Mauro Calise, represents a political regime in which the power has its centers in leadership of political parties and not on the bodies projected by the country's constitution. Calise, M., 1994, pg. 40- 48). Although parties, through their parliamentary groups, are constitutional bodies that have an important role in determining the policies of a country, partitocracy regime constitutes a serious degeneration of the democratic system. In these conditions, partitocracy is the main reason for the failure of democratic system.

It primarily affects the party system and then the state structures and the society. Partitocracy appears especially in countries with lack of rule of law institutions, particularly those that have emerged from communist totalitarian systems.

In partitocracy, the real power is centralized in the hands of political party leaderships, who define the political orientation and have the monopoly in decision making process of the country. Partitocracy imposes politics without ideas. Supporters of such regime are simply loyal and devoted to the party leadership.

In this regime, parliament function is atrophied, because in reality it is always in front of a taken decision and cannot effectively play its constitutional role as the center of the debate and decision making process.

The government exercises its power not according to a program, but under an agreement made between the political parties, where political parties determine government policy options according to "their areas of influence." Partitocracy Cabinet cannot provide the necessary political stability; however, it could not fail because of the no-confidence motion in parliament. In partitocracy governments are defeated from within, as a result of disagreements between the coalition parties or, in specific cases, of internal conflicts within a party.

The main characteristic of partitocracy is manifested in the control of different sectors of the public administration, justice, health, education and society. Public services suffer political pressures. The main criterion for making career is not professionalism but party affiliation. Party influence does not end with state administration. As a direct result of the administration control, this influence is spread in sectors of economy, and encourages corruption, favors connections with groups involved in organized crime.

Another characteristic of partitocracy is the fact that the electorate does not feel represented in the country governance. He cannot influence the political orientation and the nature of possible coalitions. The only attribute is to distribute its votes between political parties without being able to influence his governance. Against a hopeless electorate, stand party militants who try to gather the fruits of partitocracy.

The contradiction of these regimes, which take their meaning by referring to the manner of exercising the power, allows the philosophical discussions on a new approach that of representative democracy. Can we consider a country as democratic if it provides pluralism, which carries the exercise of political power in the function of party members or the winning coalition? What is the impact of people who vote? How should be an electoral system that provides effective representativeness of people?

Karl R. Popper and a new approach to democracy.

"Democracy was never the rule of the people, cannot be, and must not be." (Popper, K. 2011, pg. 95)

Karl Popper in his thoughts for political philosophy focuses on two key elements:

Theory of democracy as a system of governance

On the subject of freedom.

He represents a new approach to democracy by focusing on: its definition, mechanisms that ensure democratic governance.

It is wrong to claim that the boundaries of democracy are determined by the means of its definition. In reality, the meaning of democracy is indistinguishable from other forms of governance if we only refer to its definition. Thus, other forms of government like the aristocracy or monarchy, which differ from each other because the first is based on rule of the best, and the second on the rule of an individual; they do not give the clear idea whether they are "democratic" governances or not. A concrete example is the monarchy governance in the UK which reflects a model of the best democracies. This is because in democratic states and even other countries that have different forms of government, people do not exercise power. Popper says: "Wherever rule governments (and unfortunately the bureaucracy that is state employees, who hardly take the responsibility, or don't take the responsibility at all)." (Popper, Karl R, 2011, pg. 80)

Then raises the question, which would be the distinctive mechanism of democratic governance that differs from other forms of governance? According to Popper and also other researchers who advocate the theory of the democratic state, the distinctive mechanism of democratic governance is the organization of elections or abolishment of government. This

mechanism strongly supports the exercise of voting rights. Popper's theory of democracy gives this idea through his view that: "... it is not important who governs, as long as the government can be changed without bleeding." (Popper, Karl R., 2011, pg. 81)

Thus a democratic system differs from a totalitarian and dictatorial system because it provides not only the right to vote but also other governance alternatives, which make it possible to maintain the rule of law. These alternatives give the possibility to replace a previous government and provide opportunities for the individual to meet his needs and requirements. On the other hand, the reactions of the government, which is subject of a test for its efficiency toward individuals, are quiet and try to reflect the electorate feedback in order to satisfy them and attract electorate from other governance alternatives. Popper expresses these ideas through the opinion that: "Every government that we can dismiss has a strong incentive to behave in a way that people are satisfied with it. And if the government knows that people cannot get rid of it so easily, it lacks the motivation." (Popper, Karl R., 2011, pg. 81) (

We can raise the question: Is democracy itself a system of governance that ensures sustainable basis of morality?

Popper admits that the problems of our democracies are linked with moral issues, but at the same time he highlights that democracy problems belong to the theory of state and not only to the discussion of morality about them, as it happened in Greek antiquity where questions on governance were asked as follows:

Is this governance good or bad?

Who should rule?

Popper says that the basic questions which should exist in the principals of our democracies should refer, not to the rule and ruler, but to the government and public administration.

To argue his theory of democracy, Popper studied the issue of pluralism and proportional election system

Referring to pluralism, Popper points out these ideas:

The existence of political parties in a democratic system is essential.

This necessity is due to the fact that our governments are governments of political parties and not people's governments.

But this does not mean that there should be many political parties, the existence of two political parties can make a country more democratic than a country with many political parties.

Political parties, emerging as governing alternatives in a democratic country, provide better opportunities to choose from. But the existence of many political parties affects negatively elections and the democracy of a country. Popper admits that, "It is the duty of a political party to form the government or critically monitor the work of government as an opposition" (Popper, Karl R., 2011, pg. 88). According to him, "...the idea that the large number of ideologies or views should be reflected in a large number of parties... is politically wrong." (Popper, Karl R., 2011, pg. 88).

The pluralism problem becomes even more profound when a democratic state applies the proportional election system.

Referring to this system, Popper emphasizes that the problem lies in its practical applications for the formation or fail of a government. In the context of this idea he distinguishes that:

The existence of many political parties and the implementation of a proportional electoral system make it difficult to establish a government with a single ideology and its own program, because the proportional system provides opportunities to small parties to exert a major influence on the formation of a governing majority.

The same situation is created for the abolition of a government through the voting process because the ruling majority is based on pre electoral and post-election coalitions of political parties. This means that although it may happen that in other elections is asked a government collapse; through coalitions and alliances with smaller parties, it could regain a majority although this majority "may be thousands of miles away from representing "people's will" (Popper, Karl R. , 2011, pg. 85)

But proportional system has many other problems. A key question is that of responsibility in governance. Who bears the responsibility of political decisions, when the government emerges from elections on a proportional system? When government is created from coalitions, the responsibility of political decisions is not taken by any of the coalition parties. On

the other hand, according to proportional system each party chooses its representatives based on the percentage of votes. Deputies are elected as representatives of political parties, so they are obedient soldiers to them. Popper says that the deputy: "...cannot be obliged by circumstances to vote against his party: It is the contrary, he is morally related to his party, as he is elected as representative of the party. And if in the long term it does not comply with his conscience, he would have probably the moral duty to resign, even when the constitution does not provide it)". Popper, Karl R. , 2011, pg. 83)

Popper through his criticism toward proportional electoral system and pluralism gives the idea that the two-party system is more democratic, it enables:

The creation of a real majority in parliament.

Party self-criticism.

Implementation of radical reforms within the party when it loses in elections.

The real competitiveness with each other.

The improvement of political parties in function of the real representation of the people.

But the basis of democratic governments is referring to freedom and its limits. According to Popper "*An excess of power leads to robbery. But it also exists an excess of freedom. And unfortunately there is a misuse of freedom...*" (Popper, Karl R., 2011, pg. 103). Thus Popper develops four freedom theses:

Western democracies offer the best possible political systems, but institutions always need to be criticized, referring to freedom and its limits.

Democracy and freedom provide the impact of our personal ability and knowledge on the welfare of the state.

Political freedom is a freedom that represents a final value and for this reason we are not allowed to choose it.

Faith in freedom and democracy does not always provide victory, but it also leads to world disasters and degeneration to terrorism.

Through reflection on postmodern political philosophy, now let's focus on Albania and its democracy during the post-communist period. Are we dealing with democracy as a developing process or partitocracy regime?

Albanian democracy, pluralism and proportional electoral system

Frederic Mayor when referring to democracy, points out that democracy is practice. Although based on the values that can be transmitted, *the mode of action is essential. We reflect by implementing; we give legitimacy by acting.*

In this context, the forms of democracy in Central and Eastern Europe are presented by different researchers in the form of a *procedural democracy*, which is based on a system of free elections, fair and honest that ensure civil liberties; or *substantive democracy*, which provides a continuous process of reproduction of regulations and relationships between government and society and its influence on governance. While the Albanian democracy is described as a protodemocracy, according to Daniel Nelson it represents, "*Political systems in which there is a parliament, political parties and elections, as well as vestiges of representative government, like free and fair elections, fair judicial procedure, transparency of public discussion through independent media and other democratic principles. At the same time these are systems in which public attitudes do not reflect the norms of equal opportunities, tolerance or public accountability that citizens expect to be implemented in democracy.*" (Biberaj, E. , 2011, pg. 26)

The representative system of Albanian democracy is still in transition, not only in establishing the system but also in its function. A picture of achievements of Albanian democracy is presented by Freedom House for the period 2007-2016, by ranking the indicators from the minimal level 0 (zero) to the maximum level 7 (seven). These indicators have pointed out that democracy development indicators in Albania remained unchanged and the level of democracy, according to this report is estimated worse than it was in 2007.

Nations in Transit Ratings and Averaged Scores

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
National Democratic Governance	4.25	4.25	4.25	4.50	4.75	4.75	5.00	4.75	4.50	4.50
Electoral Process	4.00	4.00	3.75	3.75	4.00	4.25	4.25	4.00	4.00	3.75
Civil Society	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00
Independent Media	3.75	3.75	3.75	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.25
Local Democratic Governance	2.75	2.75	2.75	3.00	3.25	3.25	3.50	3.50	3.50	3.50
Judicial Framework and Independence	4.00	4.00	4.25	4.25	4.25	4.75	4.75	4.75	4.75	4.75
Corruption	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.25	5.25	5.25	5.25
Democracy Score	3.82	3.82	3.82	3.93	4.04	4.14	4.25	4.18	4.14	4.14

Source: This table contains statistical data taken from the Freedom House report about the indicators of democratic development in Albania during 2007-2016.

Let's stop now, mainly on the analysis of two factors related to each other inevitably, and in the meaning of democracy as practice they are key indicators; as they are also main transformation indicators of these systems in different regimes of democracy: *pluralism* and *electoral system*. These indicators remain essential in the analysis of control and exercise of political power. Based on political and historical findings, our system is like the Italian party system. It is characterized by a stable form of multi-party system, founded on unstable political equilibrium. Its visible shortcomings are: lack of governing alternative, limitation of voter representation, instability of governments. On the other hand, the adoption of a proportional electoral law has produced a pluralist system characterized by *multiplication of extreme poles* and *centrifugal competition of political parties*, which stimulates the existence of a large number of parties and united poles in a broad ideological distance, which lead to lack of representation, government instability and inefficiency. The *centripetal competition* identifies a limited number of parties, which reduce ideological distance and favors representation, and political stability of governments.

The issue of pluralism in Albania, although sanctioned in the Article 9 of the Albanian Constitution, points out many polemics which are oriented in:

The existence of duopoly, as governance alternative. There are about 114 registered political parties, but in fact there are only two, the rest are unknown parties, described by some scholars as "ghost party".

Lack of concepts that refer to the identity of political parties and governing coalitions. The undefined features of political parties in government, sacrificing their identity, is a consequence of the development of Albanian society and the increasing demands toward political representatives and realization of democratic principles; but also the impact of international European forces and global politics. It should be emphasized that they do not choose a physiognomy in a pragmatic way. Indicating that "*it is more difficult to exercise than to take the power*" (Baladyr, E. 2007, p. 25), the idealistic programs become democratic and non-democratic platforms.

Lack of a strategic reformist vision. What confuses the issue of real representation of the people through political parties is the creation of electoral coalitions, which are defined in the Article 65, paragraph 1 and 2 of the current Electoral Code. This electoral code does not exclude the *possibility of creating coalitions among parties with different programs*. Problems become even more acute when the number of deputies from coalitions of the biggest political parties is equal; here appears a "small party", which holds the number of deputies that would give the majority to a coalition. History has shown that post-election alliances, in order to gain the majority in parliament, have provided *links between parties with different identities*.

And of course the problem of representation confuses the division between position and opposition who try to take majority and lose their identity within the alliance.

We can affirm that fragmentation, which has influenced the electoral extension and the growing number of political parties, has brought crisis of political parties and their mediation function by transforming radically the Albanian context, *in particular the relationship between society and public institutions*. Rousseau thought that representative systems are not really democratic because "people are free only once every few years at election time; then they return to their previous position of submission to the rules, this is not better than slavery" (Beetham, D. ; Boyle, K. 1995, pg. 7). From the ideological point of view, Albanian political system is a state of law. But if we refer to the analysis of institutional relations, the legal aspect doesn't lead these relationships or keeps the balance between the political parties. Partisanship appears in the creation and function of institutions after every electoral process, which makes people distrustful toward institutions with new staff. About this issue Rexhep Qosja said in 1997 that: "Even today like yesterday the partisanship could lead you forward, when you deserve it or not. . . it can make you rich, but this partisanship can draw you out of work and leave without any living conditions," (Qosja, R. , 1997, fq. 64)

The scholar Artan Fuga expressed a moderate view in 2008, when stated that:

"... these institutions have two levels: first, European, Western, based in law, and an expression of the general will, and the second a simple substrate of relations between parties, which is closely linked with the local Albanian context, with the tradition of overlapping powerful social actors, in this case of parties before the law" (Fuga, A. , 2008, pg. 87). Thus we get an overview of the situation where law and institutions are seen as formal aspects of democracy, and on the other hand on the bases of this democracy is reflected an institutional function, focused on party militancy.

Subsequently, the representative of the Socialist Party, Gramos Ruçi, on a TV program entitled "Debate" in April 6, 2012 declared that " Today institutions are ruined", and at the same view was Prof. Lisien Bashshkurti, who highlighted a denatured crisis which came as a result of the financial crisis that was nothing else but the crisis in education and culture and the collapse of public administration. Institutions that have reflected such problems and have doubted the decentralization of powers such as media, General Prosecutor, the President, the Electoral College, Judicial power at all levels, public administration, but also civil society actors, reflect their lack of consolidation as a result of destabilizing processes under the influence of the ruling party, this according to the Freedom House report (Table 1). This contestation, for Albanian constitutionalists, in the context of justice reform, and the law of Veting, appears in the light of the lack of decentralization of powers, as the legislative and executive powers are hold by the same people. According to them there is an open struggle between the judiciary and the other two powers that have under control all public institutions.

On the other hand, sanctioning of a proportional electoral system is characterized by the emergence of problems about political power and that of representation of the people, this places Albanian democracy in a continuous transition. The proportional system is based on the principle according to which seats in parliament are divided in proportion with votes of political parties. In this way, Parliament is a kind of political mirror representing different political directions. Every minority and every political direction is well represented in parliament. The proportional system of elections makes it possible the establishment of new parties, because for their representation in parliament they need to win only a vote in each constituency, as they are calculated together, for example if a new party win one percent of the votes it gives the possibility to have some seats in parliament. The attraction for establishing new parties brings new elements and encourages ramification of parties and of other groups of interest. For this reason, the proportional election system often creates a parliament divided in many parliamentary groups, from which emerge *unstable coalition governments with weaknesses in leadership and crises*. On the other hand, on a proportional system candidates for deputy are determined in local or regional conventions, not by local party committees, which give greater influence to party leaders. This makes voters not to elect the respective candidate, but must vote for the list of relevant parties, within which candidates are ranked according to a certain row.

For this purpose, Judith Hoffman wrote that: "...Albania had and still has problems on holding elections according to international standards-despite the great support of the international community and continuously growing requirements in accordance with international standards of EU, OSCE and others. Although the development of fair elections is an essential criterion of a consolidated democracy, electoral reform is one of the most competitive and disputed part of political system in Albania. I'm afraid to say that in this respect, the Albanian democracy is a "zero sum game" and yet operates according

to a logic that "the winner takes it all", which prevents decisive steps to change" (Institute of International Studies, 2011, pg. 18)

Data on the development and consolidation of regional proportional electoral system in Albania, in the organization of elections, the implementation of election campaigns, and post-election political coalitions are identified clearly in the OSCE ODIHR reports. If we refer to the elections of June 23, 2013 we will identify that repeatedly as in the elections of 2009, appear these problems:

An atmosphere of mistrust between the two main political parties, which violated the electoral climate and created problems in the management of the electoral process.

Although the Electoral Code was amended extensively in July 2012, which improved in general the electoral framework taking into account a number of previous recommendations of OSCE / ODIHR and the Commission for Democracy through Law of the Council of Europe (Venice Commission), public confidence in the electoral process was harmed, because not all stakeholders fully implemented some important aspects.

In the absence of a decision taken by the Central Election Commission (CEC) for determining the number of deputies in four election districts, the previous Parliament decision on this matter influenced the principle of a correct process and equality of vote, due to the use of old statistics of population.

The impression that CEC acted politically, was reinforced by its decision to change the composition of election commissions at lower levels by replacing all the members of 89 Commissions of Electoral Administration Areas (CEAA) appointed by the second greatest opposition party and this decision lacked a legal argument.

In general, there was confidence in the quality of voter lists, with some concerns expressed mainly by smaller political parties, although 139 mayors and head of communes were fined for not fully performing their duties to inform the CEC about the number of voters and locations.

A variety of activities were accompanied by official government advertising campaign of the ruling party, by diminishing the boundaries between public institutions and party interests, and not respecting the paragraph 5. 4 of the Copenhagen Document of the OSCE in 1990.

The pressure on public sector employees to campaign or to vote in a certain way as well as politically motivated dismissals stained the campaign. Accusations of vote buying were intensified with the approach of Election Day, and the police made several arrests.

Political parties could finance their election campaigns with contributions from public funds, private donations and loans, while independent candidates were not entitled to benefit from public funds. But the legal framework does not provide sufficient transparency about campaign finance reporting, since it is not obligatory to make known the funding before Election Day.

Audiovisual media generally offered enough time to major political parties, by creating the opportunity to inform voters about the main political attitudes. However, editorial independence was hampered by political influence. The CEC adopted a controversial decision that meant establishing an obligation to the media to broadcast materials prepared by electoral subjects, which would violate editorial freedom. The public broadcaster provided to the biggest parties the same time in news, but had a more positive tone against the ruling party. Media monitored by EOM and OSCE / ODIHR did not fulfill their obligations to provide to smaller parties specified amount of coverage in news and exceeded the limit of paid political advertising for the two major parties. The delayed creation of Media Monitoring Board and the lack of collegiality reduced its effectiveness. CEC does not effectively enforce legal regulations concerning the media.

Women candidates had low media coverage reflecting the issue of women's participation in political life. Gender quota obligation was not fulfilled by the DP, SP and the Socialist Movement for Integration (LSI) in a number of constituencies, which led to the imposition of fines, but nevertheless the candidate lists were approved. While political parties fulfilled the legal obligation to allocate at least 30 percent of each gender in the composition of CEAZ, observers noted that the women presence in Voting Center Commissions was 14 percent.

Electoral actors didn't have the effective juridical tools for resolving complaints about the election. In key cases, legal authorities refused to investigate and analyze complaints or exceeded their powers. In some cases, the Electoral College

took administrative responsibilities and discretionary powers of the CEC. Electoral contestants rarely used the available mechanisms for solving their disagreements, due to their mistrust in the legal system and the fear of political deals. Voters and civil society groups were not legitimized to complain about the administrative decisions of electoral commissions.

Cases of family/group voting and application in different ways of some procedures affected negatively the overall assessment of the voting process.

The counting process was delayed in many BCC because of disorganization, including here the delayed nomination of vote counters and obstacles created by some vote counters proposed by the ruling party.

The presence of observers from civil society and party observers throughout the Election Day generally increased the transparency, although in some cases party observers interfered in voting or counting process.

The CEC received 40 complaints that did not accept the results of a number of constituencies, most of them pretending that political opponents took votes during counting process. Although the CEC with its reduced composition should not take into consideration complaints against the results, in practice it exercised this legal competence. While complaints presented by small parties were refused regularly, the CEC accepted and reviewed complaints introduced by major parties against the results in three regions (Lezha, Shkodra and Kukës), where the leading candidates had a small difference between them.

From the above analysis, the documented facts and reflections about them, we can conclude that the effort to consolidate the Albanian democracy is an effort that seems to put at the center Poppers theory of democracy; but it reflects the views of Caluse theory on partitocracy regimes.

It is clearly reflected in the fact that pluralism in Albania doesn't bring changes in the political aspect of democracy as a system that offers alternative choices between different political parties; but a governing duopoly that exercises its political power. Rotation characteristics didn't bring optional alternative between political parties, but ruling coalition where political parties lose their ideological identity, and didn't find similarity or common features in their programs.

In the interest of political parties are organized and function public administration and institutions. The selective criteria of employment in these institutions is not professionalism but political affiliation; a criteria that is supported and protected by militancy.

On the other hand, this kind of political and institutional pluralism was favored by proportional electoral system. The lack of elected candidates directly by people brought the leaderships of political parties to elaborate the lists of those who will be included in the election electoral system and will exercise political power. De jure this is a popperian method of establishing a representative democracy, but de facto this is a method that implies the exercise of power by the political hierarchy even within political parties, which aim to control the people, will through their representatives.

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Explaining, Cultural, Educational and Social Needs of Faculty Members of Farhangiyān University¹

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Abstract

The present work is an applied and descriptive analysis survey method. Mixed techniques were applied. The Sample population in the qualitative section of the research consists of 19 thinkers; they were selected by purposeful sampling. The sample population was constituted by 181 faculty members of Farhangiyān Universities in six provinces. 150 of them were randomly selected. Research data was gathered by semi-structured interview and the researcher made the needed questionnaire. The most significant educational needs are: religious needs with emphasis on Islamic training and ethical, cultural and social needs which are discussed in four sub - categories: Cultural, Social, Ethical, Political. Quantitative results indicated that the need of such teachings is higher than intermediate level stated below. The most important need of faculty members in the cultural field is "being aware of the role of the university teachers about preserving, transferring, correcting and recreating culture" and their most important need as regards religious teaching is "the ability to use educational methods obtained from the Quran and Nahj al-balaghe" (book of religious teachings).

Keywords: educational need, needs assessment, cultural social educational needs, faculty members, Farhangiyān University

1. Introduction

Changes occurring in cultural systems over time create new needs in any society (Chalabi, 2008:22-245). Moreover, in any society universities are institutions which have great responsibilities such as transferring the cultural heritage, the strengthening ethical awareness in students (Thaerpur, et al 2009). Considering the heavy responsibility of the branches of Farhangiyān University in responding to increasing cultural and social demands in students there is the need for effective programming with the aim of reaching the favorable situation. The first step here can be defined as the identification of the current situation through educational need assessment. In the Farhangiyān University, since what the student - teachers learn is to be put to direct practical use, the integrity of their teachers is of magnified importance.

Accordingly the aim of the present study is that by educational need assessment clarifies cultural, educational and social needs of faculty members of Farhangiyān University. In order to examine related studies were explored and it was indicated that no prominent work have been conducted in this field but some studies were performed about cultural needs of the students which Mahdavi(1999) can be mentioned; its results indicated that many cultural problems among youths. Thus university must be able to internalize norms among students. Blo"meke, Kaiser(2012) think that the curriculum of teacher education has been described as heterogeneous across countries and influenced by the context in which it is implemented.

Russell et al (2013) showed that at least twenty-three distinguishable elements of culture interact with every component of the design process in the: 1) goals and funding decisions of the client; 2) goals and design decisions of the design team; 3) perceptions of the training program of all stakeholders; and 4) the observable outcomes of the training program. By empirically illuminating the pervasive presence of cultural interactions across the instructional design process, this study advocates for culture to be recognized as a construct of importance in our field and demonstrates the powerful capabilities of using a comprehensive descriptive model as a lens for exploring cultural dynamics in the instructional design process.

¹ According to the Predetermined Goals of Education's Fundamental Transformation Document

The article argues that even though deconstruction has indications for action in religious education, the action should be subordinated to the notion of deconstruction as event. Three strategies can be used in the curriculum of religious education inspired by deconstruction. The first strategy is to emphasize the spirit of religion as different from the corpus of rituals. The second strategy concentrates on the common core of religions as a basis for translatability among different religions. Finally, the third strategy deals with providing compatibility between faith and knowledge (Bagheri, Khosravi, 2011). Culture as a determinant factor of behaviors is an important subject in a society. Until recently, culture as a collectively held set of values, traditions, beliefs, and assumptions was not considered as a factor in the process of development. Now, however, culture is recognized as the heart of the development process. Culture is the fourth pillar of sustainable development. It can determine the human's priorities to gain the material and spiritual goals. The relation between culture and sustainable development is considerable and outstanding (Haghighi, 2009).

Vahedchokadeh (2005) also emphasizes that educational program must be designed in a way that promote favorable social cultural education (p15). Fathi, Vajargah et al (2006) believe that cohesive consideration of cultural values in different education levels is intransitive (p32). Some researchers believe that considered cultural needs as top priority education's (Hamidi 2005, Ahmadi et al 2008, Esmaili and Rabiee, 2008, Asare et al, 2012) Loghmanniya and khamesan (2010) believe that irrelevance of content of lessons to sub-cultures and also multi level concept of national cultural identity are the cause of weak observing of cultural identity. Saboktakin and Khosrojerdi (2013) believe that alone education is meaningless, but education trend includes teaching culture too (55). Other researchers believe that knowledge centered culture must facilitates educational innovation (Safae and Fakhri, 2012, p. 5). To some researchers, higher education institutes of the country can play a significant role in social, cultural transformations and can have a more prominent status in cultural responsibility of the society which is adjusted to Islamic Iranian identity (Manafisharafabadi and Zamani, 2012, p.85). In other related studies (1996-2009) the following factors were introduced as causes of keen weakness in field of teaching culture and national identity: a) weakness of educational institute in considering genteel Iranian culture and attaching to foreign cultures (Kafash and Faridi, 1996, p12, and Tavakolinik 2001). B) Not satisfactory curricula in playing their role for crating identity in personal, social and national arenas (Rabani, 2003, p.65). c) Lack of congruence between religious-Islamic, historical, geographical and worldly identity (Rabani, 2002). Not congruence between national and cultural identities and it results in weakening of such issues in educational curriculum (Loghmannia, 2009, p.171). Unfortunately, however, in spite of the fundamental relationship of 'spirituality' to the very basis of what it means to be a human person, and in spite of the fact that spirituality is acknowledged in educational literature as a priority for schools, evidence suggests that we, as a society, could do a lot more to support the spiritual development of teenagers in our care (Waters, 2010)

Universities as models and as the most important institution in transferring cultural values must promote not only scientific aspects which contain cognitive awareness but also must promote cultural and social behaviors (Zokaei, 2003, p.53). It seems that higher education can move forward positively in this domain only when pays deep attention to its education curricula (Sharafi and Taherpur, 1999, p.26).

role of curricula traditional approach -centered in transferring culture includes subjects such as reading and also familiarity to literary choices and education of history, and accordingly they use prescribed cultural values for forming national behaviors (Gutak translated by Pakseresh, 2002, p.78), but, Delanti (2007) believes that ideal of index for cultural education are open widened university which differs greatly from traditional university (Delanti, 2007, 258-259).

In this field studies conducted in foreign countries are also inspiring. For example results showed that considering cultural, social needs and valuing different cultures are significant cultural need and cultural, social political knowledge is highly correlated to current curricula of universities (Lee Kuang Wu, 2000, An Ran and Viv Edward, 2006, Teny Green 2008, Brendan Bartaram, 2009, Riveilli 2010, Reynher, Gilbert and Lockard 2011). Kallen (2005) believes that making internationalization curricula in universities creates cultural opportunities (an cited of Jang 2009). Sikart (2008) also showed that globalization phenomenon influence over national cultural identity of faculty members. Fass and Ross (2012) showed that there is no assimilation between cultural content of experienced and performed curricula Beuckleaer, et al (2012) indicated that cultural variety is considered as a positive potential for improving quality of education of faculty members. Leedjia Svec (2014) showed that cultural knowledge will enable person for saving resources, improving life conditions and also accomplishing responsibilities. Generally education if considered alone is meaningless and education flow in university also includes instruction culture. It is advised that consider a more active role for higher education in the arena of cultural mission of society.

Professors are considered as key factors. Considering their educational needs is a priority in developmental programs of the country. So Farhangian University has changed into a center for fighting against unsuitable training habits and considering the appearance of new cultural needs in society, according to those innovations in cultural, educational fields are cooperated into the process of training future university professors.

According to Mehrmohamadi (2013) "teaching is a extensive activity in universities especially in Farhangian university and one important aspect of it is based on cultural, educational and social needs of students teachers in curricula, thus if it is expected that educational plantings pare the way for this purpose and accordingly they acquire merits in this area, so teaching trainers is crucial importance (Mehrmohamadi, personal interview, 2013).

The researcher aimed to assess needs of faculty members in cultural, educational and social fields. It must be noted that in promotion for faculty members of Farhangian University four main activities are considered: a) Cultural, educational and social activities) Educational activities. c) Inquired and technologic activities) Scientific, executive activities (promotion Bylaw of faculty members, 2011). In the present study, only cultural, educational and social activities are considered and these are divided more into two sub branches of 1) religions studies with emphasis on Islamic education, 2) ethical, cultural and social issues.

2. Research Method

2.1 Type of research

The present research is of analytical-descriptive and surveying method. Depending on the theme of the research, two qualitative and quantitative approaches were employed in performing the different sections of this research work. Qualitative method was used to collect information from specialists and authorities in education while quantitative method was employed to collect information from full-time instructors and the academic members of Farhangian University. The findings of the qualitative section were used not only to answer the research questions but also to construct the tools for the quantitative section. After the implementation of the interview texts, the basic statements related to "teaching skills" were extracted and added to the text of the questionnaire to construct the tools. Therefore, the combined exploratory method was also used in this research (Plano Clark, et al. 2008:372; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007:62-72 quoted by Sharifiyan, et al. 2013:54).

2.2 Population and sample

The population in this research work consists of two sections: A) the authorities and high-ranking experts in education at the country level form the qualitative section of the population in this research work. Nineteen authorities in education who were the sample of this research work were interviewed in a semi-structured manner. B) The full-time instructors and the academic members of Farhangian University from the fourth axis of the country consisting of Esfahan, ChaharmahalvaBakhtiyari, Lorestan, Yazd, Khuzestan, and Ilam formed the population of the quantitative section of this research work.

The initial sampling method for the selection of the authorities and experts in education in this research work was targeted (Creswell, 2007). In fact, the authorities and experts selected for the subject of research work were "significant samples" (Williams, 2006:79). In addition to targeted sampling, network-sampling method was also used during the interviews (Noori, 2008:330). The first interviewees were asked to recommend those whom they considered competent for the topic of the interview. Regarding the authorities in education, the size of the sample was not quantitatively calculated, but to obtain some standards like data saturation and information redundancy show the adequacy of the sample (Onwuegbuzie and Leech, 2007:242; Guest et al. 2006:59 quoted by Sharifiyan et al. 2013:54). The stratified random sampling was also used for the selection of the full-time instructors and academic members of the desired provinces so that all the full-time instructors and academic members of the desired provinces were selected. The sample of the quantitative section of this research work included 150 teachers in total consisting of 45 (30.6%) teacher holding PhD, 102 holding MA/MS (69.4%), and three unspecified teachers. The size of the teachers and academic members was calculated by different methods. In the first method, Cochran sample size was used to specify the number of the teachers and academic members required. Additionally, after performing the research work, the test statistical power was calculated and with regard to the fact that the statistical power was equal to 1, the adequacy of the sample was confirmed.

2.3 Data collecting instrument and determining validity and reliability

A semi-structured interview and a researcher-made questionnaire were used in this research work. The researcher interviewed the authorities to acquire their views. The validity of the interview form was investigated and confirmed by those who examined the validity of the questionnaire. The reliability of the questionnaire form was examined by three experts knowledgeable in the qualitative research methods. They studied the summary of the issues and determined the categories by the use of the triangulation method. Since there was no standard questionnaire regarding the research subject, a researcher-made questionnaire was used to collect information from the intended sample. To determine the content validity of the two tools of interview and questionnaire, the views of 12 academic members of the Faculty of Education and Psychology at Esfahan University who enjoyed the required specialty were employed. The Cronbach's Alpha was used to estimate the reliability and internal correlation of the questionnaire questions. After performing the preliminary studies on 36 individuals of the population and analyzing the questionnaires, the reliability of teaching skills background was estimated to be 0.910. To study the construct validity of the responses, they were analyzed by the use of factor analysis and Varimax rotation method. Therefore, the number of the statements and the components remained unchanged. A minimum factorial load of 0.4 was the standard for the statements to remain in the questionnaire. The results of KMO test was 0.900 and the Bartlett test for the study of sphericity of the data was 742.144 $P < 0.01$ which was meaningful and satisfactory. The amount of the specific values and the justifiable variance percentage for the factor of teaching skills were 62.936 and 5.035, respectively, indicating the suitable validity of the tools.

2.4 Data collection and data analysis methods

Some methods have been presented for the analysis of the information obtained from the interviews that can be used to analyze the propositions and the views of the interviewees (Campbell et al. 2004:125-147; Mason 2002:91-96). Normally, to analyze the data obtained from the interviews, several stages or steps including data preparation, data organization, and data reduction within the framework of the propositions by encoding and condensing the codes are used and ultimately, the data are presented in an image, table or discussion format (Creswell, 2007:148). In this manner, the stages of data analysis are also performed as the above in the present research work. It is done in so that the interviews are performed in person by recording and then by transcribing the interview; the statements are categorized by MAX. QDA Software and after the determination of their reliability they are categorized. To collect the data by the in-person questionnaire related to the academic members, the questionnaires were distributed among them and 150 copies were collected. To analyze the qualitative data, the descriptive-inferential statistics were employed and the average and frequency were calculated at the descriptive level. At the inferential level, the data were first examined for two specifications of normality and homogeneity of variances. In cases when the data enjoy these two specifications, the parametric tests were employed; otherwise, the non-parametric tests were used. The tests used in this research work consisted of multi-way analysis of variance, factor analysis, and single-variable t with a hypothetical average of three

3. Research findings

Since the method of this research work is a combined approach, the findings are therefore presented based on the research questions. The data are analyzed in the qualitative section by the use of categorization method. After the transcription of the text of 19 interviews, 168 propositions (codes) were extracted. After the analysis of the content based on the propositions, 107 propositions were obtained in the second stage and 77 propositions in the third stage and the main categories were determined. With regard to the importance of the subject in this article, the category of "teaching skills" has been studied. In continuation, the needs related to the intended background are presented in Table (1).

Table 1. The most important educational needs expressed by the interviewees in the area of “cultural, educational and social needs”

Main categories	Educational needs
A) Religious studies with emphasis on Islamic education	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. learning of Quran in order to answer students, teachers Questions 2. Ability to transfer Ability of transferring religious ideas values and creating strong faith to Islam 3. Familiarity to Islamic rich resources (Nahjolbalaghe, Nahjolfesaheh, affect and narratives, valid books) 4. Ability of understanding and extracting of educational commitments from Islamic recourses 5. Familiarity with philosophy of Islamic education 6 Familiarity with religious aims in students -teachers curriculum
B) Ethical, cultural and Social issues	<p>A) Cultural domain</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Acquaintance with the role of university professors in preserving, transferring, Correcting and recreating culture. 2. Initial familiarity to collection of human sciences (Sociology, History, Art, Philosophy and Social science). 3. Familiarity with comparative education for knowing other cultures. 4. Need for internationalizing of curricula. 5. Familiarity with aims and bases of cultural direction in Education's fundamental transformation document. 6. Recognizing signs of cultural attack and exposing it. 7. Ability of registering of educational sources content to religious cultural sources 8. Familiarity with the aims of students -teacher's curricula in cultural social educational issues. <p>B) Social domain</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Recognizing the mission of Farhangiy university as the main center for education 2. Need to internalization of curricula 3. Familiarity with the role of education in social growth among teachers and students 4. Familiarity with cultural -social needs and problems of students 5. Familiarity with problems of the current society and new social phenomena's <p>C) Ethical Domain</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. need to Familiarity with life's of types people 2. Familiarity with the applied style of prophet Mohamad and Imams and Fatemeh Zahra 3. Teaching ethics and character teaching and methods for being teaches 4. Need to the teaching norms and values (honesty, professional truth and respecting people's domain) <p>D) Political Domain</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Being knowledgeable about political issues (political thinking and politic understanding) 2. Ability of analyzing current issues in Iran and world 3. Being conscious about teacher's role in political training of students-teachers

3.1 The first question: What are the educational needs of the faculty members in the area of religious teachings with emphasis on Islamic training?

According to interviewees six educational needs mentioned in table 1 were among the most important needs of Farhangiy University faculty members; in the following they are presented briefly:

3.1.1 Need to learn Quran and religious thoughts in order

This need was approved by 14 people participating in the study (73.68%). They believed that usually religious questions are proposed by students (interviewee 1). Also considering quick cultural social transformations, teacher must be able to answer such questions (interviewee 2). Such as development a course called “familiarity with Nahjolbalaqeh”(interviewee 6 and 7). A main issue which deserves special consideration is that in religious teachings we have to look for those who have faith in religion. In fact teachers have to be able to educate students who have strong faith. (Interviewee 13).

3.1.2 Ability of transferring religious believers and values and creating

This educational need is pointed to by 12 participating subjects (63.15%). When, the values have explained Interviewee 3 believes that familiarity with religious must be the priority of those who are supposed to work in education field Therefore it

is suggested that religious consultant be defined as a permanent post in order to answer students and teachers questions (interviewee 4).

3.1.3 Familiarity with educational necessities

It is the other need that mentioned and emphasized by 11 respondents (57.89). Interview 6 believes that Islamic educational methods in Islamic sources are available then must be consequently thought to university professors. When rich educational methods are available then they can be transferred to teachers.

3.1.4 Familiarity with philosophical

12 interviewees (63.15%) consider it as one of the most basic issues which a teacher must acquire it both theoretically and practically, these are philosophical issues and principals mentioned in philosophy of education of Islamic republic of Iran (interviewee 6,9,17).

3.1.5 Familiarity with religious goals in curriculum of students teachers and domination

12 respondents (63.15%) deemed it necessary that in Farhangiyani university, teachers must be acquainted to religious teachings practically. They must gain needed capabilities in their own major to express religious goals; this university must not be limited to transferring mere scientific knowledge (interviewee 12).

3.1.6 Familiarity with pure Islamic

Five of the interviewees (26.31%) explicitly referred to this need. They believe that lack of attention to pure Islamic mysticism have resulted in formation of forged fake mysticisms (interviewee 7). If pure Islamic mysticism, Nahjolbalaghe, SahifeSajadiye and living methods of Imams be included in university teachings of duration service, then import roads for such fake teachings will be blocked practically.

3.2 *The second research question: To what extent do the faculty members of Farhangiyani University require training in the area of "religious teachings with emphasis on Islamic education"?*

Based on research findings 64/1 percent of the respondents in quantitative section had MA degree and 34/4 percent had PhD degree and 57/7 was male and 39/7 was female. 46/2 percent of the respondents have worked between 21 to 30 years.

Table 2. Comparison of Average needs of Farhangiyani university faculty members to education in religious teachings with emphasis on Islamic education with three hypothetically mean

Factor	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean deviation	t	Df	Sig
Education in religious teachings with emphasis on Islamic education	3/61	0/83	0/069	8/882	143	0/001

Based on the findings the Average needs of Farhangiyani university faculty members to education in religious teachings with emphasis on Islamic education is 3.61, because calculated t is higher than the t tables, their need is higher than average.

3.3 *The Third research question: What are the most important needs of the faculty members in the area of "religious teachings with emphasis on Islamic education"?*

Table 3. The most important needs of the academic members in the area of “religious teachings”

	Questions	mean rank
1	Ability of applying of educational and current methods and commitments from in Qoran and Nahjolbalage	5/66
2	Capability of Qoran in order to answer students, teachers Questions	5/26
3	Capability for updating of religious knowledge student-teachers	5/08
4	Familiarity with the aims of student’s curricula in cultural social educational issues.	5/07
5	Ability of recognizing of religious of students	4/89
6	Renovation in the religious concepts related to scientific of teachers	4/88
7	Ability of transferring religious ideas values and creating strong faith to Islam	4/86
8	8.Ability of creating of Islamic studies in classroom and teaching	4/76
9	Familiarity with principles and bases of Islamic education in education	4/55

Findings indicate that in the questionnaire, mean of all related sentences for religious teachings filed with emphasis on Islamic education is higher than average. Sentences 1,2, and 3 got the highest ranks respectively.

3.4 The Fourth research question: what are the educational needs of faculty members of Farhangiyan University in ethical, cultural and social issues?

Four sub issues (refer to table) are identified after studying the interview texts: 1-4 fields of cultural needs: eight different needs of faculty members are for Farhangiyan University recognized by interviewees in this part which are:

3.4.1 Cultural needs

3.4.1.1 Being knowledgeable about the role of university professors

15 interviewees (78.94%) explicitly emphasized on educating for this need. They believe that teachers must consider the role of transferring, preserving, modifying and recreating culture (interviewee 4). They believe that a teacher must make help to preserving current values and also consider their educational-cultural (interviewee 9). Two points in the area of cultural issues is significant: 1. Existence of rich cultural resources based on religious concepts 2. Imagination of cognition process and cultural engineering phenomenology. In fact disorder is evident in all culturally responsible foundations. Prior to any cultural activity, cultural engineering is necessary (interviewee 13).

3.4.1.2 Initial familiarity with human sciences

This need is proved by nine interviewees (47/36%) approved this issue. Interviewee 9 believed that it is necessary for a teacher to be familiar with cultural issues in order to be influential in training teachers and students.

3.4.1.3 Familiarity with comparative education

Seven respondents (36/84 percent) referred to the need of becoming familiar with different cultures. In fact comparative education must be considered in Fariangiyan University as a main course (interviewee 10). If students-teachers have to acquire merits in the cultural domain and, then one of the best fields for preparing the situation is the teachers who must be receive appropriate education (interviewee 16, Mehmohamadi, 2013).

3.4.1.4 Need to the curricula internationalization

This need is a need to which 7 participants (36/84 percent) pointed. According to interviewee 6 this phenomenon permits the cultures to express it; in this issue universities can present its religious values and also pay attention to native owns and positive results others s so respond to educational needs.

3.4.1.4 Familiarity with cultural aims and bases for directing in change

This need is one of the main goals that, 12 persons (63/15 percent) of those who were interviewed emphasized on this issue, subject 11 believes that it is meritorious to put education of teacher’s basis on aims cultural directing in education change Education’s fundamental transformation document. Subject 13 also believed that a unified cultural management is

needed for producing cultural values, and in this way cultural decisions are not personal and guide cultural issues in this route.

3.4.1.5 Being knowing the signs of cultural

13 Respondents (68/42%) considered this issue as a current educational need for university teachers. Interviewer 2 believes that regarding fast cultural social transformations, vast global connections, and cultural attack against Islamic society of Iran is extensive and teachers have to be conscious about this threat.

3.4.1.6 Ability of comparing of course content

Of 15 respondents (78/94%) emphasized on this issue. Respondent 13 believed university courses have to be adjusted to local religious culture. So, teachers thinking's is influenced by such context and mostly such books are translation of western thinkers .

3.4.1.7 Familiarity with curriculum aims

Knowing covert aims in curriculum is a need to which 12 subjects (63/10%) pointed. Interviewer 16 mentioned that special attention must be paid to teacher -student training programs in Farhangiyani University and this can inspire teachers, thus it is expected from a teacher to become familiar with such aims (Mehrmohamadi, 2003).

3.4.2 Needs mentioned in the field of social issues

Four specific needs for Farhangiyani university faculty members are recognized by interviewees in this part which are:

3.4.2.1 Knowing and recognizing social aims and missions

This need is considered critical by 11 respondents (57/89%). Interviewee 3 believes that a teacher must be conscious about (education, research, preparing human work force and entrepreneurship), also they must practically enter such aims to their activities, of course skill in education is one of the main responsibilities of Farhangiyani University.

3.4.2.2 Familiarity with social needs

8 respondents (42/10%) mentioned this issue. Interview 6 considered lack of connection between course contexts to current problems of the society as a big challenge. Interviewee 7 believes that teachers have to be conscious about current problems.

3.4.2.3 Recognizing the role of teacher

This need is considered by 11 believed that Farhangiyani University teachers as a person who has deep-seated view to social issues have to be conscious about his own role in educating. Interviewee 9 expressed that usually teachers are those who aware about common issues of the society. Interviewee 17 also emphasized that at Farhangiyani University social relations must be thought to the students.

3.4.2.4 Familiarity with social problems and damages in society

This need is approved by 9 interviewees (47/36%). In fact professor must have exact view about social issues and consider them in his teaching. Teacher's knowledge about such issues can result in creating knowledgeable teacher-student (interview 12).

3.4.3 Mentioned needs in the Ethical domain

In this domain four different needs are mentioned by the interviewees in this part which are:

3.4.3.1 Need to the familiarity with lives

10 Interviewees (52/63%) believed that familiarity to great mode figures can be helpful in teaching culture. In this regard Quran can be used a training model (interviewee 14). Another interviewee (13) believed that teaching based on studying life of models in curriculum can make a good content for transferring to teachers.

3.4.3.2 Familiarity with the applied style

10 interviewees believed that (52/63%) emphasized on this need. Interviewee 4 believed that being teacher is equal to transferring love not knowledge, Thus in practical training such familiarity is of critical importance.

3.4.3.3 Teaching ethics and character

68/42 percent of interviewee (13) teaching practical points about teacher's behavior are another need. They believe a missed ring not for teachers but for all society is ethics. If a teacher is teaching about hygiene he has to mention some narratives about this issue. Such teachings are found in the life style of prophet Mohamad and his daughter Zahra. In fact in ethical training, indirect education is more effective (interviewee 14).

3.4.3.4 Need to the teaching of norms and values

This need considered by 8 interviewees (42/10%). Interviewee 15 believed that ethics means the norms a teacher follow in his education environment. In fact a teacher in Farhangiyani University must play the role of model for his students.

3.4.4 Needs mentioned in political domain

3.4.4.1 Being knowledgeable about political issues

This need mentioned by 11 respondents (57/89 %). Interviewee 1 considered it as a critical factor which can be attained by teaching first level Islamic sources such as Nahjolbalaghe.

3.4.4.2 Capability in analyzing current issues

This need mentioned by 10 (52/ 63%) respondents. Because faculty members are training the next generation of teachers of the country. Being conscious about the role of education in political training of the students is very critical (interviewee 2). It is expected that university teachers have political thinking.

3.4.4.3 Being conscious about teacher's role in

Because a Professor is also influential in political education of students, to 9 interviewees (47/26%) having knowledge about this role is of prominent importance. Interviewee 9 believed that a university Professor has to be conscious about his critical role in political education of the students.

3.5 The Fifth research question: To what extend Do faculty members at Farhangiyani university need education in ethical, cultural and social issues?

Table 4. Mean comparison of the need of Farhangiyani faculty members to education in the fields of ethical, cultural and social issues with hypothetical mean of 3.

Factor	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean deviation	t	df	Sig
Education in the fields of ethical, cultural and social issues	3/61	0/80	0/067	9/178	141	0/001

According to results, the mean of need of faculty members of Farhangian University to education in ethical cultural social issues is 3/61. Because calculated is bigger than table t, then their need is higher than middle.

3.6 The Sixth research question: What are the most important needs of the faculty members in the area of "ethical, cultural, social issues"?

Table 5. The most important needs of the academic members in the area of “ethical, cultural, social issues”

	Questions	Ordinal mean
1	Being knowledgeable about the role of professors in the preserving, transferring, Correcting and recreating culture	6/08
2	Familiarity with bases and methods of soft war	5/80
3	Recognizing of the signs in cultural attack and exposing it.	5/79
4	Ability of registering content of educational sources to religious cultural sources	5/79
5	Familiarity with cultural -social bases of Islamic education	5/59
6	Familiarity with teaching ethics and character teaching and principles for being teaches in Islamic education	5/43
7	Familiarity with aims and bases of cultural direction in Education's fundamental transformation document.	5/23
8	Initial familiarity with collection of human sciences (Sociology, History, Art, Philosophy and Social science).	5/14
9	Familiarity with the aims of student teaches curricula in cultural social educational issues	5/14
10	Familiarity with comparative education in order to know different cultures	5/02

Findings indicate that the mean of all sentences related to ethical, cultural, social issues is higher than middle level. Sentences 1,2,3,4 had the highest ranks respectively.

3.7 The Seventh research question: Ranking needs of faculty of Farhangiyani university in two fields of religious teaching with emphasis on Islamic training “and ethical, cultural, social issue?”

Results of mean ranking of educational needs indicate that social ethical cultural issues got the first place and religious teaching with emphasis on Islamic training got the second place.

Results of the FREDMAN TEST shows that the total rank of binary educational needs of faculty members in Farhangian University is not meaningful in $p < 0.05$ (Chi-square; 0.618). accordingly the research question is rejected.

3.8 The Eighth research question: is there any difference between education needs of Farhaniyan University faculty members in religious teachings with emphasis on Islamic training and ethical social cultural issues with regard to demographic variables?

The results indicated that there was not a significant relationship between education needs in religious teachings with emphasis on Islamic training and social ethical cultural issues in terms of any of the demographic characteristics.

4. Discussion, Conclusion and Suggestions

Contrary to different predictions about the demise of religion, religion has shown to be alive and effective in our lives throughout the world. However, the longstanding association between religion and dogmatic thinking can lead religions to have bad and even devastating effects. This shows the importance of religious education and the roles this type of education can play in changing the unpleasant impacts of religion. Religious education is an approach that can save religious thinking from being trapped into dogmas and dogmatism.

One of the strategic goals of Education's fundamental transformation document is to review curricula based on cultural-educational approach and also stung ten training ethical aspects of learners based on Islamic- Iranian Culture (Education's fundamental transformation document, 2011).

Also in 20 years development prospect document in Islamic repaid of Iran there is emphasis on the development of the country based on transition from current situation relative to cultural social historical context of the Country. Paying attention to the essence mission of the universities as the most important tool in attaining cultural independence is critical and important role for all who are active in thesis field. Along with achieving the above mentioned strategic aims this study is conducted, because identifying cultural, social, and training needs of the faculty members can facilitate programming for development of both university teachers -students. Thus the main aim of the present study is to analyze and explain cultural, Training, social needs of the faculty members and result are presented based on the related questions, as the to the first research question, most respondents answer considered six main aims as the educational need of the faculty members of Farhangiyani University. It is worth mentioning that religious needs which were identified in this research were in the same

line with yeasts obtunded by Mirzaee (2002), Rabani (2003), Shamshiri (2008), and kazemi (2012). Mirzaee showed that although students' attitudes indicate continuation of religious sentiments in university society but a kind of new religious thought is also evident which shows reduction of religion's role in social arena out of religion, its personalization and decrease in religion's influence and in traditional readings of religion. Rabani considers lack of compatibility of religions Islamic historical, geographical identity, as the factors of the keen weakness in higher education in Iran. Shamshiri shows that although education system in Iran this hard effort in cultural training but practically not much success in attained. Kazemi believes that, programming performance of educational managers, in training students based on one side spiritual-unification-sociality and contraption training was successful. Thus it seems that such need is a critical demand of faculty members.

In answering to the second research question, presently showed that mean demand of faculty members to religions training is higher than average. Also in answering the third research question results of table 4 shows that the highest man rank for religions teaching is related to "ability to apply educational methods and commitments available in Quran and Nahjolbalaghe "Then sentence of "learning Quran and Nahjolbalaghe in order to answer teachers- students' questions": These were considered as the most important educational needs of faculty members of Farhangiyan university. Accordingly it is suggested to have Nahjolbalaghe as a major study to educate Nahjolbalaghe teachers. Also the researcher by studying literature and by interview participants and questioners' results of the study has concluded that universities have to internalize needed religious norms of the society in the students, and educate them based on cultural heritage of the society, that, this aim is achievable by paying attention to those educational needs.

In answering the fourth question, most interviewees believed that most important needs in ethical, cultural, social aspects are subdivided into four areas: as cultural needs b- social needs c- ethical needs and d- political needs. It is worth mentioning that results obtained in this part are compatible to research results obtained by Mahdavi (1999), Tavakoli-Nik (1941), Rabani (2003), Movahedi (2004), Faithi vajargah (2004), Vahedchokadeh (2005), Loghmanniya (2009), Loghmanniya and khamesan (2010) Colleen (2005), Jang (2009) and Rioli (2010). It becomes evident that there are many cultural problems among youths and applying western models were not successful especially in developing countries. Thus it is suggested that models be compatible to local culture of the country. Moreover keen weakness of higher education institutes in teaching cultural identity is considered as accusing factor of weakness in this regard. Thus, these teaching cultural values cohesively to the educational institutes are advised. Evidences indicated that lack of satisfying curricula in playing the role of creating identity, irrelevance of curricula content to different sub cultures, lack of attention programs to cultural education all factor which have resulted in keen weakness cultural education in higher education and educational system in Iran. Thus it seems that higher education has to pay specific attention to curricula especially if cultural educations are considered critical for its students. Need to internationalization of the curricula is another educational needs mentioned in this research which is also in agreement to colon and Jang (2005). So, internationalization of the curricula at universities creates cultural education for individuals. "Political thinking and politic understanding "is another needs which is also mention in roily (2010). Creating political social, cultural knowledge students is deeply correlated to current education.

In answering the fourth and fifth question is was obtained that the mean for need to education in ethical, cultural and social issues for Farhangiyan University faculty members is higher than average and the most important need of faculty members in this field is "bang knowledgably about the role of the professors in transferring, keeping modifying and recreation culture", and "knowing methods and ways of soft war" (Table 6). Results of Zokae (2003), Hamidi (2005), Vahedchokadeh (2005), Esmaeli and Rabiee (2008), Asareh, et. Al. (2012), Lee co- young woo (2000), Terri Green (2008) and Brandon Bartram (2009) show that prominent part of university students consider cultural- social needs as their necessary need.

In answering the seventh question, ranking mean of needs indicated that "ethical, cultural, social" issues got the initial rank, then "religions teachings with emphasize on Islamic training" got the second rank. Evidences shows that higher education must constantly play the role as agent for keeping's transferring, correcting modifying, recreating culture, thus it can provide, needed environment for the comprehensive development in all aspects, because curricula are crucial element for cultural social growth of the graduates and this growth is achievable by proper programming and dominant training of teachers, university professors. Higher education institutes as elite gatherings can play an active role in accomplishing cultural education based on Islamic- Iranian identity, because research results show that there is no match between experienced and performed cultural content of curricula .

Thus university curricula must be designed in a way that can promote culture training. Thus knowledge centered culture must be the focus on higher education, because cultural knowledge can enable organizations to save sources, improves life conditions.

Also finally the researcher concluded that programmers of each educational system for educational cultural plans have to have satisfying reasons and explaining needs before choosing any solution can increase efficiency of any program, achieving such aim is possible only by performing scientific need analysis, accordingly efficiency of these programs are assured. Farhangian University for strengthening cultural strengthening and for magnifying national religious cultural element in the curricula must set educational goals like preserving national, religions, cultural, unhistorical identity within the students and teachers.

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Gender Gap in Academic Achievement in Brunei Tertiary Education: Qualitative Perspective

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Abstract

This study explores the potential factors causing a gender gap in academic achievement in the higher learning institutions of Brunei using in-depth interviews. Given that the gender gap is a worldwide phenomenon and problem in many educational settings, this study investigates the reasons for its persistence and how it can be resolved in the Brunei context. The findings of the study indicate that: 1) there are gender similarities in practices of good academic performance at school; 2) teaching methods and school facilities and environment may affect students' academic performance; 3) problems or challenges faced in academic performance or achievement at school; and 4) early entry to workplace. A mixed-methods research is recommended to gain additional insights into the problem and its solutions.

Keywords: Gender gap, academic achievement, gender differences, tertiary education, qualitative methods.

Introduction

In Brunei, ample statistical evidences indicate the existence of gender disparity in academic achievement between female and male students (Department of Planning, Development and Research, 2010; Department of Statistics, 2011). The difference in numbers of males and females enrolling in Brunei tertiary educational institutions cannot attributed to differences in the critical vital life incidence statistics (such as birth rates, infant mortality, diseases, accidents and death). Further, school enrolment rates show that a nearly equal number of boys and girls enter school each year, and are retained in the education system until they complete their General Certificate of Education (GCE) Ordinary (O) Levels (Year 11) (Department of Planning, Development and Research, 2010). Moreover, the difference in the school dropout rate by gender is not statistically significant throughout the education system. Only a few children (mostly boys) repeat one year during their schooling due to a variety of reasons, including illness, disability or poor performance.

Throughout all the levels, particularly from GCE O Level (Year 11) to Advanced (A) Level (Year 13), the Special Education Unit and Guidance and Counselling Unit from the Ministry of Education provide personal counselling and educational interventions to students with special needs and poor academic achievements. As a result, equal girls and boys enrol in the few available sixth form colleges that serve as a pre-university foundation stage. Thus, overall, students are accorded a fair opportunity to access college and university education in Brunei.

In addition, the college and university statistics also indicate a significant prevalence of males in vocational and technical institutions, whereby there are more males in technical courses or programs such as engineering. In contrast, females represent the majority of enrolments in other courses. The other factor that may be held accountable for the gender gap is the gender differences in career interests. Documented employment statistics indicate that the majority of male school leavers opt to join the security services (police, army and prisons department) after completing school. Hence, more males than females join the uniformed services as recruits and cadet officers.

Therefore, in terms of academic performance or achievement, the gender gap appears to arise during the GCE AS and A Levels (Years 12 to 13). It is at this stage that it appears that females begin to far outperform their male counterparts in key subjects, such as mathematics and English, which are frequently included among the admission criteria of colleges and universities in Brunei. This has resulted in fewer males than females being admitted to colleges and universities.

Factors Impacting Academic Performance / Achievement in Brunei

Taking into consideration the fact that both genders are raised in the same culture, attend similar schools, and are taught by teachers with comparable qualifications and experience, the causes of the difference in academic performance at the AS and A Levels is puzzling and remains a mystery to many educational stakeholders, such as teachers, parents and employers. In general, the low performance in important key subjects such as mathematics and English, could be due to a number of reasons such as the poor quality of teaching, inadequate or inappropriate learning resources, and low interest or motivation in the subject. The National Education System for the 21st Century (SPN21) (Mundia, 2010a) and teacher education innovation in 2009 (Mundia, 2012a) are among the few examples of educational interventions made by the Ministry of Education to improve the quality of education.

It is a known fact that students with personal and academic problems have higher chances of low academic performance and achievement compared to those students with no problems. This is because their learning ability is affected and it limits their academic potentials. Negative factors, such as disability, behavioural disorders, depression, anxiety and stress are psychological and require counselling interventions to address them at school and at home (Mundia, 2006; Mundia, 2010b; Tait & Mundia, 2012b). In addition, differences in career preferences might also lead students to develop varying levels of interest and motivation for studying subjects (Mundia, 1998).

Objectives of the Study

In general, it is well known that a student's academic achievement and grades are affected by numerous factors—too numerous to mention all here—that operate at different levels. These factors could include students' personal attributes, the home environment, the school context, teaching effectiveness, school quality, the nature of the curriculum, assessment procedures and language facility difficulties (to name a few). Each of these factors is broad and encompasses a wide range of issues. Thus far, no research is known to have been conducted in Brunei to determine the extent to which each of these factors influence the gender difference in AS and A Level academic performance. The three main objectives of the present study were to:

To explain gender disparity in academic achievement Brunei tertiary education.

To understand the onset of gender gap in academic achievement in Brunei tertiary education.

To seek any initiatives to reduce gender differences in Brunei tertiary education.

Method

Design

The in-depth interviews method was used to investigate the problem. Under this procedure, the researcher had purposeful interactions to learn what another person knows, to discover and record what the person has experienced, what he or she thinks and feels about it, and what significance or meaning it might have (Arthur, Waring, Coe and Hedges, 2012, p. 170). This method required a good preparation before conducting the research and a great attention to participants during the interview to enable insightful analysis and produce firm findings (Dato Haji Metussin, 2016). Additionally, this method allows the researcher to receive in-depth information from the participants while controlling the line of questioning (Creswell, 2009). Moreover, the interview method can answer the 'what', 'how' and 'why' of the research questions by selecting participants to acquire in-depth detail. Additionally, in this study, there was no chance of the participants' behavioural patterns being influenced by the researcher because the researcher was asking about their feelings or actions regarding their academic achievement in the past. Therefore, the in-depth interview method was suitable for this study.

Sample

The non-probability sample consisted of a few information-rich cases (selected either purposefully or via the snowball procedure) who served as key informants in the semi-structured interview component of the study. Both genders were recruited in this sample. Two inclusion criteria—both based on sixth-form college/school academic records—were used to identify suitable participants. First, this study selected and interviewed previous male and female students who failed mathematics and English at the A Level and did not meet university admission requirements. These former sixth-form college students were currently out of school, working or in institutions of learning other than universities (such as vocational and technical establishments). During the interviews, these participants were asked to explain why they thought they did not perform well in mathematics and English. Second, this study selected and interviewed previous male and female

students who passed mathematics and English at the A Level and met the university admission requirements. These former sixth-form college students were currently in their first year of university or in institutes of higher learning in Brunei. During the interviews, these participants were asked to explain why they thought they performed well in mathematics and English.

The interview schedule (which was pretested on similar types of people prior to use) also collected demographic information, such as the participants' age, present occupation or training program, parents' education and occupation, number of siblings, and any other relevant data useful in describing the qualitative sample. The size of the sample in the pilot study was 20, and in the main study was 32. The sample's descriptive statistics for the main study are presented in Tables 1 and 2 below.

Table 1
General Demographic Information of the Main Study from the Qualitative Interviews (N = 32)

Variable	Group	Frequency		Percentage (%)	
Gender	Females	16		50	
	Males	16		50	
		MALE INTERVIEWEES		FEMALE INTERVIEWEES	
		Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Religion	Islam	16	50	15	46.88
	Christian	0	0	0	0
	Buddhist	0	0	1	3.13
Ethnicity	Malay	14	43.75	15	46.88
	Chinese	0	0	1	3.13
	Dusun	1	3.13	0	0
	Tutong	1	3.13	0	0
	Belait	0	0	0	0
	Murut	0	0	0	0
	Kedayan	0	0	0	0
	Bisaya	0	0	0	0
Parental status	Married	15	46.88	14	43.75
	Separated or divorced	1	3.13	1	3.13
	Widowed	0	0	0	0
	Deceased	0	0	1	3.13
Father's highest level of education	Primary	0	0	1	3.13
	Secondary	7	21.88	7	21.88
	College	4	12.50	3	9.38
	University	5	15.63	4	12.50
	Missing data	0	0	1	3.13
Mother's highest level of education	Primary	1	3.13	2	6.25
	Secondary	9	28.13	6	18.75
	College	2	6.25	2	6.25
	University	4	12.50	6	18.75

Table 2
Occupation of the Interviewees' Father and Mother According to Frequency and Percentage (N = 32)

Variable	MALE INTERVIEWEES			FEMALE INTERVIEWEES		
	Group	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Group	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Father's occupation	2	2	6.25	00	2	6.25
	5	1	3.13	8	2	6.25
	6	1	3.13	11	1	3.13
	8	2	6.25	15	5	15.63
	16	4	12.50	16	2	6.25
	17	1	3.13	17	1	3.13

	22	5	15.63	22	3	9.38
TOTAL	-	16	50	-	16	50
	15	5	15.63	10	1	3.13
	17	4	12.50	15	2	6.25
Mother's occupation	21	6	18.75	17	7	21.88
	22	1	3.13	20	1	3.13
	-	-	-	21	4	12.50
	-	-	-	22	1	3.13
TOTAL	-	16	50	-	16	50

Note: Please refer to Appendix I for the major occupation groups in the 'Group' column, under the occupation of the father and mother row.

Procedures

This study was originally done as part of the PhD doctoral dissertation research using sponsorship funds from the Universiti Brunei Darussalam. Permission to collect the data from the Sixth Form Centres (schools) was obtained from the Ethical Committee of the University. In addition, permission to conduct the study in schools was also granted by the Ministry of Education in the Government of Brunei Darussalam. Ethical requirements for involvement in the study were explained to all the participants. No deception was used. Only students who voluntarily agreed to participate in the study were recruited as participants and they were required to sign an informed consent form. Participants were also asked before the interviews were recorded. Names of the six participating schools and participants were concealed.

Data Analysis

The present qualitative data obtained from semi-structured interviews were embedded in the interview transcripts. The data analysis began after transcribing the interview audio recorded, not during the field.

The qualitative data in the present study were analysed in two main ways: content analysis and constant comparison (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Patton, 1990). Under content analysis, the researcher carefully read through the literal text or information and looked for words, phrases, approaches of thinking and events that recurred frequently and seemed important. This was done manually. The major purpose of content analysis in this study was two-fold. First, the researcher coded the data and reduced it to a few easily recognisable identical or similarly coded patterns. Second, the researcher used the codes to identify patterns, classify the patterns into categories, develop category descriptors, and organise related categories into themes. The process of content analysis often results in three main types of categories. 'Emic' categories contain information directly provided by the participants in their own language or words during the interview. 'Etic' categories reflect the researcher's interpretation of emic data. 'Residual' categories consist of information that does not fit into any other existing categories after analysing the data repeatedly and exhaustively.

Via constant comparison, the researcher iteratively: 1) synthesised and compared each unit or category of meaning to other selected units of meaning; 2) established new categories and new themes if similar units were not found; 3) looked for relationships across categories and themes. The themes should be mutually exclusive and distinct from each other. In the present study, quotations, excerpts, frequencies and percentages were used together with categories and themes whenever and wherever necessary. The codebook is produced in the end of the data analysis.

Results

Gender similarities in practices of good academic performance at school.

The interviews indicated gender similarities in practices of good academic performance at school. This included making notes during lessons or obtaining notes from seniors. Some respondents used their time to study alone at least one hour

per day with full concentration, self-motivation and self-discipline, while others preferred to have study groups with friends. The respondents undertook reading and homework and answered past years' examination questions regularly as part of their revision:

'I write my own notes... and revise previous subjects' (Working Male 1).

▫ 'I do my homework, always' (Male Student 1).

▫ 'I study hard for my exams' (Working Female 3).

▫ 'I study alone better, while listening to music' (Male Student 4).

▫ 'I study better with my friends' (Female Student 1).

▫ 'I practice past-year papers a lot' (Female Student 5).

They also sought to understand and memorise the subject:

▫ 'understand the subject, think about it and memorize it many times' (Female Student 5).

▫ '[you should] make sure you read until you understand, then memorise it' (Working Male 1).

▫ 'I answer past-year paper questions to understand the problems and so I automatically remember how to do it' (Male Student 4).

In the classroom, they asked questions when they did not understand the teacher or had problems during lessons. They also listened to their teachers and obeyed the rules at school. Interestingly, the respondents believed that engaging in activities, such as sports and hobbies, and completing their prayers daily contributed to their good academic performance because it alleviated stress from studying and was good for their mental and spiritual health. A few respondents stated that easy internet access contributed to their good performance at school: 'especially when you are doing your homework or revision, then you are stuck in a math[ematics] problem, you could just Google or YouTube it to find the solution' (Male Student 7). Others stated that being in a challenging environment was beneficial: '[when] in an environment where you are surrounded by smarter students and you feel challenged, then you need to study hard as well' (Working Female 7).

Some respondents stated that certain circumstances motivated them to perform well at school. For example, a female respondent stated that being the eldest child in her family motivated her to perform well at school because she wanted to be a 'role model for my siblings ... so they can follow my footsteps and be successful too' (Working Female 6). Another female respondent stated that the need to overcome difficult circumstances, such as economic hardship and family problems, encouraged her to do well at school: 'it motivates me even more to do well at school when I have personal problems at home, either because of family or money ... [I] want to get over with it as soon as possible by studying hard' (Working Female 8).

Friends also played an important role in the respondents' lives as students, and could influence them to achieve better results. The respondents stated that friends who were supportive helped them do their homework, encouraged them, went to classes on time, reminded them that they had to study hard and made sure they were 'on the same boat as theirs' (Female Student 3) during lessons. 'Friends who study a lot' (Male Student 1) tended to influence the respondents and encouraged good habits 'to study' (Working Male 6) and 'do revision regularly' (Female Student 4). Other friends described as a positive influence were always close to the respondents and encouraged them to play sports, undertake other school-based activities and join study groups. Hence, having positive friends can promote healthy communication and studying skills.

Parents also helped the respondents perform well at school. This included help via financial assistance, including providing private 'tuition classes' (Female Student 8). A few of the respondents stated that their parents helped by giving constant motivation:

▫ 'My parents [motivated me] 'cause they always give you encouragement to study hard. They say getting a job is hard these days, so that is why we have to study hard, so the job is waiting for you, not you waiting for the job. So you can see [that] the pressure is there to do your best' (Male Student 3).

□ 'Parents give you wise words ... words of wisdom. They told us stories about their past and how it was difficult back then, but still they worked hard to be where they are now. And so it's best not to waste your parents' money, but just study hard, study smart [smiles]' (Female Student 7).

□ 'Apart from giving us motivation, they [parents] also compare us to those who are unfortunate, who want to study, but don't have the means to do so—it's so sad, but true. They told us to be thankful always—almost every day! Because here in Brunei, the education is free and we should be thankful for being a student and for that reason' (Male Student 5).

The effect of teaching methods and school facilities and environment on students' academic performance.

Regarding teaching methods, the respondents believed that teachers who were helpful, had good teaching techniques and constantly provided encouragement and motivation or one-to-one lessons to students contributed to their good academic performance at school:

□ 'Teachers who are helpful—helping me in solving problems in maths. They don't scold you for not knowing how to answer it, but they are willing to help you, encourage you to do better' (Working Male 8).

□ 'Whenever we have problems in class, or about homework, she will ask us why we couldn't do it and she will immediately show us how to do it' (Working Female 4).

□ 'Teachers who help you do anything in class' (Male Student 3).

□ 'They [teachers] motivate you, encourage you ... "you should do this, you should do that"—make it right for you, give good examples in lessons' (Female Student 6).

□ 'I like it when teachers give extra time to each one of us, to teach us privately so that we could understand even better' (Female Student 1).

Some respondents stated that they sought inspiration from teachers' stories or encouragement:

□ 'Sometimes when teachers tell us an amazing story about someone else who succeed[ed] as a result of studying hard, I will be easily inspired by it' (Working Female 3).

□ 'Teachers always give you encouragement, maybe in the form of compliments or words of wisdom, stories of amazing people—it's so inspiring' (Male Student 5).

However, some respondents stated that teachers could also worsen their academic performance. They found that some teachers gave less attention to students and ignored their body language in the classroom: 'the teacher did not notice that the students are having a hard time to understand what she's teaching, or even when students are getting sleepy in her classroom' (Working Female 2). One respondent stated that teachers provided incomplete lessons in classroom: 'She doesn't give enough lesson. When she comes, she teach for a while, then after that, she'll just ask us to read on our own, while she's sitting down at her desk playing with her mobile or reading' (Female Student 8). This respondent undertook tuition classes to supplement the lessons taught at school. Another respondent blamed teachers for giving less homework: 'less homework was given, so [there was] less revision to do at home' (Male Student 4)]. A few other respondents stated that their teachers were 'too strict' (Working Female 7) and showed little compassion towards their students, which made the students unhappy or unwilling to study the subject being taught.

The respondents agreed that school facilities and environment could affect academic performance. First, they commented on the number of students in a classroom, with less than 20 or 30 students making it is easier for the teacher to control and teach, and easier for the students to listen to the teacher and understand the lessons: 'with lesser students in the class, I concentrate in class even more and I perform better in the examinations' (Female Student 7). Second, they claimed that schools with good facilities—such as a library, photocopying machines, benches, study tables and good canteens—enhanced the will to study and made it easier to have group discussions with other students and teachers. A few respondents expressed satisfaction with their boarding schools:

□ 'I get to meet my friends all the time, which makes studying easier' (Female Student 6).

□ 'they [the boarding school] prepare meals for you and, after that, you can study in your room without any distractions, but you can seek help from your roommates if you have any problems, which is totally cool' (Male Student 5).

However, some respondents had the opposite circumstances. They stated that they had more than 25 students in their classroom, which made it difficult for the teacher to control and teach, and the students struggled to study and listen. This could also have resulted from the seating arrangement in the class. Students who sat at the back of the class experienced difficulty in listening to their teachers. One of the respondents claimed that the school offered few extracurricular activities, which lessened his interest in studying and made him find school 'boring' (Working Male 4). This could be due to the lack of teacher expertise in extracurricular activities, such as 'martial arts, chess and football' (Male Student 3). Other respondents found that a negative environment reduced their concentration and motivation to study:

▯ 'bad environment—your friends are always arguing or fighting with you, bullying you, stab you in the back, and sometimes with your family members' (Female Student 2).

▯ 'family problems—for example, you see your parents or older siblings arguing with each other, it confuses, stresses you out' (Working Male 1).

▯ 'dirty environment ... hard to concentrate in the class' (Male Student 1).

Other respondents were affected by peer pressure:

▯ 'everyone is pressuring you to study hard, and being reminded of the bad consequences if you don't study hard' (Male Student 4).

▯ 'at times, your friends influenced you to escape from classes and you know it's a wrong thing to do, but you just feel that you have to join them' (Working Female 3).

Problems or challenges to academic performance at school.

The majority of respondents found that they were easily distracted by one or more of the following: friends, boyfriends or girlfriends, social media (such as Facebook, Twitter and Instagram), internet, playing games and television. Most agreed that they spent a lot of time with these distractions, and procrastinated rather than studying or doing their homework:

▯ 'Distractions? [Laughs.] A lot! Friends, mobile phones, internet, games, television ... everyday, but depends on the mood. Sometimes I got distracted until I forgot what to do [for school]' (Working Male 2).

▯ 'If distractions, I'd have to say Facebook and mobile phones ... a bit of delay in doing my homework' (Female Student 7).

▯ 'Distraction from people—friends, girlfriends (but not so much). From television—yes. From Facebook and Instagram—sometimes ... Not really to the point that I didn't do my homework or study at all, but I tend to procrastinate [by doing] the things I want to do' (Male Student 5).

▯ 'I think my friends 'cause they always disturb me in the class when the teacher is right in front explaining' (Female Student 6).

▯ 'Games. I like to play games with my friends, either online or through PlayStation' (Male Student 6).

▯ 'Friends, Facebook, mobiles, television and internet' (Male Student 8).

Some respondents complained about their friends as negative influences. They stated that they were talkative:

▯ 'when teachers talk, they talk too, so [it is] hard to listen to class' (Working Male 3).

▯ 'they talk a lot, especially during the lesson' (Working Female 7).

They stated that their friends encouraged them to engage in unproductive behaviour:

▯ 'friends who invite you to escape from classes, or break the school's rules' (Working Male 1).

▯ 'friends who encourage you to do bad things in school, which includes copying homework from your friends, bullying people' (Working Male 5).

They also stated that their friends did not motivate them to study:

▯ 'no motivation from friends 'cause they don't study well either' (Female Student 8).

▯ 'why would you study when your friends also don't do the same?' (Working Male 2).

▯ 'friends who don't motivate you to study' (Female Student 4).

Most of the respondents agreed that there were certain negative factors that hindered their academic progress, including:

1. Laziness:

'can't really cope with laziness' (Male Student 1).

'being lazy' (Female Student 1).

'cannot help but feel lazy' (Working Female 3).

'lazy to do anything' (Male Student 4).

2. Lack of time:

'so many things to do, yet so little time' (Male Student 6).

3. Lack of motivation:

'in need of people to push you' (Female Student 5).

'no motivation to study' (Male Student 7).

4. Lack of concentration:

'hard to concentrate in class' (Female Student 3).

'lack of concentration' (Working Female 4).

5. Heavy workload:

'I have so much homework and revision to do' (Male Student 2).

'The teachers give so much homework to do and the deadline is ... tomorrow' (Female Student 8).

'Last-minute homework given by the teacher and you know you have to catch up with your revision too—how is that possible?' (Male Student 8).

6. Family problems:

'Family problems at home—it slows me down in studying' (Working Male 3).

7. Health problems:

'I have sleeping problem—insomnia. I think. I just can't sleep at night, so in daytime, I will be very sleepy' (Male Student 4).

'I have a problem with my heart—the valve is not normal, so it affects my health' (Working Female 1).

8. Little interest in studying:

'Less interest in studying chemistry—it's so hard' (Female Student 7).

'subjects like accounting—so boring and hard to understand' (Working Male 4).

9. High parental expectations:

'Parents who have high expectations and they will put pressure you to study hard' (Male Student 5).

'Parents expect too much from me and I'm not sure if I can cope with my studies—it's so difficult!' (Female Student 2).

Early entry to workplace.

The majority of respondents who started working after college did not perform well in mathematics and English. Since they did not meet the university's admission criteria, they had no choice but to begin working earlier. The following include the reasons for these respondents beginning work earlier:

1. Financial problems:

'I started working because I have financial problems—not only personally, but my family too. My family have been supporting me since I was little, especially my parents. So I guess it's time to repay them by helping them and give them financial support' (Full-time Senior Assistant, Working Male 1).

'I work to support myself and my family's financial issues. It's been hard for me since I'm the second eldest, and my parents are old and they have retired already' (Full-time Customer Service Representative, Working Male 8).

'The reason why I work is to overcome my financial issues and also to help my family financially. There is always the case of insufficient money whenever my family or I want to spend on anything especially on what we need than on what we want' (Full-time Clerk, Working Female 1).

'I want to help my parents financially [and] if I continue studying, it would take a long time to finish' (Full-time Sales Assistant, Working Female 2).

2. Lack of qualifications:

'My A Level results were not very satisfying. My points were not enough to go to university, so I had no choice to but to start working' (Full-time Customer Service Representative, Working Male 4).

'I choose to work because I got rejected from UBD. My results were not good, so there's nothing I could do but to work' (Full-time Clerk, Working Female 7).

'After A Level Examination, I applied for university, but the university did not accept me. I was rejected. I guessed it's because of my results, which are not okay. So I applied for a job in JIS [Jerudong International School] and I got it' (Full-time Assistant Teacher, Working Female 4).

'I got rejected from UNISSA [Universiti Islam Sharif Ali] and KUPU [Kolej Universiti Perguruan Ugama Seri Begawan]—don't know for what reason, possibly 'cause my points are not enough. So I'm not giving up, but I'm sulking a bit [laughs] that I couldn't get in to uni[versity], and here I am, working!' (Full-time Clerk, Working Female 1).

3. Avoiding wasting time:

'While waiting for acceptance in any universities, I applied for any jobs that related with my qualification. Maybe it won't waste my time for waiting for any offers from the university to continue my study' (Full-time Statistical Clerk, Working Male 5).

4. Gaining experience:

'I want to gain experience from working and later I may be eligible to apply for JPKE [Department of Economic Planning and Development] Scholarship' (Full-time Finance Assistant, Working Male 6).

'I work to gain experience, which really helps a lot in improving myself in many ways, learn the real life about how to deal with different people, and the best part is I've got my own money' (Full-time Administration Collector, Working Female 6).

5. No interest in further study:

'I don't want to study anymore—that's why I decided to work' (Full-time Clerk and Cashier, Working Female 3).

6. Lack of confidence to study further:

'I gave up because I was too disappointed with math[ematics] results. I didn't score well enough to go to university, I guess. With UBD's recent change in its entry requirements, I heard it's getting harder to get in. This really makes me feel less confident about going to uni[versity]. So, I tried my luck to find work. I applied to many adverts on vacancies both in

government and private sectors. Fortunately, I got a job offer and I accept it immediately' (Full-time Pension Officer, Working Female 5).

Of the 16 respondents, three males and one female declined to answer why they chose to work. Of the 16 working respondents interviewed, three males and two females were taking classes at night for either a degree or higher national diploma qualification at local private colleges. Their reasons for doing so included seeking an increased salary, seeking a better job and determining whether they would be more successful than in their previous examination.

Sources of help in achievement at school.

Students normally have sources of help in achieving good grades at school. These can include motivation, encouragement or inspiration to succeed. A source of help can be anyone or anything; however, in this study, the respondents were given four choices: parents, teachers, friends and themselves; and they were selected based on the circle of relationships of a student. The results indicated that the majority of respondents used their parents as their source of help. They claimed that their parents gave the most support, motivation and encouragement. The second highest source of help was teachers, followed by themselves, and then friends. Table 3 indicates the number of female and male respondents and their choices of source of help.

Table 3
Number of Female and Male Respondents and Their Choice of Source of Help

Gender		Sources of help				TOTAL
		Parents	Teachers	Friends	Myself	
Working male respondents	Count	2	4	0	2	8
	% of total	6.3%	12.5%	0.0%	6.3%	25.0%
Working female respondents	Count	5	1	0	2	8
	% of total	15.6%	3.1%	0.0%	6.3%	25.0%
Male students	Count	5	2	0	1	8
	% of total	15.6%	6.3%	0.0%	3.1%	25.0%
Female students	Count	5	1	2	0	8
	% of total	15.6%	3.1%	6.3%	0.0%	25.0%
TOTAL	Count	17	8	2	5	32
	% of total	53.1%	25.0%	6.3%	15.6%	100.0%

Discussion

The present study attempts to explain gender disparity in academic achievement in Brunei tertiary education in a qualitative manner. The findings in this study confirmed that there are gender differences in academic performance between female and male students, but to achieve good academic results, the study shows that there are gender similarities practiced by the students, as explained earlier. There are many factors contributing to gender differences in academic achievement and to produce an ultimate list of such factors would be almost impossible because it encompasses a wide range of issues / concepts, such as the relationship of the learning processes and the biology of the human brain (Hinton, Miyamoto and Della-Chiesa, 2008); personality measures for predicting academic performance (Poropat, 2011); collaborative learning mechanisms (Robinson and Lenkin, 2012); learning strategies (Weinstein and Mayer, 1986; Anthony, 1996; Yipa, 2012); students' self-efficacy (Bagaka, 2011); socioeconomic status of the students (Wenglinsky, 1998; Sirin, 2005; Juma, Simatwa and Ayodo, 2012) and many more.

The second finding (teaching methods and school facilities and environment may affect students' academic performance) is also similar in other studies, such as Day, Sammons and Kington (2008) and Teoh, Abdullah, Roslan and Mohd Daud (2014). Moreover, few other studies, such as Blömeke, Suhl and Kaiser (2011) and Sencer, Niyazi and Alpaslan (2011) touched on the cultural differences in the effectiveness of teacher education and teaching styles. In general, teachers and schools (as a whole) both play important role in developing students' learning attitudes and personalities as well maintaining students' good academic performance. In other words, the teachers' education and schools' level of quality are on a par with students' academic achievement and performance.

Like other students in many countries, Bruneian students also faced problems and challenges faced in academic performance or achievement at school. Therefore in this study, it provides practical implications for parents and teaching implications for teachers, schools and the government. In terms of parents' role, in brief, parents (Dato Haji Metussin, 2016):

have a role to play in encouraging the performance of students at school;

should be exposed to pre-school education and parenting skills to improve the home learning environment (Cassen and Kingdon, 2007).

should spend time with their children so that they know their children's progress in school, in terms of learning experiences obtained from teachers and social skills acquired by people at school.

should also make an effort to help their children via giving moral and emotional support and attending teacher–parent meetings, school activities and other social events organised by the school.

Based on the findings, there are many educational interventions for the teachers to apply but generally, the teachers have to:

use teaching methods that attract students' interest and intrinsic motivation in the subjects (Mundia, 2010a).

use language that is suitable to the students' level of knowledge (Kalisk, 1979, as cited in Mundia, 2010a).

emphasize remedial teaching which is a multifaceted approach aimed to deliver students' specific needs in education, such as via one-on-one sessions between the student and teacher, small group discussions, task-analysis strategies, and visual aids or computer-based work to stimulate students' cognitive ability (Martinez, 1987; Heward, 1996; Hunt & Goets, 1997; Mundia, 2010a).

On the other hand, schools – which serves as educational and social settings for both students and teachers:

must encourage students' engagement in education—whether by developing learnt skills or natural talent—both in practical and vocational education. This would benefit students who cannot afford higher education, and serve as an alternative to higher education (Cassen and Kingdon, 2007).

must have adequate counselling and psychotherapy resources to help students with personal and academic problems as well as behavioural and mental health problems.

with different cultural backgrounds are unique; thus, they must provide teachers from different cultural backgrounds with proper training and briefings before starting teaching.

should limit the amount of administrative and maintenance duties allocated to teachers (Wong, 2014).

Given that the government controls the education system in Brunei, the government should provide lectures or familial training to new parents or parents who lack necessary parenting skills, focusing on the welfare of families who are disadvantaged in terms of education, financial resources and house affairs; and preventing these families' children being vulnerable to negative attitudes and social behaviours. The government must contribute financial help to disadvantaged families in order to ensure that children can attend school. The government should improve features of the school system, reallocate and enhance school expenditure in order to try to help reduce the gender gap (Cassen and Kingdon, 2007).

Conclusion

If gender gap in academic achievement persists, it will cause a detrimental gender imbalance population between female and male students admitted to colleges and universities, and consequently it will affect the whole society in terms of family and labour market institutions. The dominance of females occupying important positions in society, there is a probability that society will favour women, rather than pursuing gender equality, and that the birth rate will decrease (as women pursue careers, rather than marrying and having children). Simultaneously, males are more likely to have low-paid occupations or be unemployed, to persist in their bad attitudes, to have low motivation to improve their quality of life, to delay marital life and to have financial problems. Therefore, it is recommended that educational stakeholders (such as teachers, schools, policy-makers etc.) play their important role in the education system to reduce the gender differences in academic achievement. The only limitation is that this study lacks of quantitative component to supplement the data and findings,

so therefore a further mixed-methods research is required to acquire deeper understanding of the problem and the needed solutions.

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APPENDIX I

THE MAJOR OCCUPATION GROUPS

NO.	GROUP OCCUPATION
	Workers Not Classified by Occupation
	Agriculture, Forestry and Fishery
	Mining and Quarrying
	Manufacturing
	Electricity, Gas, Steam and Air Conditioning Supply
	Water Supply; Sewerage, Waste Management and Remediation Activities
	Construction
	Wholesale and Retail Trade, Repair of Motor Vehicles and Motorcycles
	Transportation and Storage
	Accommodation and Food Service Activities
	Information and Communication
	Financial and Insurance Activities
	Real Estate Activities
	Professional, Scientific and Technical Activities
	Administrative and Support Service Activities
	Public Administration and Defence; Compulsory Social Security
	Education
	Human Health and Social Work Activities
	Arts, Entertainment and Recreation
	Other Service Activities
	Housewife
	Retired
00	Missing Data

NOTE:

Group No. 00 means 'Missing Data' (Participants chose not to answer the question).

Group No. 1 – 20 belongs to:

Industry Group – Referring to International Standard Industrial Classification of All Economic Activities (ISIC) Rev. 4 Industry Classifications.

Occupation Group – Using Brunei Darussalam Standard Classification of Occupations (BDSCO) 2008, with reference to International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO) 2008 Classifications.

Stress, and Deconcentration of Children in Learning, and Their Involvement in Work

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Abstract

The key research problem in this regard is familiarizing with the causes and motives of engaging children at work; and knowing the factors influencing in spreading this occurrence which is of a large extent and very concerning, for the fact that this occurrence is being increased every day more and more. The occurrence of studying these issues and familiarizing with the circumstances, also the impellent and motivating factors in this aspect, has affected the change of this situation to a large extent. The reason to choose this topic for research among others is the study method of this issue, since it is one of the most spread problems among children nowadays, because a number of them perform heavy duties and with destructive measures for their health as in the psychic aspect and also in that emotional one, but also in the bad construction of the child's personality. However, on the occasion of knowing and studying of these circumstances today, we primarily have a better awareness as in this cases to the parents-family, social-cultural environment and also the society in general. Our research problem in this case will be "causes and motives of engaging children at work". This will be our research focus in this regard.

Keywords: familiarizing, circumstances, influencing, the parents-family, social-cultural

1. Literature Review

Purposely to efficacy of work in this regard, we have specified a measure of checking the literature so that it will have a wider dimension of inclusion of key elements in this regard. We have selected a basic literature responding to the specifics of qualitative research.

We should emphasize the nature and the work methodology for this research since we are aware that we should fit the literature with controlling value dimensions for the research, because selection of literature is of an important aspect.

Among others, we have specified that each part of the research work should be reviewed and the literature to be checked because an appropriate selection of this brings a higher productivity and efficacy in the learning work and wider.

Our focus in this research is on the children works which do not respond to the age and psychic-physical skills of children, thus the types of work and duration of engagement at work.

Otherwise, we are aware for the need of engaging children at work which correspond to the abilities, needs and their skills. This research has a multifold importance: above all this is the first qualitative research in Kosovo on the occurrence of involvement of children at work.

By means of this research, the awareness of opinion on the spread of this phenomenon is achieved to be realized. The main causes that stimulate this phenomenon are made known and we also come to know the physical and psychic-social consequences for children.

Data derived by the means of this research will serve to the institutions dealing with social problems in order to have an information overview that is the basis for the preparation of social policies related to this problem. In addition, this research will serve as a basis for the future research and we believe it will serve, either in a modest manner, in the general awareness of parents, teachers, children and all those who in a form or another are related to this issue.

For the adaptation of literature and its checking, we have tried to do a comparison of the review and checking of literature in conformity with the research procedures, because its design from the beginning has brought productivity in this regard.

2. Methodology

We have come up to the identification of causes, motives and consequences of engaging children at work through the usage of research instruments: interview, observations, case studies and focus groups. Advantages and disadvantages were selected to be discussed for topics related to certain problems through the issues mentioned above.

These research instruments were used with children, with some of their families, with schools, with CSL, with relevant institutions related to this problem and with all target groups. 200 interviews, 6 case studies and 2 focus groups were realized. The data collected through this qualitative research were analyzed socially, pedagogically, psychologically and legally.

In this research it has been discussed on the history of inclusion of children at work both in the world and here. Additionally, the social background was presented including the economical state and education policies in Kosovo.

As a result of the data we came to the conclusion that the inclusion of children at work comes as a result of many causes: Poverty, war consequences,

Other family tragedies,

Social inequality,

Social and cultural level and migration – mobility within Kosovo (from the rural localities into those urban ones).

Among motives, the following ones are presented:

Independence motive,

Motive for gaining wealth and motive of security.

From this specific of the work, we can ascertain that poverty and war consequences will continue to be a problem in the future.

We should specify this issue since poverty still remains on the biggest challenge in this aspect due to the fact that the high scale of poverty is aggravating the situation of families in a difficult social state, especially of those families which have a difficult economical situation; and poverty is one of the main causes in inclusion of children at execution of different and heavy duties.

The consequences of involvement of children at work based on our research may be characterized in: consequences on children, consequences on families and consequences on the society. Involvement of children at work has physical effects on children themselves, physical-social effects and social-economical effects.

Within these consequences there are stress, inattention, tiredness, loss of wish for peers, lack of free time, depression and reclusion, harm of the sense of collectivity – selfishness, school abandonment, decrease of the ability to learn, loss of interest for general cultural development, regression etc.

Additionally, some additional data are presented within the research on the topic "Children at work", such as: working children's age, gender, residence, level of education of children and their families and types of work children perform at their job places.

We have also included in this research the category of children, mainly young girls, why by being engaged in certain job categories may result with their involvement in trafficking.

Within this from the nature of the qualitative research study, we came out with the conclusion that the problems in the future, such as: poverty, war consequences, other family tragedies, social and cultural level and migration – mobility within Kosovo, are problems which will be in continuity in the future since these causes will be further active towards these categories which are in the social need situation.

Kosovo society is passing through a political and economical transition. War destructions have aggravated the economy of Kosovo families and social-owned and private enterprises. As a consequence, the number of unemployed has increased to a high extend. By this, and according to the report of World Bank on the poverty level in Kosovo, it comes out that around 50% of the Kosovo society lives in poverty, whereas 12% in extreme poverty.

Almost all children involved come from families with different economical conditions and children work for their families in different informal sectors.

Almost all children work in bad hygienic conditions, extreme temperatures, with dangerous-sharp tools, toxic substances; they are exposed to various noises, long working hours, closed environments etc.

The majority combines school with work, they work before of after the school hours but some are also absent sometimes.

All belong to the primary school, of 7-14 years old.

Services which are foreseen with the project have been those: referring to regular and accelerated learning depending on the current situation of the child who has abandoned the school, individual consultations for children and family consultations for parents related to risks of work, after school hours for children in order to improve the success and their attendance at school; group awareness and socializing activities for children; other informal educational activities such as different courses and other additional services provided in order to serve for specific needs of the targeted children.

Providing after school hours: in total 606 children have benefited from after school hours.

All the targeted children and their families have received family and individual awareness advising related to children work and risks. These consultations were done in close cooperation with Case managers from CSL and teachers from schools.

Rehabilitation and awareness sessions were realized in all municipalities.

Other informal education activities: different courses which expenditures were covered by the project: English language and computer courses were enabled for 98 referred children (Prizren 35 children in three months courses, Gjiilan 13, Drenas 30 and Kastriot 20 children) (12 children in computer course and 8 in English language course).

Activities through referring to other existing institutions:

2 children involved in vocational training courses through referring to the Vocational Training Center (Prizren and Mitrovica) whereas 41 family members of 28 families were referred to the employment office. 12 children involved in English language courses in the center CPVPT through referring in the other project of this center (Prishtina). 50 children in English language courses, informatics and Albanian language through referring to the NGO "Buzëqeshja" (Smile) (Mitrovica). 13 children involved in sport activities – football through referring to the Department for Culture, Youth and Sport (Mitrovica). Issuance of birth certificate for one child through referring to the NGO CRPK (Prizren). 53 cases (Prishtina, Drenas, and Mitrovica) have received meat from the sacrificed animal from 94 cases referred to the Islamic Community.

In the Municipality of Kastriot, 17 children have participated in an 8-week awareness campaign through referring to the NGO "Aureola". The activity is organized in daily workshops on different social topics. 110 targeted children (Prishtina) have benefited daily food from "Buqaj" company on the occasion of a group activity with children organized on the day against children abuse on 19 November 2008.

2. 1. Methods, study projecting, which approach will you use and why?

In this research, our focus is addressed in the children work which does not respond to the age and psychic-physical skills of children, that means types of work and duration of engagement at work.

On the contrary, we are aware of the need to engage children at works corresponding to the capacities, needs and their abilities.

This research has multifold importance: above all this is the first qualitative research in Kosovo on the occurrence of involvement of children at work.

By means of this research, the awareness of opinion on the spread of this phenomenon is achieved to be realized.

The main causes that stimulate this phenomenon are made known and we also come to know the physical and psychic-social consequences for children. Data derived by the means of this research will serve to the institutions dealing with social problems in order to have an information overview that is the basis for the preparation of social policies related to this problem.

In addition, this research will serve as a basis for the future research and we believe it will serve, either in a modest manner, in the general awareness of parents, teachers, children and all those who in a form or another are related to this issue.

A series of methods and research techniques have been used in the study of the research problem. Among the main ones are: **method of theoretical analysis, experimental method and research survey method.**

By the means of each of this method we have emphasized a series of problems which have been unnoticed and no research was done on them until now.

Method of theoretical analysis – this method has taken a special place in our research since the main reviews and empirical research of causes of engagement of children at work are shown through this method.

In addition, through this method we have derived data which came out from the collection of this problem in order to know which are the main factors in the inducement and involvement of children at work.

By using this theoretical method, we collected the data of different authors, either those local or international ones who dealt directly with this study area related to engagement of children at work and impellent factors in this process.

Through this method we have also collected data that which of the authors has written about this problem of involvement of children at work, how much was this form studied until now, the model of the study of such a nature and how much it found viability in the society so that this phenomenon with negative dimensions to be studied and lighten in a higher extent of the study.

2. 2. Statistical methods

This method of a huge importance and weight also takes a big part in our research due to the fact it has the special weight to express statistically the results deriving from the research done in the field, and concretely in those places where children are the most involved at work.

This method in our work during this qualitative research enables us to collect data, to analyze them, to elaborate, to compare, to interpret, because through this method, the results derived from the qualitative research are expressed statistically.

In addition, through the statistical method we have the relevant research indicators, issuance of graph tables deriving from data of the empirical research, then presentation of data tables, manner of their elaboration in practice.

In addition, through this method we have come up with the relevant indicators which verify the hypothesis of this project raised during the research phase.

Additionally, through this method we will tell for their level deriving from the research, about the research nature on the causes and motive of engaging children at work.

2. 3. Testing method

Through this procedure we achieved to collect data from children as regards their general skills: which work they perform more often and which work is harder for them to perform.

In addition, in this framework, the age of children who work should be known and meanwhile which gender is more involved in this work process.

And after this procedure of testing exercises, we came up with the final situation of the causes and motives of involvement of children at work and execution of heavy works which is outside of the international norms allowed based on the conventions.

However, from this came out that in the framework of the testing method were emphasized which types of works are more dangerous for children, as: agriculture and forestry, work at streets, collection of waste for recycling, work in the exploitation of natural resources, operation with agricultural equipments, splashing with pesticides, work in harvesting-threshing, hard physical works in fields, wood cutting, work in butchery (butcher of animals and carrying killed animals)

2. 4. Surveying technique

We have used the surveying technique or procedure to collect facts from pupils and teachers, as well as purposely to better data elaboration which served in drawing the sample about the empirical research.

We have developed the surveying technique divided in two phases.

The first phase was held with children who were identified as: street sellers of cigarettes and other small articles, beggars inside and outside the country, pusher, children who work as prostitutes, children used in agricultural and farming activities, fisherman with different tools and so on.

Whereas in the second phase of review we have organized it concretely with the parents of children we have identified being working in order to know the cause and meantime their motive on why their children are working, and meantime to identify the survey side on which is the main factor of involvement of children at work.

This approach and surveying method enabled and facilitated our qualitative research work among others also for the division of children group ages which are involved in executing different works.

In the second phase, the survey was done with parents and also with teachers. This survey was done through questionnaires. Questions were open and some closed, whereas two of them have had alternatives.

Method of pedagogical documentation

In addition, as with the other methods used above and by the means of this method which is very important in this period of qualitative research, respectively related to the data collection which assists us a lot in this phase of the survey research work.

This method is applied for collecting relevant data of the written documentation on schools, teachers and pupils, in order to know how much data do we have in this regard, whether their pupils are attending school or they are abandoning it due to the hard economical situation and this is why they are involved at work; and how much has been done in this field.

After completing the experiments, techniques and respective procedures, teachers of the working classes were interviewed in the research phases in learning.

By implementing this technique with the prepared questions, responses which express the opinions of teachers on their concern were given since in each of the learning hours where they teach there is one or two pupils absent at school and who due to the difficult economical-social situation do not attend classes since they have to work in order to take care for their family.

The abovementioned methods were used as strong points on collecting data due to the fact that a series of problems of different natures but related to this issue of the qualitative research was derived through these methods.

Experimental method

This method has a merit place in each research and with a special weight since the nature and specifics of each research depends to a high extent on this important method in this research-scientific working phase, as well as in the qualitative research.

In each flow of research is important to know the value and weight of the experimental procedures of research during the research phases.

In each research, experiments with different pupils are used, and in our case the experiment with children working and identified in streets was used as well as another group of children who were identified in execution of work in forestry and agriculture.

These selections of experimental methods respond the best to our hypothesis raised in the qualitative research.

Taking into account that we aimed to study, research and lighten and verify the causes and motives of engaging children at work, we have chosen the experiment with the two abovementioned groups of children because the confidence in verifying the hypothesis of pupils at learning will be successful since we will not have fluctuation and distractions of results deriving from the qualitative research.

We have developed the experiment in two working phases: one with the first group and the other with the second group.

2. 5. Analytical strategies

Describe which strategies you will use for data analysis. Develop a plan on the manner of proceeding with the appropriate qualitative approach you have chosen.

In order to be more efficient in this approach, we should emphasize that the analytical strategies within this qualitative project are very important, since we have to do an analysis of the current situation of this nature of the study issue.

In the framework of this study issue, strategies which emphasize the need for emphasized usage of analytical strategies were used.

As an analytical strategy, we should emphasize the need to provide services to these children categories which are identified to be included at work, services which have been foreseen by the project have been these:

referring to regular and accelerated learning depending on the current situation of the child who has abandoned the school,

individual consultations for children and family consultations for parents related to risks of work,

after school hours for children in order to improve the success and their attendance at school;

group awareness and socializing activities for children;

other informal educational activities such as different courses and other additional services provided in order to serve for specific needs of the targeted children.

Among these services we may list: food and hygienic packages, food (bread and flour for families), daily food for children, medicaments, school tools, books, payment of transport for children in order to have an easier access in activities; protective tools for the work in agriculture and clothing.

As a special analytical strategy is also the referral and access in the formal education for children who have abandoned the educational process or are not included in schools (where the direct access in the formal education process is possible) as well as the referral into accelerated learning.

Strategies to analyze the data are ascertained through the data derived from questionnaires but also through the survey methods. Based on these data the current situation of these data was analyzed from asking questions and the data derived from the research.

The data analysis can be materialized through comparisons done by collecting data where the findings through questionnaires were concluded and based on those conclusions derived from questionnaires we came up with the analytical strategy of the Results of the questionnaire in reading and comprehension skills of pupils in the low level of primary school.

In order to get to know closely with the flow of research work, and in order to have a higher effectiveness in this research, we have divided the research questionnaire in two phases.

In the first phase of the initial questioning of pupils, we received information on the pupils' level of knowledge, their success at school, their shown results doing learning at school, engagement, their success shown in their mother tongue acquisition.

The aim of collecting these data is to have a clearer view of the issue of motivation and involvement of children at work.

We have foreseen to do the collection of these data by organizing two research groups: one with the group of children involved at work with whom we organized a conversation to verify the cause of engagement of children at work. They will read, comment; ask questions to each other, in order to understand the meaning and the risks for their involvement at work. By this fact, we may conclude that through involving children at performing different works it may have an influence on their involvement on the trafficking issue, which is a very negative element for the society and for those children categories in general.

Whereas the other group was custodians, parents and teachers of children-pupils will deal with the check of homework which the working group will do in order to have an efficacy of understanding that which of these groups will show an efficacy related to research data.

2. 6. Data quality.

Assess your data quality, including the used criteria for assessment and discuss how would you ensure higher data quality.

In the framework of the qualitative research process, we should ascertain that the quality of data included in the research, among others, have shown a high quality of the research value.

This was specified in the framework of data analysis since for this issue we have used the abovementioned indicators. Through these indicators, the nature and value of the qualitative project was specified concretely in the presented sample of cases to be researched.

The accuracy of data consists on the accuracy of the reported data in relation to the data found in the systems of holding data through questionnaires and measurement indicators in this qualitative research process.

The credibility of data consists on that the system of holding data from issuing data corresponds with the current situation in field, since through the analysis on data derived from the qualitative research we may conclude that the data have shown a real credibility because they are based upon the real value of the research. For such credibility, the indicators or measurement factors of this qualitative research were used. It provides credible data, as: credible, less credible, relatively credible, satisfactory credibility, completely credible.

Quantitative research is numerically orientated. It requires special attention on the measurement of market occurrences and it includes statistical analysis. This approach provides quantitative data which may be analyzed precisely. The quality of data is realized in conformity with the usage of these means in the qualitative research, such as:

2. 7. Direct interviews

We have developed effective procedures for all components of survey in the field, including the identification of the units of sample in this field, field personnel selection and training, developing manuals for the work in field, oversight of interview in field, substitution of rejections and minimization of the extent of not answering, efficient implementation of the qualitative control, as well as the management of the project administration and reporting.

2.8 Telephone Interviews

We have the necessary expertise and space for research through telephone. We have provided efficacy and high quality in data collection. Personal contact in cooperation with the surveys through telephone enables the increase of an explanation level which is crucial for the quality of collected data.

2. 9. Qualitative research

We have completed our research on the causes and motives of engaging children at work through the usage of a series of qualitative research methods which are the following: focus groups, detailed interviews, observer techniques, consumers' presentation, and the consumers' satisfaction. We have used a wide series of qualitative methodologies, and we have chosen our perfect combination which fits to the parameters of each project of qualitative research.

2. 10. Focus groups

One of the most known techniques of market research is the focus groups of discussion. Focus groups are a good possibility through which the qualitative data collection is done in a fast manner and by observing the interactions of a selected respondents' group.

2. 11. Detailed interviews

We have used detailed interviews and through them we have presented a technique projected to derive a real view of the participants' perspective related to the research topic. The techniques of interviewing by the researcher's side are motivated from the wish to learn everything the participant may share related to the research topic.

2. 12. Observer-techniques

Through the observer techniques we have enabled the observance of phenomenon in their natural environments. The observance consists of the observance of the attitude and interactions happening and which can be seen by the researcher. The aim is "to adjust to the environment" so that the presence of a foreigner shall not have a direct effect on the phenomenon to be studied.

3. Political and ethical issues

How will you ensure the protection of those participants you have used for this research?

What difficulties you expect to face and how will you cope with these difficulties?

At the moment of assigning this qualitative research, among the others, the special specifics of this field in this regard have been emphasized.

The protection of participants is specified within the compilation of questionnaires, since this issue is designed to a high extent in those places where we had higher possibilities to realize the qualitative research with children involved in different jobs. It was easy for us to ensure the participants' list on the questionnaire and survey, since the location we have selected to do the survey with children working in different streets and different places has been a huge one and it had a huge density of involvement of children at work.

However, in the framework of research process, we have faces in some difficulties since some children hesitated to respond to the questionnaire, because this issue to a high extent for the children had a different connotation.

Children who responded to the questionnaires and the survey were afraid since the issue of their involvement at work had intrusion motives from the parents' side so that they work wither during the day or this occurrence is noticed the most during the night in different cafes, which is forbidden according to the international conventions.

We have noticed a readiness of cooperation with these children since it can be worked a lot on this direction and to assist to those children in order to not abandon their school, to be equal with the other children and to attend school, and to abandon this occurrence which has had quite big dimension for the children and parents in general.

The question that how we will cope with these difficulties depends to a higher extent to the nature and approach in this regard, but firstly, we should have cooperation with the parents of these children who based on the interview were noticed to make their children to work. Some other children started to work for the existence of their families due to the difficult economical situation and nature.

One of our mechanisms in this regard among the others will be cooperation with the parents of these children and meanwhile will see how to cooperate with the state institutions in order to assist to these children who are in the state of social need.

Many of the parents with whom we have cooperated hesitate in this regard to emphasize their reason for the children to work, since there have been such ones that have stressed that they don't know that their children work. The latter were shown more cooperating in this aspect to research and lighten this problem to an extent of making aware parents and their family that children should attend school and not to abandon it since this issue may produce negative effects for the society in general.

4. Discussion and conclusion

Conclusions derived based on the knowledge on the improvement of political and professional practices.

To provide protection tools for children working in agriculture.

To increase the cooperation between schools and municipal directorates on agriculture and rural development so that children are provided professional lectures at schools for the work in agriculture.

To stimulate pupils to work in agriculture and to attend professional schools (giving scholarships).

To increase the cooperation of schools and Municipal Directorates for Youth, Culture and Sport so that children are involved in sport activities.

The representative of the civil society should participate in the Local Action Committees.

To strengthen the youth centers which assess the needs of youths in the community they live and to provide adequate services for those needs.

The volunteers serving in youth centers should be involved in the process of identification of children in the FCSN.

Schools should be attentive to identify on time the cases which are a predisposition to abandon the school and to be included in the FCSN, so by the intersectoral cooperation within the municipality to enable a successful prevention.

The school management should be attentive to ask for professional medical assistance if needed.

To work in the school curricula and to manage so that within certain subject to call experts to lectures or classes on the topics such as: dangerous works, different illnesses and lectures on negative occurrences (trafficking, smoking, alcohol, drug etc.

To have monitoring at a certain level so that the implementation of the legal infrastructure which sanction the work of children will be in place; and also the laws which ensure the attendance in the mandatory educations?

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Discursive Practices and Teaching Mediation to Support Learning in Mathematics and Italian in Primary School from Fenix Program

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Abstract

In order to define teaching principles to be adopted to support learning in Mathematics and Italian in primary school classes starting from the use of Fenix Program, the research was aimed at increasing the knowledge base available through the recognition of good teaching practices from the point of view of teachers in the form of professional routines. In a previous article (Maccario, 2016) we described some findings on the criteria that you can follow in the development of teaching sequences. This article presents a further order of the results concerning the dialogic-discursive structures that represent an important dimension of teaching mediation in accordance with the operational perspective of teachers. Also in this case it is phenomenology which refers to the practical knowledge as a source to be exploited for the construction of teaching principles and scientifically based knowledge in Didactics.

Keywords: Research-Development; Didactic Models; Didactic Action; Practical Knowledge; Discursive Practices; Professional Routines.

1. Introduction

It is accepted as given that one of the main tasks in pedagogical-didactic research is the elaboration of knowledge to support the professionalisation of lecturers and teachers. Within this view, referring specifically to applied research and research-development (Van der Maren 2014, 2003; Furlong & Oancea, 2006, 2008), studies aimed at putting in place innovative methodologies and the construction of didactic aids and materials represent a trend that works to consider professional training processes as particularly linked to the acquisition of abilities to analyse and compare practices, to plan and regulate action, and to reflect on personal practices and those of others (Rossi, 2015, pg. 50). One perspective of investigation that seems coherent with these requirements is the elaboration of didactic models such as theoretical-practical devices that may offer those involved outlines based on operative criteria and principles, supporting them in the processes of conceptualisation, analysis and professional self-reflection towards improved self-regulation (Cardarello 2016; Damiano, 2006; 2007). This option implies the recognition of professional practices as the foundation of proposals for educational and didactic innovation and the subject of study that pedagogical-didactic research has to consider, insofar as it is the source of the problems and studied a criteria for the discussion and examination of the capacity of the identified solutions and knowledge (Damiano, 2006). Taking into account these requirements, the article looks at the process and some results of research into the identification of lines of modelling innovative didactic practices starting from the *Fenix Programme* (Coggi, 2009, 2015) aimed at reinforcing cognitive and educational processes and supporting motivation such as factors to contrast scholastic failure¹. Among other things, the Programme also proposes the use of games software in the logical-mathematical and linguistic ambits according to curricular progress criteria, in the ambit of didactic courses aimed at students with aspecific learning difficulties; meaning activities undertaken individually or in small groups in laboratories and conducted by specially trained lecturers/mediators. Experiments undertaken in predicted and controlled conditions (Coggi, 2009, 2015) confirmed the Programme's success and a previous study substantially confirmed the possibility of

¹ The article re-elaborates, develops and completes with brand new results as partially reported in D. Maccario: (2016) Didactic innovation in research perspectives. The Fenix Programme supporting teaching practices. *Pedagogical guidelines*, (63), 3, pp.519-537; (2017) Didactic models and professionalisation of teachers. Research approaches. In P.G. Rossi (Ed.), *Integrating Video into Pre-Service and In-Service Teacher Training* (pp.46-64), Hershey PA (USA): IGI Global.

'curricularisation' in ordinary didactic conditions, referring to the management of heterogeneous primary school classes within our national context - (Maccario, 2009); starting with the first 'verification of sustainability', the research¹ aimed to again test the Programme in the local area (following the 'evaluation chains' logic - Van der Maren, 2014, 2003), in contexts and with subjects in relatively varied operative conditions, with the aim of studying its potential to support the didactic activities while supporting the professional development of the teachers. This research starts from the problem: *How to carry out primary school teaching in 'current' didactic conditions to reinforce the cognitive and motivational processes involved in learning in the mathematical-logical and linguistic ambits starting with the Fenix Programme? What may be the structuring steps of a Fenix didactic model supporting teaching activities in 'ordinary' classes?* The aim of the study consists in reconstructing elements of didactic modelling implicit in teachers' practices or rather the practical knowledge on how we can teach while making the most of the resources made available by the Programme according to the perspective of those involved. In other words, the attempt to find the phenomenology of those curriculum(s) in fact generated by use of the Programme, that within the general perspective of an activation of a management principle of teaching that aims to promote a personal knowledge elaboration process in the students and stronger autonomous learning and scholastic success. Elsewhere (Maccario, 2006, 2017), some results have been reported that refer to 'good conduct' according to the teachers' perspective, regarding criteria that may be followed in the development of didactic progress (Rey, 2005). This article portrays a further order of results that emerged concerning dialogical-discursive structures that represent an important dimension in didactic mediation according to the teachers' operative perspective; also in this case we are dealing with a phenomenology that refers to the 'knowledge of practices' as a source upon which to define operative principles in the management of didactic mediation.

2. Theoretic recognition

Below we refer to the results of the theoretic recognition that has been compared against four subject orders: the collection of elements supporting the hypothesis regarding the relevance of didactic models as constructed by the research to be made available to teachers to allow them to (re)think and act reflectively on the teaching practice and, in this way, innovate it by increasing and developing personal professional skills; the problems, logics and strategic-methodological possibilities of research aimed at constructing didactic models; the problem of identifying categories that allow us to conceptualise and operationalise teachers' didactic activities, considered a cornerstone of their professionalism and subject to study in didactic research.

2.1. Didactic practices and models

The usefulness of the didactic models as constructed by the research and made up of formalised outlines to aid teachers to think and enact the practice is greatly accepted (Damiano, 2007), therefore, it is considered possible that this become a subject to be clarified and analysed by those involved, in a process that is fundamental in supporting professional growth. These are theoretic hypotheses that must take on board the procedural nature of those events undertaken and controlled by field operators, usable insofar in that they can be identified by those involved as useful in representing their work (Cardarello, 2016) and understanding it in order to improve it. The recognition of the situated and dynamic character of the teaching processes and professional nature of the teachers' work pushes the concept of the method to pass onto that of the didactic model. The notion of method, generally inferred by knowledge gathered in scientific ambits contiguous to the pedagogical one or rather starting with results of experimentations on the field or, again, from local experience, both individual and group, or by operative implications and militant choices deriving from an adherence to educational ideals, highlights the procedural aspects of the didactic action, in a tendentially prescriptive or recommended interpretation and, implicitly, recognises the teaching practice as a set of applicative behaviour that may be regulated thanks to punctual indications attributed a general value. One of the main difficulties that may be ascribed to this position is the fact that a method – within its ideation and activation phases – cannot be independent from any reference to certain educational contexts and that it cannot be evaluated merely through the appreciation of its effects in absolute. The same method may have contrasting results depending on the situations, the students to whom it is aimed, the teachers and lecturers using it (Bru, 2015). The affirmation of the concept of model can basically be retraced to the recognition of the 'knowledge of practices' or rather of the value of the cognitive processes linked to the professional activity – different in nature to the cognitive processes of a more generalising and abstract character. In reference to the didactic practice and, in general, to the professional practice, interpretative hypotheses have been put forward that identify a crucial cognitive aspect in the

1 PRIN 2013- National coordination G. Domenici (Roma Tre University; local coordination C. Coggi, University of Turin).

processes of 'modellisation' and 'schematisation'. The term 'model' is used to indicate a general mental and schematic representation of a situation that allows those involved to imagine a number of variants, so as to sustain the processes of simulation necessary for the action (Damiano, 2007; Van der Maren, 2014, 2003) in line with the concept of pattern as an organisation of the action that anticipates its goals, rules, possibility to infer in situations, operative invariants, and which allows us to reason and act depending on certain conditions (Vergnaud, 2011; Le Boterf, 2013). Didactic models, when shown to be effective considering the problems and intrinsic nature of teaching, become devices that can support the processes of mental modelisation implicit in practical choices, favouring control thereof. In the very terms of professional didactics (Pastré, 2007), it could be said that the availability of scientifically established didactic models may become a source from which to develop activity models if found they enrich the "cognitive models" instruments available to the teacher as susceptible interpretive keys - in the dialogue with the professional activity - that may support the evolution of the pragmatic schemes used. In other words, we have spoken of the acquisition of teaching skills in terms of didactic patterns (Laurillard, 2012), the development of which may be favoured by a confrontation with general principles that may give it form through reflective processes. The didactic models would therefore become devices to help the operators further understand the situation, with a heuristic function, supporting reflectiveness and ability to make decisions in the moment. A didactic model may be intended as the "simplified representation of operative patterns to undertake educational activities" (Damiano, 1994, pg. 91). It is a construct that refers to the representation of the "action of teaching, in the distinct operations of which it consists, relative to planning-conduction-reflection and which clarify the procedures and respective arguments that justify them" (Damiano, 2007, pg. 71). Within this interpretation, a didactic model is accredited as a teaching theory that serves to optimise the activity, to produce situations and to activate processes that potentially may offer less expensive performance considering the limits of the context. In general, a model includes a reference to the aims or steps of learning that one wishes to follow and selects guide-criteria for the process, offering a simplified representation of didactic events with the intention of saying not 'how should we act', but 'how can we act', taking all operative conditions into account.

2.2. Strategies of research-development

Among the theoretic positions constituting a reference point for didactic research into the study of innovative programmes, models and didactic aids, *Design Based Research* –DBR- is an approach within the Anglophone context that has been accredited with having highlighted, starting with the proposals of Brown and Collins (Brown, 1992; Collins, 1992), the need to take into account the situated character of learning and teaching processes, and to study educational processes and methods for increasing its instructiveness in natural conditions (DBR Collective, 2003; Barab, & Squire, 2004; Sandoval & Bell, 2004; Anderson & Shattuck, 2012). The focus is placed on the applied dimension of pedagogical research, which proposes as a privileged task the elaboration of intervention projects that can support the operators' actions and choices, in the attempt on one hand to overcome the difficulties linked to the large-scale surveying of strictly experimental methodologies, based on controlled inspections that tend, by their very nature, to validate the quality of new methods of intervention by decontextualising them and, on the other hand, the difficulty of ethnographic studies in overcoming the paradigm of descriptiveness and interpretativeness, in order to take on the challenge of transformativity (Pellerey, 2005). The validity of the research consists in knowing how to refer to natural educational conditions, thanks to results that can effectively be used to evaluate, communicate, and increase the effectiveness of the practices within the context being studied and auspiciously in a range of other situations in some way ascribable thereto. The identification and construction of the interventions is a collaborative task taken on by researchers and operators, starting from an understanding of the operative contexts, taking into account the most relevant literature relating thereto, of the pertinent theories and practices used in other contexts, and aims to resolve specific problems or introduce improvements in certain practices (for example, class management, evaluation methods, the use of educational technology, etc.). The collaborative process works on the initial phase to identify the problem, reconstruct the theoretic outline, develop the intervention project and its construction, realisation, evaluation and the creation of theoretic and operative principles. The final phase of DBR research particularly focusses on theoretic comprehension, reflecting the production of planning principles and operative solutions in its comparison with the cognitive legacy available following field experience. Unlike approaches based on research-action, DBR studies are developed not only to fulfil local needs but also to promote theoretical developments concerning problems regarding 'how' to teach and educate. Though this research strategy, conceptualised also as "interventionist ethnography" (Pellerey, 2005, pg. 6), has been the subject of discussion due to a series of difficulties that may be ascribed thereto, especially based on the evidence that it is able to generate, it has become a promising course for having made the importance and significance of educational research relevant again; if within the ambit of the DBR approach we substantially notice the need for coherence in research and its theorisations on educational situations, in order to be considered a 'test-

bed' of their capacity, other positions refer more directly to the congruence regarding educational activities and practice, identified as a true subject of study, marking, in fact, an ontological turning point. This perspective goes hand in hand with the recognition of the professional character of teaching, causing the research to take on the support of the teachers' activities and professional development as its own elective mandate, with particular focus on the themes of education. Research is increasingly moving towards the 'practice-theory-practice' logic. Referring to the problems of applied research and, more specifically, developed research, the position of Jean Marie Van der Maren (2014) is especially significant within the Francophone ambit; he recognises, together with the progressive recognition of the demand arising from Francophone ergonomics and the paradigm of *semplicità* (Van der Maren, Yvon, 2009), professional practices as a separate area of study. Regarding the research tasks, the main focus concerns the problem of teachers in actively and knowingly constructing their work, conceptualising and re-conceptualising it, and of disposing of didactic devices – "pedagogical objects" – useful in that way, possibly susceptible to not only local and temporary use but also to being amassed, in relation to their prerequisites, principles and their somehow proven effectiveness. In other words, for researchers, it basically means finding strategies to operationalise ideas and theories that may be of effective use to teachers in their professional activities. A field of research is set up which is validated more on functionality than truth, implying the identification of practicable and incisive solutions, given a group of priorities and limits, of values and contextual customs (organisational, of the local community ...). Because of the complexity that is typical of the situations subject to study and the *ruse* that characterises the functional practice as a fundamental point of reference, the research may take on a transdisciplinary or transtheoretic character, starting with an "epistemological rupture", a preliminary distancing from preconceptions and already-defined analyses. The criteria of «probability» which requires theories to give a representation of the objects to which they refer – professional activities – calls for particular attention to be paid to the coherence of cognitive logics, of the devices used and the nature of the data constructed: the general plans of the subjects' activity must confirm this activity, limiting as much as possible any deformations arising from unsuitable theoretic-conceptual categories or from incongruent instrumentation. From here, even the observation of the inappropriateness of decomposing approaches, which tend towards decontextualisation and the artificial simplification of the situations, to the advantage of basically comprehensive and dynamic interpretations. After all, we are dealing with research that does not tend to elaborate on solutions starting with theories, but rather aims to valorise and develop the solutions the operators have based on their experience. The applied function of the research is associated with a «clinical» approach which implies the participation of those involved in analysing the problems and in the identification of possible answers and solutions. A logic of inspection is configured founded on the theorisation of the practices following a cycle that starts with a description of the activities, distancing itself from them and their specific interrogation, in order to subsequently construct hypotheses and activity outlines 'starting from and relating to the practice'.

2.3. Didactic activities as a subject of inspection

Some trends of inspection have in particular thematised the need to identify categories that allow us to operationalise the work of those involved in the situation, restoring the constitutive complexity thereof, so it is clear and can be interpreted in formalised terms. The didactic activity is connoted, in general, in terms of inter-action, which may be surveyed in its contextual dynamicity by observing the recursive dynamics subtended to the manifest variability of the processes. The need for a research approach in which those involved can become subjects of the study processes and experience first-hand the development and sense thereof is confirmed. Enactivist matrix positions (Rossi, 2011; Rossi, Prenna, Giannandrea, & Magnoler, 2013) (re)propose the notion of a "structural coupling" player-situation to highlight how important it is to study the mutual influence between the teacher's and the student's auto-poietic systems - more than the direct action of one system over the other – regarding the learning tasks. In relative theoretic continuity, the paradigm of *simplicity* (Poizat, Salini, Durand, 2013), starting with the distinction between prescribed work and actual activity as proposed by the ergonomics of the French language, identifies the acceptance of the implicit complexity of the tasks or working conditions according to methods connoted by astuteness and elegance as a trait that qualifies the professional activity. The structural coupling – the exchanges – between those involved and the context would be characterised by *simplicity*, which would in turn be supported by processes of "typicalisation", or rather of research into similarities between the current situation and previous experiences within forms of generalisation necessary to the action. Other perspectives, substantially relating to the need to grant a renewed centrality to the student as a 'reality' around which we then construct or should construct within the didactic process, propose we basically conceptualise the action in a conversational key (Pellerey, 2014). The student - with his own 'resistances', unexpected answers, his own way of perceiving the world – is the point of reference for the intense activity that the teacher - starting with his own projects, intentions, hypotheses of action - puts into action upon

seeing it as such; rather than being aimed directly at the student, the teacher directs this activity more to himself in order to establish more suitable possibilities for meetings and support, starting with the subjective and objective-instrumental resources that he deems useful for the purpose. An important cognitive focus is constituted by teacher-students exchanges and amongst the latter to study and understand the teacher's actions in order to set up the suitable conditions for the students' learning through the various types of - direct or indirect – communication to which it may contribute. According to an epistemological perspective of constructionist-Piagetist matrix, the conceptualisation of the didactic action as a “medial action” (Damiano, 2013) refers to the specificity of teacher-student interaction in the scholastic context as a negotiated sharing of learning tasks around cultural subjects, within a dynamic that structures and distinguishes didactic activity from other professional types. The subject of the research is represented by ‘what teachers do in relation to what students do in order to learn cultural subjects’. The medial character of the didactic activity indicates that what is in play is not so much a direct knowledge of the world but the comprehension of how others have described and explained it. The construct of ‘professional routine’ (Damiano 2006; 2013; 2014) as a possible unit of analysis, is put forward to explain the multidimensionality and relative unpredictability of teaching, with the inclusion of the space-time and intentional dimensions that constitute them. The routines are to be intended as extremely regular sequences of operations, which allow us to identify the distinctive traits of the didactic activity, a sort of outline leaving the necessary margins for adaptation to take the mutability of the situations into account; these may be subject to study insofar as they are a concentration of what those involved are taught by the processes of reciprocal interaction and adaptation and, on the whole, can be “recognised as the basically unitary structure that characterises teaching, made evident through the corresponding actions” (Damiano, 2014, pg.35). Starting with the near theoretic matrixes, other study trends, essentially ascribable to Francophone professional didactics, propose the “practice organisers” notion, intended as “activity structures” or operator invariants implicated in professional activities, including teaching (Pastré, 2007; Vergnaud, 2011; Bru M., Pastré P., & Vinatier, 2007).

3. Research system

The research was carried out following some specific steps: 1- training of the research group (researchers, expert Fenix teachers) and identification of the ‘trial’ schools; 2- research group validation of the problem and objectives; 3- definition of the operative hypothesis and distribution of survey methods; 4- didactic interventions on the field; 5- survey and constitution of the databases; 6- elaboration and discussion. The survey strategy adopted is represented by the case study, according to the logic of multiple cases (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2014) instrumental to this survey and selected to give wider possibility for intensive observation, according to the criteria of relative variability. Specifically, the didactic practices of three highly experienced teachers¹ were studied; after participating in the initial phase of the study, and wishing to increase their own personal experience in the field, these teachers decided, voluntarily, to make the most of their onsite training, and adopted the Fenix Programme in order to find ways of personalising teaching to new, varying class-contexts. The research involved three schools from the Piedmont area (in the province of Cuneo) in small-medium towns, focussing on students of families living in medium socio-cultural conditions, with a limited number of students per class that the teachers considered as having difficulty in keeping up with the average pace of the class (3-5 students per class), against the overall results of the classes considered in need of improvement regarding learning and motivational autonomy and personal processes required to elaborate knowledge. The didactic activities are undertaken following systematic inflections over a school term. The didactic activities were studied based on the teachers’ identification of observational units represented by activities/lessons with a clear beginning, middle and end, so as to make them easily identifiable and unique in representing teaching methods using Fenix activities to those involved. It was therefore expected to acquire a sample group of professional activity of importance for the teachers and relatively undertaken, to then be subjected to intensive observation in order to identify recurring cycles of activities or didactic routines. The study is based on an intensive use of video recordings in normal conditions in order to study the didactic activity – considered in terms of the inter-action between the teacher and students intent in learning and mediated by the multi-media device - according to outlines or activity trends. The use of fixed-camera videos² proved to be not only advantageous insofar as we could return to the processes observed, but also as it ensured good observatory validity allowing us to concurrently take into account the three fundamental polarities – teacher, students, contexts - of the teaching, learning and the dynamic interactions.

1 Stefania Cucco and Alessandra Bettonagli- Didactic management of Mondovì (CN) I Circolo; Anna Maria Cornaglia – Didactic management of Fossano (CN) II Circolo

2 Thanks to the thesis students Debora Allasia, Debora Petté, Roberta Tolosano, students attending the course for a degree in Primary Teaching Sciences in Turin.

Technical limitations, but also and above all the characteristics of the units of analysis – the routines – meant, nevertheless, that other instruments had to also be used (Vander Maren, 2014) such as field notes, focus groups and clarification interviews (Vermesh, 2011): the latter are particularly useful in obtaining a representation of the professional activity that includes not only the “work undertaken” but also the “work adopted” or taken on, or rather the sense that the players construct around their actions (Vander Maren, Yvon, 2009).

Fig.1: Survey Plan

	Classes	Number of students	Subjects	Total number of Fenix lessons	Number of observatory lessons	Hours
CASE A	III A- III B	32	Maths Italian	7	5	9
CASE B	II A - II B	28	Maths Italian	8	5	12
CASE C	I A - I B	29	Maths	7	5	10

The video recordings of the lessons and focus groups and the audio recordings of the clarification interviews have been transcribed and codified to allow integrated analysis of the context with the support of the N-Vivo 10 software. The categories are divided up (Miles, Huberman, Saldaña, 2014) based on the unit of analysis represented by didactic routines or recurring cycles of activity through which the teacher aims to promote students' activation in view of the appropriation of cultural objects with the support of the Fenix Programme.

4. Results

While an initial level of analysis has found five types of routines corresponding to operative outlines adopted recursively by the teacher-experimenters 'onsite' in 'designing' the sequences of tasks given to students in order to activate processes of cognitive and metacognitive re-elaboration of mathematical and linguistic contents set by the Programme –Rs- (Maccario, 2016), a further perspective of analysis shed light on a different category of recursive structures of didactic mediation referring to the management of dialogic-discursive flows -Rd-. By observing the verbal exchanges in the classroom, in the cases studied and in relation to the Rs recorded, overall we can identify seven activity outlines referring to the communicative exchanges between those involved – teachers and students – as they concentrate on the learning tasks proposed by the Fenix Programme. These dialogic-discursive practices that the teacher uses in order to support and supply the students' cognitive tension and ease the learning process (Lumbelli, 2003) are designed based on the students' response. They are trends that develop within the routines carried out by those involved in the interaction in a continual game of roles and expectations (Selleri, 2016) and which vary depending on the didactic strategies adopted. In this case, within the ambit of group discussions (on the classroom level or between groups of children) or in the teacher-student dialogue, we are looking more at open questions, in which the teacher is able to take on board the students' response and guide the discursive trend towards new cognitive steps (Selleri, 2016; Pontecorvo, 2004). We hereby take a look at and comment briefly on the Rd emerging from an analysis of the textual material obtained from the field studies and broken down into sub-routines (which, unlike the Rs, are not self-consistent). The below view, while inevitably suffering the effects of (hyper)simplification, in terms of linear sequential nature and immobility of the representation, does however offer advantages in the systemisation and clarification of the main logical-practical connections that generate the activity trends.

Fig.2: Rd case A

Rd.0 –Regulation of participation	
Rd.1-Analysis of delivery	Rd.1.1- Reactivation and (self)inspection of previous learning.
	Rd.1.2- Identification of the task.
	Rd.1.3- Operationalisation of the task.
	Rd.1.4- Formalisation of the delivery.
Rd.2 –Analysis and development of operative/thought strategies	Rd.2.1- Recognition of work strategies.
	Rd.2.2- Formalisation of work strategies.

Rd.3- Solution of the problems	Rd.2.3- Identification of errors.	
	Rd.2.4- Identification and analysis of errors.	
	Rd.2.5- Identification, analysis, formalisation of errors.	
	Rd.3.1- Identification of the problem and its formalisation.	
	Rd.3.2- Launch/taking on of the problem.	
	Rd.3.3- Re-formalisation of the problem.	
	Rd.3.4- Exploration and formalisation of resolutive strategies	Rd.3.4.1- Reflective (self)interrogation.
		Rd.3.4.2 - Re-formalisation of the problem.
		Rd.3.4.3- Collection-formalisation-analysis of strategic hypotheses focussed on the problem.
		Rd.3.4.4- Progressive definition of strategies-analyses focussed on the problem (with re-formalisation)-possible relaunch.
Rd.3.4.5- Formalised ratification of strategies with the exploration of hypotheses of generalisation.		

From the Rs point of view, Case A shed light on two typical activity outlines both characterised by the operative decision to start the didactic sequence with 'immersive' use of the games by students working in pairs or small groups in a laboratory, with no teacher mediation, and followed by a guided intergroup discussion in the classroom: in one case, in order to analyse the resolutive strategies adopted in order to examine its transferability to other contexts/tasks and, in the second case, as a problematising start directed to the development of new curricular learning (Maccario, 2016). From a viewpoint of the contents of the teacher-student discursive chains we can note, in addition to the recursivity of exchanges required to favour participation (Rd0) (diffusive and imbricated with the other Rds), the dialogical confrontation cycles focussed on taking on the delivery (Rd1) which was gradually conceptualised, translated into operative terms and put 'into words' following shared methods, making the effort to adopt the formal language of disciplinary knowledge in play. A further category of communicative cycles can be recognised in relation to the analysis and development of operative and thought strategies implicated by the use of Fenix activities (Rd2); once again, this started with more intuitive recognition and more informal definitions and then led to a description in unambiguously shareable terms, with a focus on the identification, analysis and formalisation of possible errors. Problems resolution evokes a typical dialogical sequence (Rd3) that is particularly articulated, with an initial emerging phase in reference to the recognition-analysis-definition of the problem in increasingly strict terms (Rd3.1-2-3) and a subsequent phase (Rd.3.4.), particularly articulated (Rd3.4.1-2-3-4-5), all of which work towards supporting an increasingly less intuitive and more explicitly shared verbalisation of resolutive strategies.

Fig.3: Rd case B

Rd4 – Development of work/learning strategies.	Rd4.1. Exploration-analysis-formalisation of the delivery.	
	Rd4.2 Reactivation of previous learning.	
	Rd4.3 Guide to taking on the task.	
	Rd.4.4. Clarification and analysis of strategies.	
	Rd.4.5 Co-construction/co-analysis of strategies.	Rd.4.5.1 Simulation/prevision.
		Rd.4.5.2 Analysis of difficulties.
		Rd.4.5.3 Exploration of strategies.
		Rd.4.5.4 Identification and analysis of errors.
		Rd.4.5.5 Celebration of success.
Rd4.6 Regulation/personalisation of rhythms/organisation of the work.		
Rd4.7 Regulation of interaction.		

	Rd4.8. Reconstruction of the work process.	Rd4.8.1 Phenomenological reconstruction.
		Rd4.8.2 (Self)reflective analysis
		Rd4.8.3 (Self)learning outcome.
		Rd4.8.4 Decontextualisation and generalisation.

Case B shed light on a unique recursive didactic sequence, in which the teacher and the students – the latter organised in small groups – worked together in a laboratory to develop resolutive strategies to deal with the mathematics and Italian language tasks chosen from those offered by the Fenix Programme (Maccario, 2016). This case also resulted in a rather rich discursive phenomenology, moving from a focus on delivery verbalisation (Rd4.1) up to a description of the work process (Rd4.8), passing through a series of steps regarding the clarification of previous learning, the acceptance of the task, the work strategies (Rd4.2-3-4), with particular discursive activity dedicated to defining shared strategies leading to processes of prediction, the exploration of paths to follow, errors, celebration of successes (Rd4.5.1-2-3-4-5) and the reconstruction of the work process, aimed at defining outcomes in a proactive direction (R.4.8:1-2-3-4).

Fig. 4: Case C

Rd.5 – Personalised regulation of rhythms/organisation of the work.	
Rd.6- Regulation of interaction.	
Rd.7- Reconstruction of the work process.	Rd.7.1 – Phenomenological reconstruction.
	Rd.7. 2 – (Self)reflective analysis.
	Rd.7. 3 – Learning outcome.
	Rd.7. 4 – Decontextualisation and generalisation.

The analysis of Case C brought up a cycle of didactic activities aimed mainly at reinforcing and transferring learning through the experience of differentiated exercises, following 'traditional' approaches alternated with Fenix play-exercises, of further value thanks to the motivating power of the multimedia environment which revisits already-used activities to support the personal elaboration of knowledge in an innovative and evocative key for the children allowing relatively flexible work rhythms and paths (Maccario, 2016). Within the ambit of this type of didactic sequence, as well as the communicative exchanges of an organisational/regulative character (Rd5-6) particular importance is given to the dialogical exchanges between teacher and students regarding the clarification of the work undertaken individually and the analysis thereof in a self-evaluatory and generalising key (R7:1-2-3-4).

5. Discussion

In general, routines allow us to implement those didactic practices that the Fenix Programme can supply when used in current teaching conditions, deconstructing them within the perspective of 'action flows with sense' for those involved. The articulated totality of the Rs relative to each case studied represents forms of didactic activity characterised by specific traits, but also by recurring elements. We briefly refer to the latter in relation to the study's aims: the need to restore an integrative cognitive base in order to support teaching through educational games software in schools, in ordinary teaching conditions, in order to outline an integrated set of principles and activity lines to work to help the teachers to renew their practices, even in situations other than those studied. Some points are hereby mentioned. One aspect raised, though limited (case B), by the examples of didactic activities studied concerns the relative indifferentiation of discursive outlines compared to different disciplinary ambits (Italian and mathematics); this is an element for further study but which could induce us to valorise, starting from the perspective of those involved, an approach in which communication in the classroom is set up around Fenix activities in order to support reflection, activating a generative dynamic in which verbal language becomes an essential element to supply and support the development of thought (Pontecorvo, 2004). This interpretation is also affirmed in the intense verbal-communicative activity generated from the reactivation of previous learning, the identification and analysis of errors and constructed learning, and the identification of perspectives of generalisation. Another trait found refers to a distinctive aspect of didactic action as medial action (Damiano, 2013) constituted by the verbalised acceptance of delivery as a decisive step in students managing their own learning (Rey, 2005). In cases A and B in particular, discursive interactions are set up that aim to precisely define and support this step, which therefore is as strategic in Fenix-based teaching management. In other words, teachers' practices seem to testify the need for verbal

language mediation at the same rate that multimedia language does immediately, given that it problematizes, in fact, the relationship between informal and formal processes of school learning. The repeated reference to the need to verbalise in the symbolic-formal terms of study disciplines and the logical and learning processes activated and promoted by the use of Fenix software seems to emphasise this need (cases A and B).

4. Conclusions

Following in general terms what we had discovered previously (Maccario, 2016), this research seems to indicate the possibility of mediating the Fenix Programme when it is used in current teaching situations, referring to the management of relatively heterogeneous class-groups, in order to promote students' academic success. In addition to a possible, embryonic criteriology for the development of previously outlined didactic sequences – to be refined and enriched (Maccario, 2016), the evidence of recurrent dialogic-discursive structures indicates a further trend for development, in the elaboration of increasingly comprehensive didactic models that adhere to the complexity of the teaching activity.

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Innovation in Teaching and Learning through Creative Art Model

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Abstract

The aim of this study was to develop an innovation in teaching and learning, called creative art model. The method used was research and development by adapting Borg and Gall model. This model was developed based on students' self, social competences, and cooperation among students. The procedures in this study were as follows: i) preliminary survey was conducted to produce software to be used in assessing students' needs; (ii) the creative art model chart was designed; and (iii) the model was implemented and evaluated. Data were collected by identifying and analyzing how the creative art model improved the quality of teaching and learning process. The results indicated that the creative art model could improve the quality of the teaching and learning by developing lesson plans. It also has been found that students' self and social competences were improved due to the improvement of cooperation among students.

Keywords: Innovation, Teaching, Learning, Creative, and Art

Introduction

The reposition of curricula of teacher education which has been declared by the Ministry of Education in Indonesia from based on competence to be based on competence qualification or KKNl. It has resulted in the need to replace the old model with the innovative one in teaching and learning. To be able to accommodate its new function, then the new model should have characteristics, such as the capabilities to manage teaching and learning activities, integratedly. Developing the new model means to develop four teacher's competencies such as self, social, pedagogy and professional competencies simultaneously. Preliminary studies found that teaching and learning through creative art has been proved to be theoretically met the requirements. However, the model has not been tested necessarily to prove its practical efficiency. In general, the purpose of this study was to improve the quality of teaching and learning to develop of self and social competencies through creative art model. Specifically, the objectives of this study were: (i) to use a software by which students' self and social competence will be assessed and analysed (ii) Based on the data obtained in the software, to design a model teaching and learning through creative art.

Literature Review

The development of student by *Chickering's seven vectors developmental theory* consists of competence development, stable in emotion, interdependency, mature in interpersonal relationship, identity, goal of life and integrity (Chickering and Reisser, 1993 in Milfa 2012). The process of these development happened in a life time. In the other side, students have to develop their competences to be a teacher such as self, social, pedagogy and professional. The preliminary research showed that teaching and learning in education program at university were focused on pedagogy and professional competences. It caused that the student competence in self and social as a teacher did not develop properly. From this situation, teaching and learning in conventional model did not suitable anymore. Therefore, a new model of teaching and learning should be developed. The new developed model should be develop student. As told by Chickering in simltan theory, i.e., teacher's competences, especially in self and social competences. Self competence such as: steady, stable, adult, wise, command, model, and noble character. Social competences: communicate effectively, empathetically, and court. From this competences, students would be able to build relation by adapted Rogers Triangle Theory that was unconditional positive regards, empathy, and congruence (Rogers 1978). Due to these, students could develop interconnection with other (Cozolino 2014). The model of teaching and learning through creative art (TLCA) were assumed relevant to these situation. The reason was creative art was consisted of creative visualization, story, drawing, drama, clay, puppet, movement, music, mask and game (Maichiodi, 2007). Because of this activity would made mind, body and soul of

the student stimulate. The experience in doing creative art could made the student knowing self and other, enjoy with other, positive, satisfaction, happiness and dignity.

The concept used to design the new model in this study was taken from the theory of cooperative learning and the theory of creative art. It was stated that the success of teaching and learning in developing self and social indicated by criteria such as: (i) activities planning are based on students self and social quality map, (ii) efficient organization of students and activities in the classroom, and (iii) motivating learning and continuous control. The map of students need comprise aspects such as students': (i) self competence, and (ii) social competence. Generally, there are two aspects to be considered as related to creative art model in teaching and learning. They are: (i) level of service which comprises: learning readiness session such as creative visualization, drawing , music (ii) direction of learning which includes: talking, drama, game, clay, puppet and movement. The Model shown in Fig. 1.

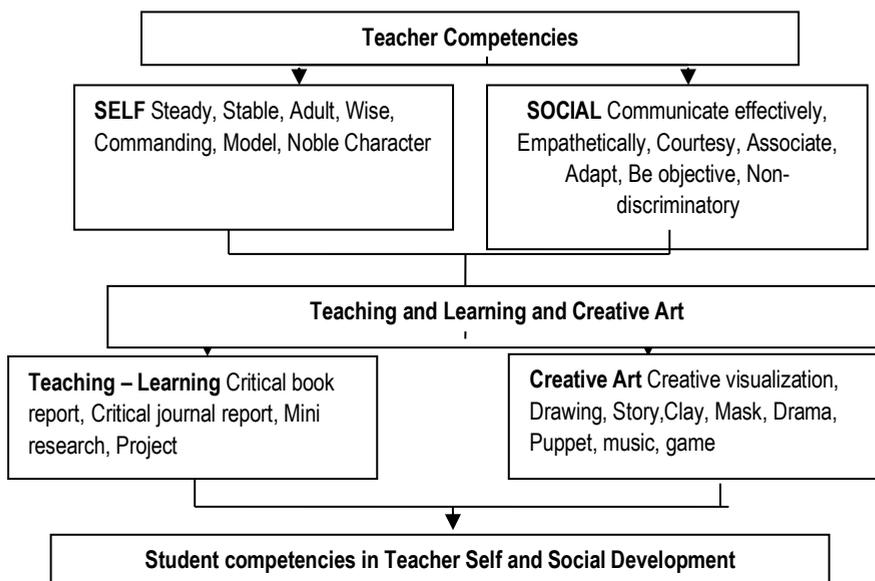


Figure 1. Teaching and Learning Through Creative Art (TLCA) Model

Methodology:

The method used in this study was research and development which was adopted from Borg, Walter (1983). The procedures were as follows: (i) preliminary survey, (ii) model development, (iii) model testing, (iv) model validation, and (v) model socialization. This method was done in three stages. A preliminary survey conducted was data collecting on students self and social competencies. Data collection was performed through the self and social assesment software. The data obtained were descriptively analysed to be further used in mapping students' self and social profile. The teaching and learning through creative art model (TLCA) based on students competence was resulted from the preliminary survey. The research question was: how does the TLCA model improve the quality of students' self and social competencies by teaching and learning ?

Population in this study was students in The State University of Medan (Unimed), Indonesia in year 2016, those who take psychology of education subject. Samples were collected randomly, i.e., four classes from 44 classes in Faculty of Mathematic and Natural Sciences with amount 80 students . The data were collected through software of self and social assesment . Methods applied in this study were self report of the students and software self and social development. Collected data were analyzed using percentage method, in addition, student's self and social competencies were analyzed using software application. The procedure in this study is shown in Table 1

Table 1. The Procedure of Study

Activities	Method	Goal
First Year: 12 month		
1. Preliminary Survey		
Student Self and social development Indicator: Student Self and Social Map Analyzing need assesment	Use Software to collect data	Base line data to design teaching and learning and creative art
2. Model Design		
Teaching and learning need identification Self and Social Development Design the instruction Try Out	Analysis to : Preliminary survey report Expert judgement	Teaching and Learning Through creative art model Try Out Model result Model revised
Second Year : 12 month		
Try out Model at Lecture		
Model validation	Teaching and Learning Through creative art model	Teaching and Learning Through creative art model training for lecturer
Socialyizing the model	Workshop	Activities report
Study report	Study analysis	Work Book for Teaching and Learning Through creative art model

Results and Discussion:

From this study, it has been found that the result of software application could be used as a foundation to TLCA model design. The model was used in mechanism of TLCA instructed. The procedures of TLCA model were found to be comprehensive than the conventional model, in terms of teaching and learning acomodate self and social stimulation through creative art. The process of TLAC more integrative and holistik. The student told that creative visualization and music were excellence done in TLCA. They could imagine something by creative visualization. Feel relax after using it with instrumental music. They could drawing everything they saw in creative visualization easily. They could talk about their drawing while the others hear it. Using clay the student built his self. The results of the study is shown in Figure 2.

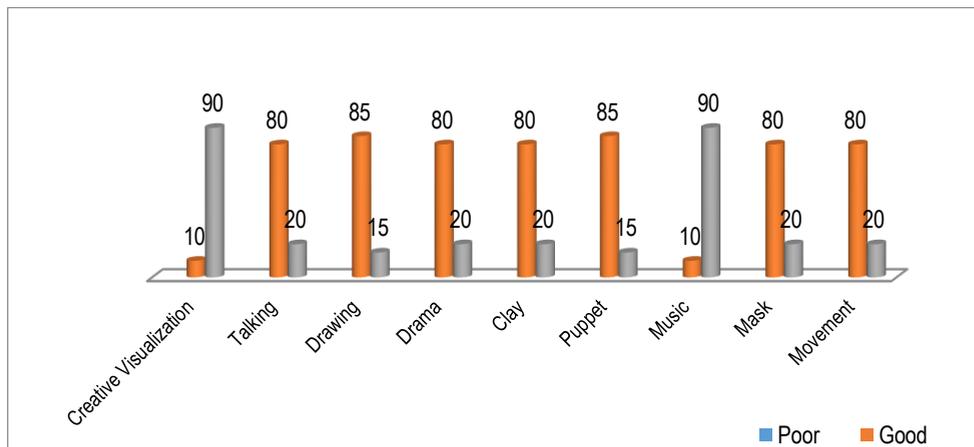


Figure 2. Creative Art in Teaching and Learning activities

Theory of contact by Lynne, (2010) consisted of physical, emotional and metaphorical. Acitivity with clay as physical contact, sensation experiment influenced feeling and emotional contact connected simultaneously with imagination and metaphor. This situation made knowing contact between student and others. Understood about himself by methafor is shown in Figure 3. Others could empathy to the student. Because of this situation made in every time in teaching and learning process, interconnection between student happened. One attached by the other (Bowly J, 1998).

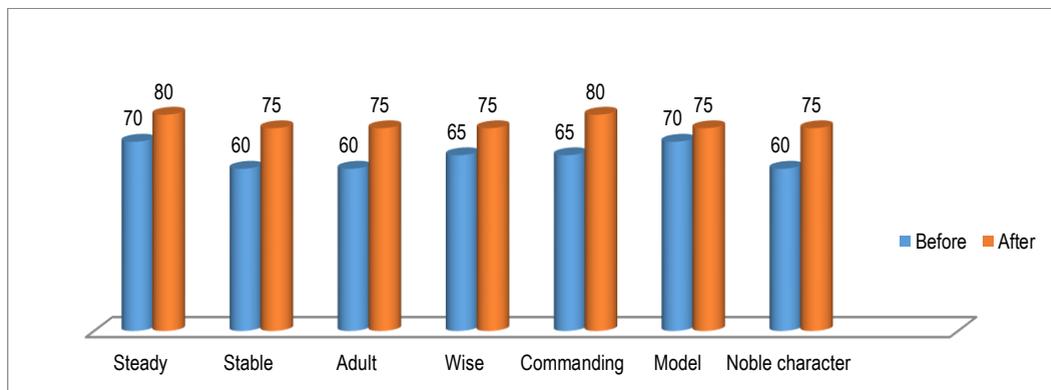


Figure 3. Self-Competences

The results of evaluation about students's activities, such as talking, drama, clay, puppet, mask and movement were found to be good. The metaphor of clay was affected to mind of student, body and soul stimulated (Sapolsky 2012). They understood more about themselves and let other knew about the metaphore of clay. Puppet resulted interconnection between each other (Mills,Joice, Crawley, Richard. J.(2011). Process mirroring, and matching energy (Cozolino,2014) happened in this situation and the students'social competences as communicate effectively,empathetically, courtesy as in Figure 4. Seemed that creative activity in the class room that done integrated with teaching activity stimulate self and social competence development. Students became communicate effectively, empathetically, associative and adaptable after the study. This was happened also in courtesy, objectivity and non discriminatory .The student could develop their windows of tolerance (Keer,2015). Prevent them in hypoarousal as fight, fly an freeze in problem solving.

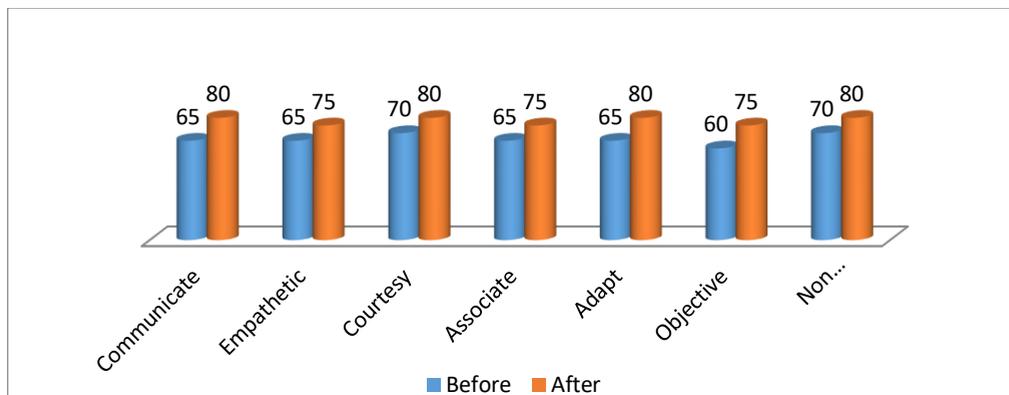


Figure 4. Social Competences

At last, the results showed that TLAC model could improved students' self and social competences. The data from software could be used to design lesson plans for teaching and learning. The students were commented that TLCA made joyfull learning. They told that self and social development better than before. In addition the lecturer commented that classroom did not talking about academic only . It seemed that the classrom talked about the student in holistic. The self, social,

pedagogy and professional competences more easier to be achieved. Learning processes were not only in cognitive ways, but also in emotional, social, and practical ways

Furthermore, this model could give a chance to student in learning naturally and changed from artificial learning. Based on the results, it could be stated that could overcome the weakness of the traditional approach in teaching and learning, such as: (i) the services provided in the model were based on comprehensive assessment of students' need and competences, (ii) the activities were more controlable since any single decision was made based on data, (iii) the cooperative interactions between lecturer and students, (iv) the sense of responsibility as a professional teacher was grew among the students, and (v) the more pleasant and conducive atmosphere were established.

Besides that, the TLCA model provided some beneficial contribution to students, which was never achieved in the traditional model, in the way: (i) increasing students' understanding of self and social teachers' competence activities, (ii) promoting interaction among peers and lecturers, and (iii) developing self confidence to be successful in careers, and (iv) helping students in solving their problems efficiently and effectively.

Conclusions:

The TLCA model could became an alternative response towards the government decisions in KKNi Curricula in teacher education from merely a conventional approach to holistic and integral of teaching and learning processes. The new model at the same time was found to be strengthened the role of lecturer in Indonesian . Teaching and learning in teacher education conventional way focus on pedagogy and professional competence. However, through creative art model, students could got their self and social competences, beside pedagogy and profesional competences.

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The Role of Knowledge in Computer Collaborative Learning Research

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Abstract

The aim of this paper is to describe the most significant theoretical frameworks concerning Computer Collaborative Learning Research (CSCL) on the light of Web 2.0 supports. The term Web 2.0 embraces a range of 'social' technologies and tools that enable users to create, publish and share digital contents within both new and existing social networks. Technologies such as blogs, wikis, podcasts and file sharing services are increasingly being used to support learning and teaching within the higher education sector (see Hughes, 2009; Kennedy et al., 2009). The implications of collaborative interactions within the socio-constructivism approach are examined. Harasim (2012) defines online collaborative learning as characterized by interactive group knowledge-building processes. This aspect implies that students participate actively by monitoring different levels of learning while they are collaborating with teacher and pairs. The computer supported collaborative learning research (CSCL) community focus on the role of technology considered as a tool through which students and teacher make sense of the world and negotiate meaning. Many researches about CSCL environments concerns the role of teacher in allowing social and significant interactions among all group members. Three factors drive the change from teacher-centered to centered learning approach, the shift from individual to group learning and from contiguous to asynchronous distributed learning groups. All of these aspects imply changes in educational institutions based on social construction of knowledge and competence-based learning. Through the years of competence based approaches have proved to be a critical tool in human resources management and computer collaborative research.

Keywords: social- interaction, Collaborative Learning Research, constructivism.

Introduction

1. Literature review: from cognitive to constructivist perspectives

Using technology tools can reinforce the acquisition of information through multiple modes of knowledge representation and comprehension. This improves learning outcomes by contributing to intellectual growth and critical thinking (Pena-Shaff and Nicholls, 2004). There are various reasons for emerging interest in collaborative learning. The first reason is that it is a general trend in the area of Human Computer Interaction (HCI) in which computer supported work and learning is situated. The new area, referred as "ubiquitous" or "pervasive" computing, is a logical extension of HCI research. Research in this area is derived from recent advancements in three interrelated field:

- a. tangible user interfaces which involves direct contact of hand and body
- b. ubiquitous computing in which the person has multiple devices available in the environment and computational power is available everywhere and augmented reality is the result of overlapping and adding digital information to real objects.

In these complex learning environments, the attainment of task is based on active construction of knowledge: students are encouraged to exchange ideas, share perspective and use previous knowledge experiences to solve authentic problems (Kaplan et al. 2008, Dillenborough, 2010). Researchers working on collaborative learning have recently turned their attention to the interdisciplinary study of the dynamics of communicative interactions (Resnick et al. 1997). This shift of emphasis is linked to the recognition that, without powerful theories and specific modes of cooperative learning, the recognition of interactive learning mechanisms will be essentially blind.

Research on computer collaborative learning emerged as a field from the 1980s onwards, from two related research trends. Firstly, researchers working in 'mainstream' cognitive psychology and information-processing models of individual reasoning, problem solving and learning, began to turn their attention to learning in groups, largely motivated by the possibility and necessity of understanding how students worked together with and around computers (Dillenbourg et alr 2009).

A second strand concerned the attempt to extend Piaget's theories of development focused on the individual to learning in social interaction.) Across these approaches, the development of knowledge and learning is viewed as cognitive action involving construction of mental representation of reality. The constructivist approach views knowledge as an entity mentally constructed through actions and experiences. Knowledge is actively constructed by the interaction between the learner and external objects through adaptation of and experiential world. Consequently, through the establishment of flexible mental constructs (Glaserfeld, 2013; Wheatley, 1993) learning occurs. The meaning of the external world according to constructivism is socially negotiated. Thus, external reality is likely to be perceived differently by different learners, and it is through social negotiation that common meaning is constructed. To enhance learning, the environment should be constructed in a manner that enhances a recurrent process of adaptation to learner's mental schema through significant interactions in a social contest. Constructivism implies situated cognition in authentic activities (Brown, Collins, & Duguid, 2000). In such situations, learners are given opportunities to draw from their own experiences interpretations and situational relevance. Reflection in online environments encourages learners to shift beyond perception to deeper and more insightful meaning making. Meaning making, according to constructivism, is the goal of learning processes; it requires articulation and reflection on what we know. Individual reflection is an important strategy that may enhance the development of insight, cognitive awareness and critical thinking.

2. Theoretical framework of Computer–Supported Collaborative Learning and related research field

The field of Computer- Supported Collaborative Learning (CSCL) appears as a specialized direction in the area of communication mediated by technologies. The principal focus of CSCL research is on ways in which collaborative learning supported by the technology can enhance peer interaction in groups and ways in which collaboration and technologies facilitates sharing of knowledge and expertise among different members of community.

The socio-constructivist perspective focuses primarily on human action and interaction in order to understand pedagogical practices: the actions considered as socio-biological dynamic are triggered by physical and symbolic exchanges. Biological functions or neural structures subjacent to all human behavior, including learning and configurations of meaning work together. The structural-biological dimensions of knower take into account the social-cultural environment the technologies are embodied. This aspect recursively shapes the structure of CSCL environments. The approach of socio-cognition goes beyond the idea that knowledge acquisition is a only a treatment of representational information' symbols. Cognition is productive action that promotes structural changes in a Knowledge system by creating new developments and enrichments.

A promising axis of work within CSCL is the scaffolding of productive interactions between learners by specifying in detail the collaboration in scenario scripts considered as set of instructions specifying how the members of the group should interact and collaborate to solve a particular problem.

It's been suggested that to understand the essence of interactivity, one might look back in history to a time before computers and technology in a time when interactive learning was exemplified by the Socratic dialogue between tutors and students. These interactions are dynamics, reciprocal because during a communicative event each part could adapt to the others. Understanding action holistically implies the consideration of logic as the procedures subjacent to meanings and the contents that are the meanings underlining procedures. The study of the dynamics of behaviors depend on the variability of human psychogenetic traits. The cognitive structures that result from the organic brain processes are necessary but not sufficient to explain the emergence of the action in a situation characterized as pedagogical communication. It is through the creative paths of language that cognition unfolds because human actions are not mechanisms that can isolated from the living contexts of the knowing. The interaction with the world implies dynamic symbolic flexibilities that constitute the logical dimensions as well as the semiotic dimensions of knowledge : neuronal system results from the interaction between the subject and the world is an intentional process in which subject all attempts to make sense to content to solve both well and ill- defined problems that require the use of procedures at semiotic levels of meanings.

3. Success of computer collaborative learning research

Success of collaborative learning activities requires generation, transfert and understanding of knowledge that makes collaboration as an essential and highly valued process. Interaction is constructive if it leads to the co- construction or building of meaning, understanding the solution of a problem. An interaction can be constructive to the extent that it contributes to cooperative goal-oriented activities.

Research focused on the analysis of collaborative activities in task-oriented situations (Olson et al., 2008; Carter & Storosten, 1992; Badke-Schaub et al., 2007; Burkhardt, Détiene, Moutsingua-Mpaga, Perron, Leclercq & Safin, 2008; Détiene, Burkhardt, Hébert & Perron, 2008) has highlighted collaborative processes along different dimensions. They can be classified according to their orientation toward design-task processes, group processes or communication processes. Firstly, collaboration concerns the activities related to design activities that imply the elaboration or the search of new solutions and evaluation activities, supported by argumentation and negotiation mechanisms.

These content-oriented activities reveal how the group attain the tasks by sharing and co-elaborating knowledge through the comparison of participants' different perspectives and negotiation of knowledge.

Secondly, collaboration concerns group management activities such as project management and coordination activities that allow the processes of planning and monitoring of tasks.

Thirdly, communication processes are highly important to ensure the construction of a common reference by the groups. The establishment of common ground is a collaborative process (Clark & Brennan, 1991) by which the participants mutually establish what they know, so that task-oriented activities can proceed. Grounding is linked to sharing of information through the representation of the environment, artefacts, the interaction and supposed "pre-existing" shared knowledge. Finally, research on collaboration processes (Baker, Détiene, Lund & Séjourné, 2003; Barcellini, Détiene, Burkhardt & Sack, 2008) considers the roles of participants according to communication, group management and task management and the balance between these roles and learner-centered collaborative approaches. Learner-centered collaborative learning enhance reflexive awareness that facilitate knowledge construction.

4. Social computing application for learning

Social computing applications allow users to communicate and collaborate in diverse ways and in a variety of media, which also helps learners to act together and to build knowledge bases that fit the specific needs. The most common social computing applications relevant for learning will be presented, indicating their potential for enhancing education and training and outlining some obstacles and threats to the implementation in learning settings.

Social computing applications lend themselves to being used as research and knowledge management tools. Tagging and bookmarking services in particular allow teachers and learners to build individual or collective collections of resources, share personally classified bookmarks, recommend, comment and rate sources, and set up reading and resource lists. Tools such as blogs can be used among a group of learners, using their individual blogs, to build up a corpus of interrelated knowledge via posts and comments.

In these and many further cases, social computing tools are used to gather the collective work of a group of students or teachers, empowering the individual participants to become authors of content, but at the same time integrating them into a network of peer reflection and support.

The students appreciate the ease of building up a substantial knowledge base and the collaborative mode of operation. Research indicates furthermore that university students are embracing social computing tools on their own account to support their research network building, personalizing their knowledge and resource management.

In all of these cases, social computing tools are used primarily to replicate reality, tying learning experiences and procedures back to the nature of the subject at study and professional reality. Thus, social computing can on the one hand contribute to overcoming the discrepancies between theoretical training and professional practice by supplying innovative ways of integrating practice into training.

Social computing tools are often employed to make learning material more readily available to students by promoting individual knowledge management strategies, by supplying new research network building tools and allowing for the establishment of personalised knowledge repositories. Research findings indicate that these Learning 2.0 strategies can also contribute to improving learning outcomes.

5. Conclusion

The relationship to the everyday technologies is constantly evolving. The present study is significant in its attempts to draw on different theories to investigate the theoretical framework of Computer Collaborative Learning. The findings indicate that facilitating discourse, reflective thinking, assessment and connectedness contribute to interactions. From the practical perspective, the present study suggests that using multiple medium of instruction enriches the communication context and leads to enhanced learning.

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Artists as Inviting Personalities for Self Exploration and Social Learning at School

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Abstract

In today's increasingly fast-paced societies, undergoing reformation in the aging schooling systems in order to prepare children to subdue the high amounts of pressure and stress and lead productive lives seems to be moving slowly, compared to the unexpected rhythms of the socio-economic changes. In that context a programme has been created at the School of Primary Education, based on the belief that art shouldn't rest only in the frame, but become itself a frame of the children's experiences, a means for self-exploration, enhancing at the same time social learning and cultural responsiveness in schools. At current stage we explore whether and how artists as inviting personalities can become an example to children for building their own identity, while opening widely the borders of relating effectively to others or to life's varied phenomena, as they learn how to communicate the subtleties of who they really are and what they believe in ways that words usually fail to fully capture. Children are asked to choose as a self-companion through their school year an artist, who greatly benefited from the arts' unique power as a tool for shedding light on his/her self-knowledge and for overcoming difficulties as well as a means of fostering meaningful connections with his/her social and cultural environment. Curricular goals and learning units are approached by adapting innovative and effective teaching practices through the arts, based on the life and work of the artists children have chosen.

Keywords: Art History, Learning through the arts, Art Education, Self improvement, Social Inclusion, Cooperation, Mixed ability classes, Art therapy

Introduction: Thoughts before action

"I am enough of an artist to draw freely upon my imagination. Imagination is more important than knowledge. Knowledge is limited. Imagination encircles the world." "Logic will get you from A to Z; imagination will get you everywhere."

Albert Einstein

In today's increasingly fast-paced societies, the reformation of ageing schooling systems in order to prepare children to overcome high pressure and stress and lead productive lives, seems to be moving slowly in comparison with the unexpected rhythms of socio-economic change and technological development. As a result of the headlong rush to follow the curriculum, holistic approaches to learning and creativity are frequently pushed aside while young learners face underachievement, lack of inspiration and an inability to set goals. Feeling underestimated and emotionally disabled, they tend to become chronically discontent. Ironically, this is happening at a time when everything seems possible and neuroscience research is revealing the impressive impact of arts on the cognitive, social and emotional development of young brains (Sousa, 2006).

Every new academic year, debates are launched on how educative practices can become more concrete and effective in the holistic development of young learners as humans, not just 'possible' scientists. Proponents of art education argue that the nature and practices of arts embody intellectual freedom, as well as the unique power to transmit human values, reinforce greater respect for people, eliminate stress, minimise discrimination and break down boundaries. Artistic activities engage all senses and wire brain and soul for successful learning. Moreover, this 'learning' goes far beyond the singular knowledge derived from the various individual subjects. Education through the arts offers a combination of information, skills and thought processes that transcends all areas of human engagement and integrates exceptionally well with most subjects in the core curriculum (Efland, 2002; Newton, 2014). Furthermore, arts play an important role in human development, enhancing the growth of cognitive, emotional and psychomotor pathways. Therefore, educational systems

and practitioners at all levels have an obligation to expose learners to the arts at the earliest possible stage, and to consider their inclusion in the curriculum as fundamental.

According to Vygostki (1991, 1997), teachers can contribute to the enrichment of children's experiences by proposing, involving and enriching activities that broaden their cultural repertoire and contribute to the strengthening of 'superior' psychic functions (self-realisation, self-control, memory, attention, etc.) as well as the development of emotions and of personality. Art is the ground on which our internal and external worlds meet. 'Like other tools, art has the power to extend our capacities beyond those that nature has originally endowed us with. Art compensates us for certain inborn weaknesses, in this case of the mind rather than the body; weaknesses that we can refer to as psychological frailties' (de Botton & Armstrong, 2013, p. 5). Achieving or restoring the psychological balance, art acts as a catalyst in personal development, enabling the long-sought Aristotelian 'catharsis', the release of sentiments, the acquisition of self-knowledge, the surmounting of fears.

All of us involved in art education or education thought the arts and culture can advocate, I believe, that children's indirect or direct engagement with some form of art contributes decisively to their holistic growth. The results would be apparent sooner were art to be covered in schools not as a single-hour subject, but as a means of processing self-cognition, social behaviour and emplacement; as a tool of informal 'soul therapy' as well as one of acquiring academic knowledge (Malchiodi, 2012). As part of a new movement in schools, teachers use classic works of art to inspire students to observe closely, think critically and discuss respectfully key elements of the curriculum. Although such practices let children develop visual literacy, art is not meant just to be read as we read words. In order to attempt an innovative approach to children's lives (personal-social-cultural) with the aid of arts, children need to feel, experience and be inspired in open-ended artistic-educational interchanges. From the very first day of introductions in the classroom they should be given the opportunity to explore, through artistic means, elements of their character they never imagined existed, thereby getting to know themselves as well as their classmates. Each proposed artistic task should acquire a meaning which, because of the emotional involvement it allows, can contribute to their development of different capabilities that are also appropriate to social dynamics (Duarte, 1993).

Objectives and Methodology

Within the framework of a new approach to acquainting children with one another in the classroom and finding out each student's abilities, disabilities, sentiments, thoughts and beliefs, a programme was created at the School of Primary Education (Aristotle University of Thessaloniki, Faculty of Education, Greece). It was based on the belief that art should not rest only in the frame, but become itself a frame of the children's experiences as a means of self-exploration, simultaneously enhancing social learning and cultural responsiveness in schools.

The project is quite new, having been running for only a few months of the academic year 2016-17. It has been carried out in two regions, involving 50 children in their final year (6th grade) of primary school. In order to achieve a 'safe' research result reflecting the situation in the country as a whole and taking individual differences into consideration, the intention is to extend the project to several other areas and age groups during the current academic/school year (2017-18) at least, and to promote interdisciplinary connections between the Faculty of Education's undergraduate students and children in primary schools. Interaction will be enabled by employing multiple ways of communicating experiences and knowledge, and by creating and critically using multicultural pedagogic tools as well as our interactive Cleo @rtplatform (an innovative online educational platform that contributes to the dissemination of knowledge in arts and culture).

At this stage our aim is to explore whether and how artists as appealing personalities can become models for children in the process of building their own identity, widening access to ways of relating effectively to others and to life's varied phenomena as the children learn how to communicate the subtleties of who they really are and what they believe in, in ways that words usually fail to fully capture. By emphasising and examining the role of art in children's lives, instead of just looking for the aesthetic value of works of art, the project aspires to foster self-exploration and develop reflective social practices, beliefs and values that children feel close to or regard as being of great influence (Duncum, 1996, 2002; Freedman & Stuhr, 2004).

A variety of artists were chosen as alternative sources of inspiration—as appealing personalities who preferred to use their creativity and imagination to handle life's ups and downs. For many artists, like Matisse, Kahlo, Tapies and Beethoven, art became their refuge and in various ways a release for their sentiments and beliefs. Words gave space to lines, form and

colour, and an alternative ‘therapy’, not always consciously chosen, was employed through the empowerment of creativity and self-exploration. Struggle, passion and patience fought mediocrity and led finally to exposure and greatness. Thus, as inspiring models, artists can compel, educate and communicate ideas to children in ways that are more joyful, understandable and descriptive than words alone. By adopting artists as models, the emphasis is not on the excellence of their work but on their willingness to explore themselves, to overcome their ‘difficulties’ and set goals through art, but not only in art. Children more than anyone need creative types who will pick them up and dust them off when life gets tough. Even though today’s societies are excessively focused on the external, art and artists can help children to explore, cultivate and honour their inner world. Artists express themselves in a universal ‘language’ unconventionally. For them, mistakes are the pathways to discovery, and patience the linchpin of their creativity. Genius takes time and artists pursue their passion as an end in itself, without ensuring reward or recognition. Children, as a result of their innate artistic sensibility, can draw lessons from artists on cultivating curiosity, finding beauty everywhere, handling criticism and socialising in alternative ways. One of the biggest lessons that art can offer children is how to resonate with their classmates, whether they are going through a pleasurable or traumatic experience, are extremely skilful or facing difficulties; in other words, they can learn to empathise, which might be more beneficial than any other knowledge. In real life, problems can often have more than one solution, and the artistic experience can teach children to explore deep into their souls, shed light on their inner darkness, express their emotions and use their judgment (Eisner, 2002).

In order to achieve a holistic approach the case study, the ideal method according to Yin (2008), was chosen as the main methodology for this research. At this first stage, the initial reactions of children and relevant observations highlighting the value of art in self-cognition were captured and analysed. The project also sought to underscore the usefulness of a rounded acquisition of self-, social, cultural and academic knowledge through the arts.

Particular sensitivity was shown in matters of inter- and multi-cultural orientation, given the range of ethnic and cultural origin in the classrooms. To ensure effectiveness, special care was taken in selecting artists across cultures, diversifying instructions and explanations for children whom we divided up into small, mixed groups, setting various goals and presenting cross-cultural models, and in the artistic/cultural freedom deployed by children during their self-presentations.

The data collected is significant and helpful in terms of allowing more careful observation and making relevant changes to the pedagogical scenario. Nevertheless, in order to interpret the results *in situ* and proceed to a generalised conclusion, the gathering of data [observational field notes, artworks, videos, wiki results and questionnaires in three phases—introductory, mid-assessment, final evaluation] from all those involved will continue during this academic year, involving more participants and establishing closer connections between the work done in the classrooms and in the university labs.

By the end of the project, and before setting out our final proposals for what changes can and should be promoted in the school curriculum according to the results of this study, a parallel analysis of the educational material—mainly textbooks—used in primary education is needed in order to investigate the links with art and cultural images, the conceptions they offer about various types of artistic and cultural expression, and the suggestions they propose for their use in fostering children’s self-cognition and social development.

The basics of the approach

Children were invited to discover themselves through various artistic modes of expression and to communicate their feelings, thoughts and beliefs. To ignite their creativity the project encouraged them to explore the life and oeuvre of various artists, to be inspired by them but not to set as their goal the aim of becoming like ‘one of them’. On the contrary, they were encouraged to free their souls and expressive abilities and find their real selves. The approach followed adheres to Picasso’s idea of creativity and innovation, expressed briefly in his famous quote: ‘*When I was a child my mother said to me, “If you become a soldier, you’ll be a general. If you become a monk, you’ll be the pope.” Instead I became a painter and wound up as Picasso.*’

The project was organised around five basic phases, as follows:

Double self-portrait /self-cognition, face1

The instructor/ teacher showed the class Pablo Picasso’s *Girl before a mirror* (1932, MoMA) and posed a clever, stimulating question to engage students in discussion about the intriguing image and spark inquiries about their inner and outer selves, self-portraits, psychographic portraits etc., in order to operationalise the challenge.

An explanatory link along with a photocopy of a short analysis of the painting was offered to each student (MoMA URL https://www.moma.org/momaorg/shared/pdfs/docs/publication_pdf/3153/Picasso_PREVIEW.pdf?1353958988).

Next, students were invited to introduce themselves to the class non-verbally, avoiding common first-day introduction tactics, tree charts, etc. They were asked to produce a double self-portrait in an attempt to express their inner–outer identity. Various media were available and a short video of various artists' psychographic self-portraits shown in order to mark the starting point of the activity.

Suggestions were offered—where needed—on how to split their faces into two, reflecting the inner and outer self: the way they feel and the way they believe they look. They were also given the freedom to construct their inner side by including things that they like and the thoughts and feelings that best describe them.



Fig. 1-3

Muse month

Working in small groups, the children were asked to search for information about one of the nine muses and to present their findings to the rest of the class in an imaginative and artistic way. They were then asked to make a puppet of their muse and to use it as their *deus ex machina*. The challenge was to respond as a group to all school activities and exercises, for a whole month, by monitoring, expressing and overcoming the difficulties they face inspired by their muse and the arts she nurtures. Experiences and artworks were exchanged on a wiki and at the end of the month each group story had to present their experience as a cartoon story or short film.

Main objectives:

- To serve as a threshold to the children's sensitisation and initiate creative thinking and problem solving through the arts
- To explore the expressive possibilities that arts can offer
- To cultivate creativity, imagination and critical thinking
- To stimulate psychokinetic development
- To learn to respect others through experience
- To encourage the expression of emotions.

Talent takes time

First, the concept of multiple interpretations was applied in the classroom to the oeuvre and personality, abilities and disabilities, beliefs, feelings, etc. of world-renowned artists. The selected artists were considered intriguing and appealing personalities, who revealed their difficulties in public as well as the benefits they enjoyed by becoming artistically active and creative.

Following on from these kinds of multiple 'diagnoses', in small groups the children then had to choose an artist and construct his/her profile by focusing on his/her work, life, diaries, theories and thoughts.

Each group was given ten days to organise a small exhibition on the artist's work and persona, indicating the special role art had played in his/her self-cognition, social emplacement, development and maturity. The children were expected to recognise and demonstrate how art had become both the artists' refuge as well as their Trojan horse.

Material on offer for each artist in the list included a selection of self-portraits and key artworks, a collection of his/her thoughts or writings, a short biography, web links and videos associated with his/her artworks.

Talking about these artists, their goals and artworks encouraged children not just to gain cultural knowledge but to look carefully, explore closely, distinguish, analyse, explain and meditate (Leinhardt & Knutson, 2004; Pringle, 2006).

Step into my shoes

Children were asked to choose as a self-companion through their school year, an artist who greatly benefited from the arts' unique power as a tool for shedding light on his/her self-knowledge and for overcoming difficulties as well as fostering meaningful connections with his/her social and cultural environment. Curricular goals and learning units were approached from that point onwards by adapting innovative and effective teaching practices through the arts, based on the life and work of the artists the children had chosen.

Activities 3 and 4 were aimed at, among other artistic and emotional goals, helping the children to:

Develop their emotional intelligence and empathise with others in various situations

Explore 'greatness' from a different point of view and understand that 'talent' is a privilege open to all individuals

Conceive that each person expresses his/her sentiments in different ways

Realise the importance of the arts as a means of expression as well as a 'therapy' tool

Limit negative thoughts and quick judgments.

Self-presentation, face 2

At the end of the project, the children were challenged to portray themselves for a second time and to capture as many parameters of their personality in any way they preferred (through painting or other artistic media).

Stage 1 double-face self-portraits and stage 2 self-presentations were exhibited together and analysed in the classroom, focusing on the role that art played in their development.

Artworks, thoughts and interactions were uploaded by the children onto the Cleo @rtplatform, in a special area designed for this project.

Reactions and first evaluation- results

Interim outcomes at this stage of the project showed an improved classroom climate, the restoration of students' good opinion and attitudes towards learning and significant development in their social-emotional skills. Intrigued at participating in activities that engaged the various senses simultaneously and empathetically, the children came to realise by experience rather than in theory that the arts are not just expressive and affective but are also deeply cognitive. They admitted that before participating in the project they rated works of art in a museum as highly creative, but paid less attention or gave little credit to the creativity, innovation or greatness of a classmate's artistic work. Now, they felt that they had an almost deeper perception of what they were seeing, without preconceptions. Moreover, many confessed that they had never appreciated that their artistic work or artistic expression was a means of self-manifestation. With only a few exceptions, most children believed that their expressionistic abilities and skills had expanded. They were excited to find and experiment with these skills that related to more than art alone, applying them to the way they understood the world, saw other people and absorbed their lessons (Posner, Rothbart, Sheese, & Kieras, 2009).

Even though the project was quite new and that there had been little time to participate regularly in various forms of art, quite a few children noticed a clear correlation between art and other achievements. For example, some of them who studied music and felt that they had a flair for mathematics and geometry, felt close to artists such as Klee and Kandinsky who had succeeded in both fields.

To sum up the findings of the informal first evaluation, we wish to underscore that the children had:

communicated effectively and learnt to work with diverse people

cultivated their capacity to notice, observe and then reflect on thoughts and behaviours in order to make more conscious choices

learnt to honour difference and foster meaningful connections within themselves and between each other, their schoolwork, and their world

found suitable channels for expression and communication of feelings by exploring and articulating their needs through non-verbal language

shown greater capacity to reveal their imagination

felt motivated to engage in classroom activities when given opportunities to express their authentic selves and the skills to communicate

felt valued and accepted and thus had become less inhibited in their engagement with artworks.

Conclusion: Implications and Concerns

Old and insufficient educational systems today that lack the capacity to innovate, need to adapt to new findings regarding cognition and student learning. It is clear from the most recent research outcomes that 'pretty few curricula written for educators focus on art as a media, a non-verbal language' (Sleeter & Delgado Bernal, 2004), and it is both unfortunate and frustrating that today things have changed little. Recognising and admitting that the soul of education is threatened is not enough. All of us involved in one way or another in art education have been criticised for suffering from what Aristotle calls *akrasia*, weakness of the will to speak up, in this case to foster bolder decisions and structural change in the hierarchy of education. Assuming our responsibility, it is high time that we focused on setting alight this small but so significant glow called creativity. This can be accomplished in a variety of ways, arts being one of them. Children who are given the opportunity to express their imagination freely become an asset to the entire world.

Stimulating and fostering creativity through the arts supports children to express warmth, compassion and care, and to cultivate connections with their classmates and other people, and helps to build trusting, safe and inclusive learning communities. More specifically, by increasing children's sense of self-perception and self-awareness, we reinforce social-emotional and character development as the fundamental denominator on which to cultivate their academic knowledge.

At this stage of the research project we have focused on how to motivate children, from the very first day, to express themselves through a non-verbal form of communication that feeds into their natural inclinations, with the outcomes of which calling for continued research attention. We need, however, to prevent further casualties of virtual learning by giving children increasing opportunities to create deep and meaningful personal experiences, as well as enhance mutual understanding in the classroom. It is important and necessary to expand this study and further examine whether the praxis of self-cognition and learning through the arts has the potential to become a generator of social understanding and a key to radical changes in educational systems that tend to a holistic approach to life knowledge.

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Figures 1-3: Examples of double self-portraits created by children involved in the project.

Application of Change of Basis in the Simplex Method

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Abstract

The simplex method is a very useful method to solve linear programming problems. It gives us a systematic way of examining the vertices of the feasible region to determine the optimal value of the objective function. It is executed by performing elementary row operations on a matrix that we call the simplex tableau. It is an iterative method that by repeated use gives us the solution to any n variable linear programming model. In this paper, we apply the change of basis to construct following simplex tableaus without applying elementary row operations on the initial simplex tableau.

Keywords: change of basis, linear programming, simplex method, optimization, linear algebra

1 Introduction

In the summer of 1947, George B. Dantzig started to work on the simplex method for solving linear programs. The linear programming problem is to find

$$\min z, \mathbf{x} \geq 0 \text{ such that } A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}, c\mathbf{x} = z_{min}$$

where $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$, A is an m by n matrix, and \mathbf{b} and \mathbf{c} are column and row vectors [1].

He presented in his work titled "Maximization of a linear function of variables subject to linear inequalities" the details of the simplex method by means of linear algebra [2]. The significance of this work lies in showing that we can do something about finding an optimal solution if such one exists. This method allows us to compute the optimal solution. Two issues in the simplex method are of great importance: First, with the simplex method we can obtain a basic feasible solution with which to start the computation and second, the simplex method ensures that the algorithm finishes in a finite number of steps either with an optimal solution or with the conclusion that there is no optimal solution [3].

2 Basis and coordinates^[4]

Let V be a vector space and let $B = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$ be a set of vectors in V . B forms a basis for V if the following two conditions hold:

1. B is linearly independent.
2. B spans V .

If $B = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$ is a basis for V , then every vector $\mathbf{x} \in V$ can be expressed uniquely as a linear combination of $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$.

$$\mathbf{x} = y_1\mathbf{v}_1 + y_2\mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + y_n\mathbf{v}_n \quad (1)$$

Theorem 1.: If $B = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$ is a basis for a vector space V , then every vector \mathbf{x} in V can be written in one and only one way as a linear combination of vectors in B .

Proof 1.: Suppose there are two sets of coefficients for \mathbf{x} .

$$\mathbf{x} = k_1\mathbf{v}_1 + k_2\mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + k_n\mathbf{v}_n \quad (2)$$

and also

$$\mathbf{x} = l_1\mathbf{v}_1 + l_2\mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + l_n\mathbf{v}_n \quad (3)$$

Subtracting the two expressions for \mathbf{x} gives

$$\mathbf{0} = (k_1 - l_1)\mathbf{v}_1 + (k_2 - l_2)\mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + (k_n - l_n)\mathbf{v}_n \quad (4)$$

Since $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$ is linearly independent, so the coefficients in this expression must vanish:

$$(k_1 - l_1) = 0 \text{ implies } k_1 = l_1$$

$$(k_2 - l_2) = 0 \text{ implies } k_2 = l_2$$

...

$$(k_n - l_n) = 0 \text{ implies } k_n = l_n \tag{5}$$

Therefore, the coefficients k_1, k_2, \dots, k_n are unique as claimed.

Definition 1.: The coordinates of a vector x in a vector space V with respect to a basis $B = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$ are those coefficients (y_i) which uniquely express x as linear combination of the basis vectors.

$$x = y_1 v_1 + y_2 v_2 + \dots + y_n v_n = y_{1j} v_{1j} + y_{2j} v_{2j} + \dots + y_{nj} v_{nj} \tag{6}$$

These coefficients y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n are called the coordinates of x relative to the basis $(y_i \in \mathbb{R})$. The coordinate matrix (or coordinate vector) of relative to B is the column matrix in \mathbb{R}^n whose components are the coordinates of x .

$$[x]_B = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \dots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} y_{1j} \\ y_{2j} \\ \dots \\ y_{nj} \end{bmatrix} \tag{7}$$

In Figure 1, two coordinate systems in the plane are displayed:

- coordinate plane xy
- coordinate plane $x'y'$

Every coordinate system is defined by a basis.

- The standard coordinate system is defined by the standard basis:

$$S = (e_1, e_2) = \{(1,0), (0,1)\} \tag{8}$$

- The dashed coordinate system (non-standard) is defined by the basis:

$$B = (u_1, u_2) = \{(3,2), (-2,1)\} \tag{9}$$

In Figure 2, the vector $u = (1,3)$ has standard coordinates $x = 1$ and $y = 3$.

If we use the dashed coordinate system (non-standard), whose coordinate axes are labelled x' and y' ; the dashed coordinates of u are $x' = 1$ and $y' = 1$.

3 Change of Basis^[4]

If we are provided with the coordinate matrix of a vector relative to one basis B and are asked to find the coordinate matrix of the vector relative to another basis B' , we have to apply the procedure of change of basis. This is shown in Example 1.

Example 1.: Find the coordinate matrix of $x = \{1, -2, -1\}$ in \mathbb{R}^3 relative to non-standard basis $B' = (u_1, u_2, u_3) = \{(0,0, -1), (1,3, -1), (2,1,1)\}$.

Solution 1.: First, x is written as a linear combination of u_1, u_2, u_3 .

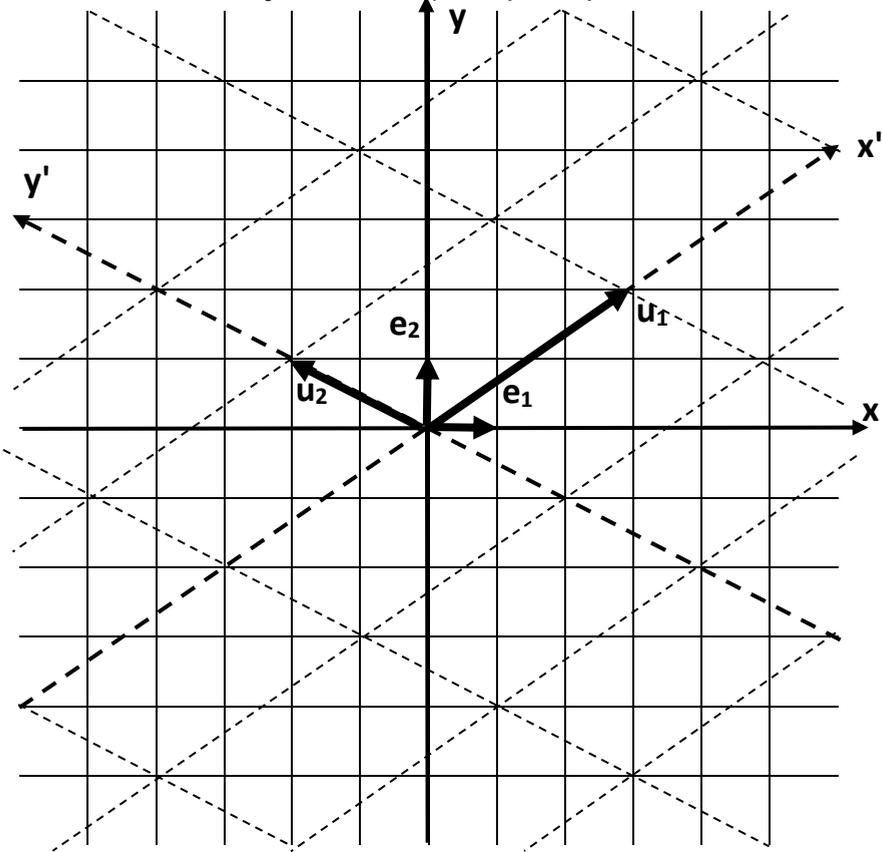
$$x = y_1 u_1 + y_2 u_2 + y_3 u_3 \tag{10}$$

$$(1, -2, -1) = y_1(0,0, -1) + y_2(1,3, -1) + y_3(2,1,1) \tag{11}$$

Then, the following system of linear equations is obtained.

$$\begin{aligned} y_2 + 2y_3 &= 1 \\ 3y_2 + y_3 &= -2 \\ -y_1 - y_2 + y_3 &= -1 \end{aligned} \tag{12}$$

Figure 1: Coordinate planes xy and $x'y'$



This can be written in matrix form $P \cdot [x]_{B'} = [x]_B$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 3 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \tag{13}$$

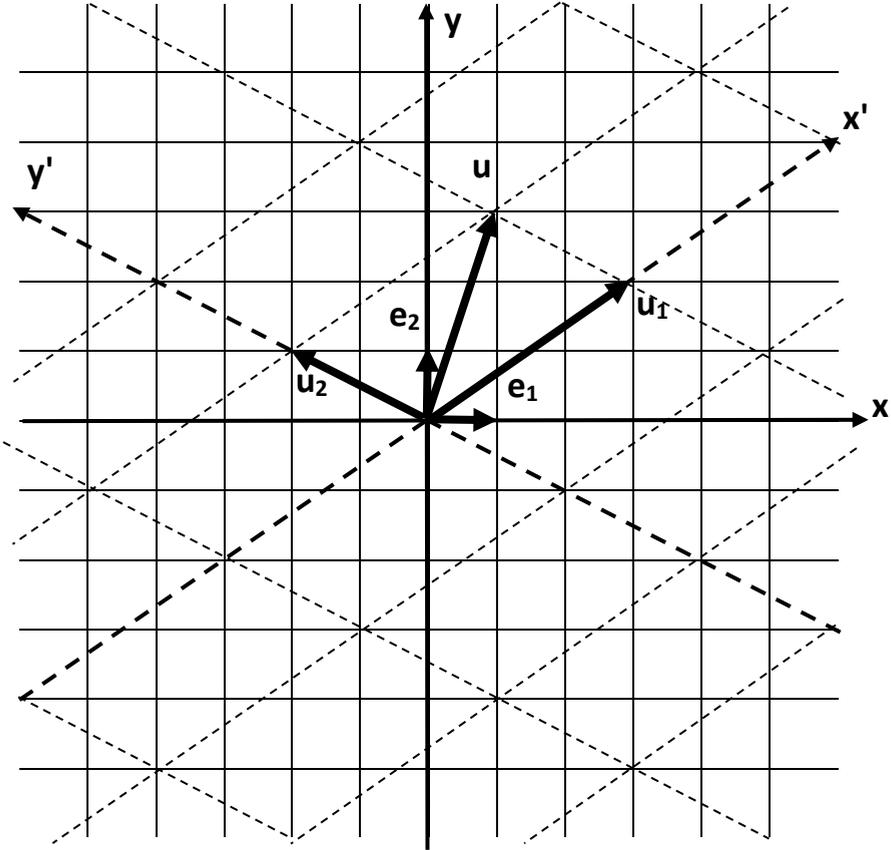
Where P is the transition matrix from B' to B , $[x]_{B'}$ is the coordinate matrix of x relative to the basis B' and $[x]_B$ is the coordinate matrix of x relative to the basis B . (13) shows the change of basis from B' to B .

$[x]_{B'}$ can be found by $[x]_{B'} = P^{-1} \cdot [x]_B$

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 3 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \tag{14}$$

Where P^{-1} is the transition matrix from B to B' . So the solution of the system given in (12) is $y_1 = 3$, $y_2 = -1$ and $y_3 = 1$, so the coordinate matrix of x relative to B' is

Figure 2: Vector u in both coordinate systems



$$[x]_{B'} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \tag{15}$$

Theorem 2: Let $B = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$ and $B' = \{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n\}$ be two ordered bases for \mathbb{R}^n . Then the transition matrix P^{-1} from B to B' can be found by using Gauss-Jordan elimination on the matrix $[B': B]$ as follows:

$$[B': B] \rightarrow [I_n: P^{-1}] \tag{16}$$

Example 2. shows an application of (16).

Example 2: Find the transition matrix from B to B' for the following bases in \mathbb{R}^3 .

$B = \{(1,0,0), (0,1,0), (0,0,1)\}$ and $B' = \{(1,-1,0), (-2,1,2), (1,-1,-1)\}$

Solution 2: First, B and B' are written in matrix form.

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } B' = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 2 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \tag{17}$$

The matrix $[B': B]$ is formed and Gauss-Jordan Elimination is used to rewrite $[B': B]$ as $[I_n: P^{-1}]$.

$$\begin{aligned}
 [B':B] &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \dots \\
 [I_n:P^{-1}] &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -2 & -2 & -1 \end{bmatrix}
 \end{aligned} \tag{18}$$

Transition matrix from B to B' is then

$$P^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 & 0 \\ -2 & -2 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \tag{19}$$

4 Application

The simplex method is a very useful method to solve linear programming problems. It gives us a systematic way of examining the vertices of the feasible region to determine the optimal value of the objective function. It is executed by performing elementary row operations on a matrix that we call the simplex tableau. This tableau consists of augmented matrix corresponding to the constraint equations together with the coefficients of the objective function written in the form

$$c_1x_1 + c_2x_2 + \dots + c_nx_n + 0 \cdot s_1 + 0 \cdot s_2 + \dots + 0 \cdot s_m - z = 0 \tag{20}$$

In this paper, we apply the change of basis to construct following simplex tableaus without applying elementary row operations on the initial simplex tableau.

Example 3.: $z_{max} = 2x_1 + x_2 + 3x_3$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{s.t.} \quad & x_1 + 2x_2 \leq 8 \\
 & x_1 + x_2 + 2x_3 \leq 12 \\
 & x_1, x_2, x_3 \geq 0
 \end{aligned} \tag{21}$$

Solution 3.: $z_{max} = 2x_1 + x_2 + 3x_3 + 0 \cdot s_1 + 0 \cdot s_2$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{s.t.} \quad & x_1 + 2x_2 + 0 \cdot x_3 + 1 \cdot s_1 + 0 \cdot s_2 = 8 \\
 & x_1 + x_2 + 2 \cdot x_3 + 0 \cdot s_1 + 1 \cdot s_2 = 12 \\
 & x_1, x_2, x_3, s_1, s_2 \geq 0
 \end{aligned} \tag{22}$$

Table 1: Initial simplex tableau

c_B	BASIC VARIABLES	c_j	2	1	3	0	0	
		x_B	x_1	x_2	x_3	s_1	s_2	
0	s_1	8	1	2	0	1	0	
0	s_2	12	1	1	2	0	1	MIN RATIO
	z_j	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	$z_j - c_j$	----	-2	-1	-3	0	0	
					MIN			

Coefficient vectors of x_1, x_2, x_3, s_1, s_2 are respectively

$$\mathbf{a}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{a}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{a}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{a}_4 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{a}_5 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \tag{23}$$

In the initial simplex tableau in Table 1, the coefficient vectors that are in the basis B are

$$\mathbf{a}_4 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{a}_5 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \tag{24}$$

$B = (\mathbf{a}_4, \mathbf{a}_5)$ (Basis of the initial simplex tableau)

In the initial simplex tableau, the pivot column is the coefficient vector of x_3 , namely \mathbf{a}_3 . The coefficients in the pivot column are the coordinates of \mathbf{a}_3 relative to the basis B .

After pivoting in the initial simplex tableau, we decided that s_2 is leaving the solution as x_3 is entering the solution. In the second simplex tableau, the coefficient vectors that are in the ordered basis B' are

$$\mathbf{a}_4 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{a}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \tag{25}$$

$B' = (\mathbf{a}_4, \mathbf{a}_3)$ (Basis of the second simplex tableau)

Without applying elementary row operations on the initial simplex tableau, we apply the change of basis to construct the second tableau. To get the transition matrix P^{-1} , the matrix $[B':B]$ is formed and Gauss-Jordan Elimination is used to rewrite $[B':B]$ as $[I_n:P^{-1}]$.

$$[B':B] = \left[\begin{array}{cc|cc} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] \dots$$

$$[I_n:P^{-1}] = \left[\begin{array}{cc|cc} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1/2 \end{array} \right] \tag{26}$$

Transition matrix from B to B' is then

$$P^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix} \tag{27}$$

To construct the second tableau in Table 2, we multiply the augmented matrix in the initial tableau with the transition matrix when the basis is changing from B to B' . So we get the augmented matrix of the second tableau

$$P^{-1} \cdot \text{AUGMENTED MATRIX} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 12 & 1 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} =$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 6 & 1/2 & 1/2 & 1 & 0 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix} \tag{28}$$

Table 2: Second simplex tableau

c_B	BASIC	c_j	2	1	3	0	0	
	VARIABLES	x_B	x_1	x_2	x_3	s_1	s_2	
0	s_1	8	1	2	0	1	0	MIN RATIO
3	x_3	6	1/2	1/2	1	0	1/2	
	z_j	18	3/2	3/2	3	0	3/2	
	$z_j - c_j$	----	-1/2	1/2	0	0	3/2	
			MIN					

Recall that in the initial simplex tableau the coefficients in the pivot column are the coordinates of \mathbf{a}_3 relative to the basis B . But for the second simplex tableau we have another basis B' . The coefficient vector of x_3 in the second simplex tableau gives us the coordinates of \mathbf{a}_3 relative to the basis B' .

First, \mathbf{a}_3 is written as a linear combination of \mathbf{a}_4 and \mathbf{a}_3 .

$$(0,2) = c_1(1,0) + c_2(0,2) \tag{29}$$

Then, the following system of linear equations is obtained.

$$c_1 = 0$$

$$2c_2 = 2 \tag{30}$$

We can see that

$$\begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \tag{31}$$

So $[a_3]_{B'}$ is

$$[a_3]_{B'} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \tag{32}$$

The same holds for the coefficient vectors of x_1, x_2, s_1 and s_2 as well.

After pivoting in the second simplex tableau, we decided that s_1 is departing from the solution as x_1 is entering the solution. In the third simplex tableau, the coefficient vectors that are in the ordered basis B'' are

$$a_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad a_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \tag{33}$$

$B'' = (a_1, a_3)$ (Basis of the third simplex tableau)

Without applying elementary row operations on the second simplex tableau, we apply the change of basis to construct the third tableau. To get the transition matrix $P^{(-1)}$, the matrix $[B'' : B']$ is formed and Gauss-Jordan Elimination is used to rewrite $[B'' : B']$ as $[I_n : P^{(-1)}]$.

$$\begin{aligned} [B'' : B'] &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \dots \\ [I_n : P^{(-1)}] &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1/2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned} \tag{34}$$

Transition matrix from B' to B'' is then

$$P^{(-1)} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1/2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \tag{35}$$

To construct the third tableau in Table 3, we multiply the augmented matrix in the second tableau with the transition matrix when the basis is changing from B' to B'' . So we get the augmented matrix of the third tableau

$$\begin{aligned} P^{(-1)} \cdot \text{AUGMENTED MATRIX} &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1/2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 6 & 1/2 & 1/2 & 1 & 0 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix} = \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & -1/2 & 1 & -1/2 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned} \tag{36}$$

In the third tableau there are no negative elements in the bottom row $z_j - c_j$. So the optimal solution is 22 monetary units (subsequently referred to as m.u.).

$$(x_1, x_2, x_3, s_1, s_2) = (8, 0, 2, 0, 0) \tag{37}$$

$$z_{max} = 2x_1 + x_2 + 3x_3 = 2 \cdot 8 + 1 \cdot 0 + 3 \cdot 2 = 22 \text{ m.u.} \tag{38}$$

Table 3: Third (optimal) simplex tableau

c_B	BASIC	c_j	2	1	3	0	0
	VARIABLES	x_B	x_1	x_2	x_3	s_1	s_2
2	x_1	8	1	2	0	1	0
3	x_3	2	0	-1/2	1	-1/2	1/2
	z_j	22	2	5/2	3	1/2	3/2
	$z_j - c_j$	----	0	3/2	0	1/2	3/2

		NO NEGATIVE ELEMENTS IN $z_j - c_j$
--	--	--

Recall that in the initial simplex tableau the coefficients in the pivot column are the coordinates of \mathbf{a}_3 relative to the basis B . But for the third simplex tableau we have another basis B'' . The coefficient vector of x_3 in the third simplex tableau gives us the coordinates of \mathbf{a}_3 relative to the basis B'' .

First, \mathbf{a}_3 is written as a linear combination of \mathbf{a}_1 and \mathbf{a}_3 .

$$(0,2) = c_1(1,1) + c_2(0,2) \tag{39}$$

Then, the following system of linear equations is obtained.

$$\begin{aligned} c_1 &= 0 \\ c_1 + 2c_2 &= 2 \end{aligned} \tag{40}$$

We can see that

$$\begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \tag{41}$$

So $[\mathbf{a}_3]_{B''}$ is

$$[\mathbf{a}_3]_{B''} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \tag{42}$$

The same holds for the coefficient vectors of x_1, x_2, s_1 and s_2 as well.

5 Economic interpretation of the coordinate vectors in the optimal simplex tableau

The optimal simplex tableau in Table 3 shows that 8 units of x_1 and 2 units of x_3 should be produced to get 22 m.u. x_2 is a nonbasic variable which means that no unit of x_2 should be produced.

Let \mathbf{y}_2 be the coordinate vector of \mathbf{a}_2 relative to the basis B'' in the optimal simplex tableau. So \mathbf{y}_2 is

$$\mathbf{y}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1/2 \end{bmatrix} = [\mathbf{a}_2]_{B''} \tag{43}$$

and we can obtain \mathbf{a}_2 by

$$B''\mathbf{y}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1/2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{a}_2 \tag{44}$$

\mathbf{a}_2 can be represented by a linear combination of \mathbf{a}_1 and \mathbf{a}_3 .

$$\mathbf{a}_2 = 2\mathbf{a}_1 - \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{a}_3 \tag{45}$$

(45) tells us how much more or less we should produce of x_1 and x_3 if we want to produce one unit of x_2 .

In the simplex algorithm basic variables can be represented by

$$\mathbf{x}_B = (B)^{-1}\mathbf{b} - \sum_{j \in J} [\mathbf{y}_j]x_j \tag{46}$$

where J is the set of the indices of the nonbasic variables [5]. Therefore we can get

$$\frac{\partial x_B}{\partial x_j} = -\mathbf{y}_j \tag{47}$$

where $(-\mathbf{y}_j)$ shows the rate of change of the basic variables as a function of the nonbasic variable x_j . If we increase x_j by one unit, the i th basic variable x_{Bi} should be decreased by an amount y_{ij} . This can be expressed by

$$\frac{\partial x_{Bi}}{\partial x_j} = -y_{ij} \tag{48}$$

Going back to Example 3, we have

$$\frac{\partial x_B}{\partial x_2} = -\mathbf{y}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -y_{12} \\ -y_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1/2 \end{bmatrix} \tag{49}$$

(49) tells us that if we want to produce one unit of x_2 we should decrease the production of x_1 by 2 units and increase the production of x_3 by $\frac{1}{2}$ unit. Substituting these values for x_1, x_2 and x_3 in the constraints of Example 3, we see that

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 + 2x_2 &\leq 8 \Rightarrow (8 - 2) + 2 \cdot 1 = 8 \\ x_1 + x_2 + 2x_3 &\leq 12 \Rightarrow (8 - 2) + 1 + 2(2 + 1/2) = 12 \end{aligned} \tag{50}$$

are satisfied in equality. But if we substitute these values in the objective function we see that

$$z_{max} = 2x_1 + x_2 + 3x_3 = 2(8 - 2) + 1 \cdot 1 + 3(2 + 1/2) = 41/2 \text{ m.u.} \tag{51}$$

gives us less profit than before. To make the same profit as before, we should increase the marginal profit of x_2 . By using the trick $z_j = c_j + (z_j - c_j)$ we can calculate how much the new marginal profit of x_2 should be to make the same profit as before

$$z_2 = c_2 + (z_2 - c_2) = 1 + 3/2 = 5/2 \text{ m.u.} \tag{52}$$

(52) tells us that the marginal profit should be $5/2$ m.u. to make the same profit as before because

$$z_{max} = 2x_1 + 5/2x_2 + 3x_3 = 2(8 - 2) + 5/2 \cdot 1 + 3(2 + 1/2) = 22 \text{ m.u.} \tag{53}$$

6 Conclusion

Every time the simplex algorithm calculates the next tableau, coefficient matrix of the original standard problem is multiplied by the inverse of the basis matrix of the actual tableau by using the formula $B^{-1}\mathbf{a}_j = \mathbf{y}_j$. This paper shows that the next tableau can be calculated by multiplying the transition matrix by the actual augmented matrix by using the formula $P^{-1}\mathbf{y}_j = \mathbf{y}'_j$.

In each tableau, the coordinate vector of a variable gives us the coordinates relative to the actual basis. In this paper, we made an economic interpretation of that coordinate vector.

7 Acknowledgements

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Instructional Design Model for Applying Flipped Learning in Higher Education Institutions

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Abstract

The era of globalization, growth and development of information and communication technology (ICT) and its application to learning and teaching has influence on our modern generation students, making the teaching traditional methods are useless. Changing familiar instructing methods can be a challenge available for instructors as a way to ignite our students' curiosity and make our teaching materials more engaging and effective. Recently, the flipped learning model has been recognized by educators as an effective instructional approach (Hwang, & Wang 2015), it is a pedagogical approach in which the typical lecture and activities elements of a course are reversed, where students individually watch online lectures prior to class and then engage in classroom learning activities interacting with peers and instructors. Flipped learning model helps instructor to focus more on student-centered learning, which includes any use of the technology to take advantage of learning in the classroom, so that the instructor can spend more time interacting with the students instead of lecturing. The purpose of this study is to suggest instructional design (ID) model for teaching undergraduate courses applying the flipped learning model. Research on ID models may be classified into three different types: model development, model validation, and model use. This study concerned the first one of these, and it is based on the ADDIE, Dick and Carey model. The process begins with planning, followed by programming, then Coaching. Assessing and evaluating occur continually throughout the process and act as valuable mechanisms for monitoring progress and identifying achievement. At each stage of the process, instructors base their decisions on the requirements of the course curriculum, and, equally importantly, on their students' needs.

Keywords: Flipped Learning, Flipped Classroom, Flipped Pillars, Information Communication Technology (ICT), Instructional Design (ID).

Introduction

Information Communication technologies play a more important role in the early part of the 21st century than they have ever done before. There are a number of reasons for this. Technology is taking its rightful place in the society now, in the workplace, education, and home. In fact, the changes that are taking place all around us are due to the prevalence of technology in our environment. Information communication technologies are helping people to work faster, more intelligently, more efficiently and more productively than ever before (Collins, & Halverson, 2010). However, the effect of the new technologies in our educational institutions is not as profound as it might be; there are still very many instructors who are uncomfortable in the ICT controlled environment (Marshall, & Ruohonen, 2013; Inan, & Lowther, 2010; Collins, & Halverson, 2010). They prefer to use the traditional teaching aids even when multimedia application would be enjoyable and more effective class-teaching means. They still convinced that they are the only major source of knowledge and they are not admitting that instructors in modern classrooms are no longer lecturers, they are facilitators. They need to teach their learners how to gain information and how to select and use them. They need to implement student-centered learning approaches in their instruction (McCarthy, 2015). In addition, because "the whole education system is moving towards a better support of individual abilities and self-directed play a much bigger role than in the past" (Marshall, & Ruohonen, 2013), they need to create a learning environment that supports individuals to learn what they need to know or to do. They need to integrate technology in their instructional design and classroom, just knowing how to use a computer and technology hardware is not enough. Instead, as Ertmer & Ottenbreit (2010) said:

Teaching with technology requires instructors to expand their knowledge of pedagogical practices across multiple aspects of the planning, implementation, and evaluation processes. (Ertmer & Ottenbreit 2010, p. 264)

Higher Education institutions are facing the pressures from globalization and the development of information and communication technology (ICT), which demand experience with technology, different skills, and a different learning experience. These demands place higher education institutions in a difficult position, and to a certain extent they are forced to explore new delivery modes that accommodate learner needs in the 21st century. However, changing familiar teaching methods can be a challenge available for instructors as a way to ignite our students' curiosity and make our teaching materials more engaging and effective.

Recently, the flipped learning model has been recognized by educators as an effective instructional approach (Hwang, & Wang 2015), (Brame, C. 2013), (Berrett D 2012). It is an instructional approach that helps the instructor to focus more on student-centered learning, which includes any use of the technology to take advantage of learning in the classroom, so that the instructor can spend more time interacting with the students instead of lecturing. It can improve learning by encouraging reflection instead of mere reaction, and by emphasizing results rather than attendance. Through communication, learning becomes an active process where everybody involved in the learning experience has to constantly contribute to the learning process by sharing his or her thoughts and ideas to the class discussion. Critical thinking and collaborative knowledge construction creates an empowering learning process.

The flipped learning model meets the needs of learners in the 21st century, and facilitates a learning experience that equips learners with the necessary skills and attitudes (Lee, J., Lim, C. & Kim, H. 2017). Higher education institutions can therefore justify investment in this delivery mode. But, instruction needs to be clarified, because not all instruction is effective, "Effective instruction is instruction that enables students to acquire specified skills, knowledge, and attitudes" (Reiser & Dick, 1996). The role of the instructor and what it can accomplish as well as its limitations must be understood.

This study suggests an instructional design (ID) model for teaching undergraduate courses applying the flipped learning model. Research on ID models may be classified into three different types: model development, model validation, and model use. This study concerned the first one of these, and it is based on the ADDIE, Dick and Carey model. The process begins with planning, followed by programming, then Coaching. Assessing and evaluating occur continually throughout the process and act as valuable mechanisms for monitoring progress and identifying achievement. At each stage of the process, instructors base their decisions on the requirements of the course curriculum, and, equally importantly, on their students' needs.

Core Concept

First I will inspect four core concepts that are needed for this article: Instructional design, Flipped Learning, Flipped Classroom and Flipped Pillars.

Instructional Design

In general design is a systematic planning process prior to implementation. Or engineering something according to specific criteria and the term is used in many fields such as: decoration, interior design, engineering, industry, and trade. In the area of education, the instruction design is a modern science that has emerged in recent years of the twentieth century; it is concerned with understanding and improving the teaching and learning process. According to Gagné and Briggs (1974) instructional design augments learning by incorporating various strategies into courseware, for example structuring, ordering and sequencing content in particular ways, depending on the expected learning outcome. Seels and Glasgow (1998), state that "instructional design is the process of solving instructional problems by systematic analysis of the conditions for learning."

Berger and Kam (1996), point out that instructional design is the systematic process of translating general principles of learning and instruction into plans for instructional materials and learning. Jonassen (2001) defines Instructional design as "the application of theory to create effective instruction". In today's world, with an emphasis of lifelong learning, instructional design is not merely an organized approach to product or course development. It is instead "a generic process for analyzing human performance problems and determining appropriate solutions to such problem" (Richley et al. 2001, p. 29).

According to Charles (1983) instructional design is concerned with understanding, and applying methods of instruction. It is the process of deciding what methods of instruction are best for bringing about desired changes in student knowledge and skills for specific course content. It can be the process of translating general principles of learning and instruction into plans for instructional materials and learning. It is the entire process of analysis of learning needs and goals through to the

evaluation of the instructional program. Instructional design pays attention to instruction from the learner perspective than from the content perspective which is traditional approach (Isman, 2011). Instructional design is concerned with understanding, improving, and applying methods of instruction (Reigeluth, 2013).

Instructional design is a systematic approach to building a program, courses study units or lessons (Dick & Carey, 2001). It provides one framework for the systematic design, development and management of educational material and program. This systematic model of instructional design is often referred to as ADDIE model because it consists of five phases – analysis, design, development, implementation and evaluation.

Flipped Learning in The Context of Flipped Classroom

The Flipped Learning Network distinguishes between a Flipped Classroom and Flipped Learning. "These terms are not interchangeable. Flipping a class can, but does not necessarily, lead to Flipped Learning" (FLN, 2014). They believe that the flipped learning is the logical next step in the evaluation of the flipped classroom.

Flipped classroom pioneers Bergmann and Sams (2014) in their book *Flipped Learning* state that the original flipped classroom concept focused on delivering content and didn't ensure student-centered learning, "we want to be clear that what has popularly become known as flipped classroom is only one basic form of flipped learning model" (Bergmann and Sams 2014, p. 5). The commonly known definition of the flipped classroom is an instructional strategy aimed at the use of modern technology and the Internet in a way that allows the instructor to prepare the lesson through video clips or audio or other media files, for the students to watch in their homes at their own pace using their computers or their smart phones or tablet devices before attending a class, While the class is devoted to discussions, projects and doing homework. The video is a key element in this type of education where the instructor set up video clip and shared with the students in a website or social networking (Bergmann and Sams, 2012). Bishop and Verleger (2013) define a flipped classroom as "an educational technique that consists of two parts: interactive group learning activities inside the classroom, and direct computer-based individual instruction outside the classroom." Flipped Learning Network provides an excellent definition to what the flipped learning is:

Flipped Learning is a pedagogical approach in which direct instruction moves from the group learning space to the individual learning space, and the resulting group space is transformed into a dynamic, interactive learning environment where the educator guides students as they apply concepts and engage creatively in the subject matter. (Flipped Learning Network, 2014)

Theoretical Frameworks for The Flipped Learning Model

According to the limited researchers' review, the key elements of the flipped learning model are built on student-centered learning theories (Bishop, & Verleger, 2013; Hamdan, McKnight, McKnight, & Arfstrom, 2013), which based on constructivist learning theory (Attard, 2010). Constructivism, derived originally from the works of Piaget (1970), Bruner (1962, 1979), Vygotsky (1962, 1978), and Papert (1980, 1993), is both a philosophical and psychological approach based on social cognitivism that assumes that persons, behaviors and environments interact in reciprocal fashion (Schunk, 2012). The major theme behind constructivist theory is that learning is an active process during which learners construct new ideas or concepts based upon their current and past knowledge (Bruner, 2009). Modern theories of learning advocate the constructivist approach to learning, stressing that learning is a distinctive and personal process characterized by individuals developing knowledge and understanding by forming and refining concepts (Dick & Carey, 2001). Learning environments should therefore be provided with multiple knowledge representations and varied cases and context so as to facilitate the exploration of systems, environments and artifacts. Giving learners a sense of ownership over their learning helps them to take responsibility.

According to constructivism theory: learners construct knowledge (rather than acquiring it) individually through their interactions with the environment (including other learners) based on their current as well as prior knowledge, authentic experience, mental structures, and beliefs that are used to interpret objects and events in relation to the context and environment in which learning takes place; the learner is an active processor of information and creator of personal knowledge; instruction is a process of supporting that construction; knowledge is not purely objective; and the instructor's major role is that of a facilitator of learning (Dick & Carey, 2001).

Constructivists put their emphasis on learning rather than instruction implying the need for rich learning environments for students to actively engage with the instructor as well as their peers and construct knowledge. Besides, constructivism requires the learning environment should be learner-centered (Anderson & Kanuka, 1999). Student-centered learning environment is seen as a major enabling element in constructivism.

Since the common constructivist ground is that learning is the process of learners actively constructing knowledge, traditional instructional methods, such as demonstrating, encouraging memorization and imitation are deemed incompatible with this point of view. Some constructivists propose that people learn most things better by means of participative activities such as writing, computer games, or multimedia composition than through traditional methods of directly teaching content.

Proponents of constructivism point out that education has been biased towards objectivism, treating learners as passive vessels into which knowledge is poured (Glaserfeld, 1989; Jonassen, 1991; Biggs, 1996; Dick & Carey, 2001; Bruner, 2009). However, instructors should take the role of coaches, facilitators, or even partners, with learners. It follows, as has been stated, that the goal of instructors should be the creation of environments that facilitate the construction of knowledge.

Flip Pillars

According to Hamdan, McKnight, McKnight, and Arfstrom (2013), flipped classroom must include the four pillars of flipped learning identified as the "four pillars of F-L-I-P", which are: Flexible Environment, Learning Culture, Intentional Content, and Professional Educator.

Flexible learning environments: where classroom or teaching space can be adapted and students choose when and where they learn, Teaching should be adapted to accommodate the specific needs of each learner. Instructors are also flexible in their expectations of student timelines for learning and how students are assessed.

A shift in learning culture: where "students move from being the product of teaching to the center of learning." The instructor no longer transmits information but rather facilitates and coaches students to explore topic in greater depth. They are supporters rather than educators. They provide an environment in which the learner feels valued and in receipt of learning which will be of benefits not only in the classroom context, but also in their lives outside of the classroom.

Intentional content: Instructors evaluate what they need to teach and what materials student should explore on their own outside of the classroom. They also decide on the methods of teaching and learning.

Professional educators: skill professional educators have the responsibility of setting the stage for successful learning. They "must determine when and how to shift direct instruction from the group to the individual learning space, and how to maximize the face-to-face time between instructors and students".

Instructional Design Model Phases

The instructional design model phases (Figure 1) presented here is based on the ADDIE model. The process begins with planning, followed by programming, and then Coaching. Evaluating occur continually throughout the process and act as valuable mechanisms for monitoring progress and identifying achievement. At each stage of the process, instructors base their decisions on the requirements of the course curriculum, and, equally importantly, on their students' needs.

The diagram below shows the process of Planning, Programming, Coaching, and Evaluating. The steps will be described in sequence below.

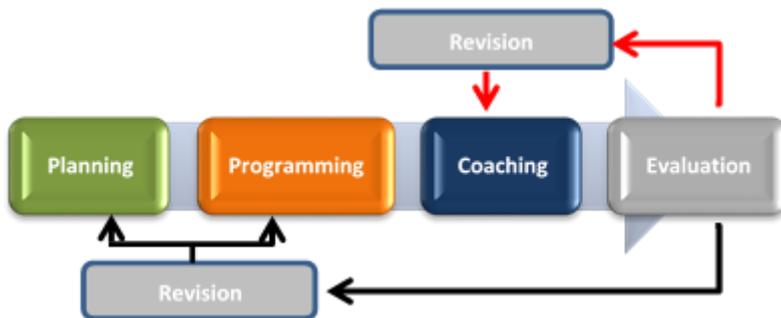


Figure 1: Instructional design model Phases

Planning Phase

Effective instructions don't come together by accident. They require planning and analysis. You'll produce the best instructional design if you first analyze two important areas, see [Figure. 2]:

The analysis of learner characteristics.

The analysis of learning context

The analysis of learner characteristics:

One of the main focuses of flipped learning is the idea of individualized learning. "Flipped learning as its core, is individualized learning" (Bergmann and Sams, 2014:7). In order for there to be a chance of that happening, it's important to know who your learners are. Remember that we are not teaching to groups, but to groups of individuals. In addition to general characteristics such as age, grade level, and topic being studied, we should be able to describe our learners in terms of these characteristics as Dick and Carey (2001) pointed out:

Entry Behaviors: These are skills associated with learning the goal that must already be mastered. What should learners already know how to do in order to be successful with the new instruction? In the last lesson we determined specific entry behaviors related to our goal, but there may also be some general entry behaviors that were overlooked in the instructional analysis yet would be useful to mention at this point.

Prior Knowledge of the Topic Area: What must learners already know about the topic?

Attitudes toward Content and Potential Delivery System: What are the learners' impressions and attitudes about a topic and how it might be delivered? In other words, will they have any preconceived notions about the topic or the delivery system?

Academic Motivation: How motivated are learners to learn the topic, and how much is it likely to interest them? we might want to ask potential learners these questions :

How relevant is the instructional goal to you ?

What aspects of the goal interest you most ?

How confident are you that you could successfully perform the goal ?

How satisfying would it be to you to be able to perform the goal?

Educational and Ability Levels: What are the achievements and general ability levels of the learners? This helps determine the kinds of instructional experiences they may have had and their ability to cope with new and different approaches to instruction.

General Learning Preferences: What types of learning approaches do the learners prefer? For example, lecture, seminar, case study, small-group, or web-based?

Attitudes toward Educational institutions: How do the learners feel about their educational institutions? Do they have a positive view of management, instructors and peers, or are they cynical about them? With instructors, we may already know our students' attitudes about school, but keep in mind that some students actually like school, while others may hate it. It's important to know which kind of students we will be interacting with.

Group Characteristics: Is there heterogeneity within the target population? If so, we want to make sure to accommodate any diversity. Also, get a general overall impression of the target population based on interactions with them .

That may seem like a lot of information to collect about our learners, but it can aid us immensely in providing more meaningful learning experiences for the learners. Some of it we may already know, but much of it should be culled by talking with learners, Colleagues, and parents. Other helpful methods include surveys, questionnaires, and pretests. Collecting this type of data may be much easier if we are instructor with a long experience, as we are already immersed in the environment, and thus may already know many of the students we will be teaching. However, don't immediately assume that we know the answers to these questions .

The list of learner characteristics we end up with will be used throughout the remainder of the instructional design process to make decisions regarding the various steps. It will help us determine the objectives (next step), as well as play a major role in the instructional strategies we employ later on .

The analysis of learning context involves two steps:

Determining Instructional Needs :

Dick and Carey (2001) state that "Perhaps the most critical event in the instructional design process is identifying goals" (Dick and Carey, 2001, p.17). Before establishing the instructional goals, instructors must analyze the learning environment and reflect on what has been done previously to identify the areas that should receive special emphasis in the course. The process, which is called "learners needs" or "needs analysis", consists of identifying the topics to be included, determining what it is that learners need to know, and data regarding student performance. Instructional goals are ideally to be derived through this analysis procedure .

For instructors needs analysis is often informal but is nevertheless very important. Such needs analysis can be directed at determining :

What are the major topics to be covered ;

What portion of curriculum involves learning tasks that students had difficulty in learning and for which no readily available instructional solution exists; and

Which learning tasks, therefore, needs to be designed, modified or redesigned ?

Needs analysis should also indicate whether there were learning goals that were not being reached previously. Such goals should then be candidates for the development of instruction. It should identify the areas of instruction that were not appealing, motivating, interesting and relevant to learners. These areas again should be considered for revision of the current instruction or instructional materials/tasks .

Describing the Learning Environment

By knowing a little bit about our learners we can better arrange the environment to increase the probability of individual student learning. The primary task of this analysis is to think about the environment in which the instruction will take place. It should enable us to analyze all factors that affect and are affected by the instruction that we will provide .

It is always wise to consider, beyond the classroom, the larger learning system into which the classroom environment belongs. The characteristics of the school and the community in which the instruction will take place are critical for the success of the implementation of our instruction .

It is important that instructors support each other and share their expertise, information and ideas throughout the teaching-learning cycle. Instructors also need access to a range of resources, ideas and solutions as they work through the process of planning.

Planning takes time and involves detailed discussion, evaluation and review. It is important that schools make this time available to instructors. Planning is done both within learning area groups and across learning area groups, and across learning areas and grades. This whole-school approach ensures that teaching ideas and classroom experiences are shared and available to everyone when the programs and units of work are being developed. A whole school approach also develops good organizational practices and a thorough knowledge of the school Curriculum across learning areas.

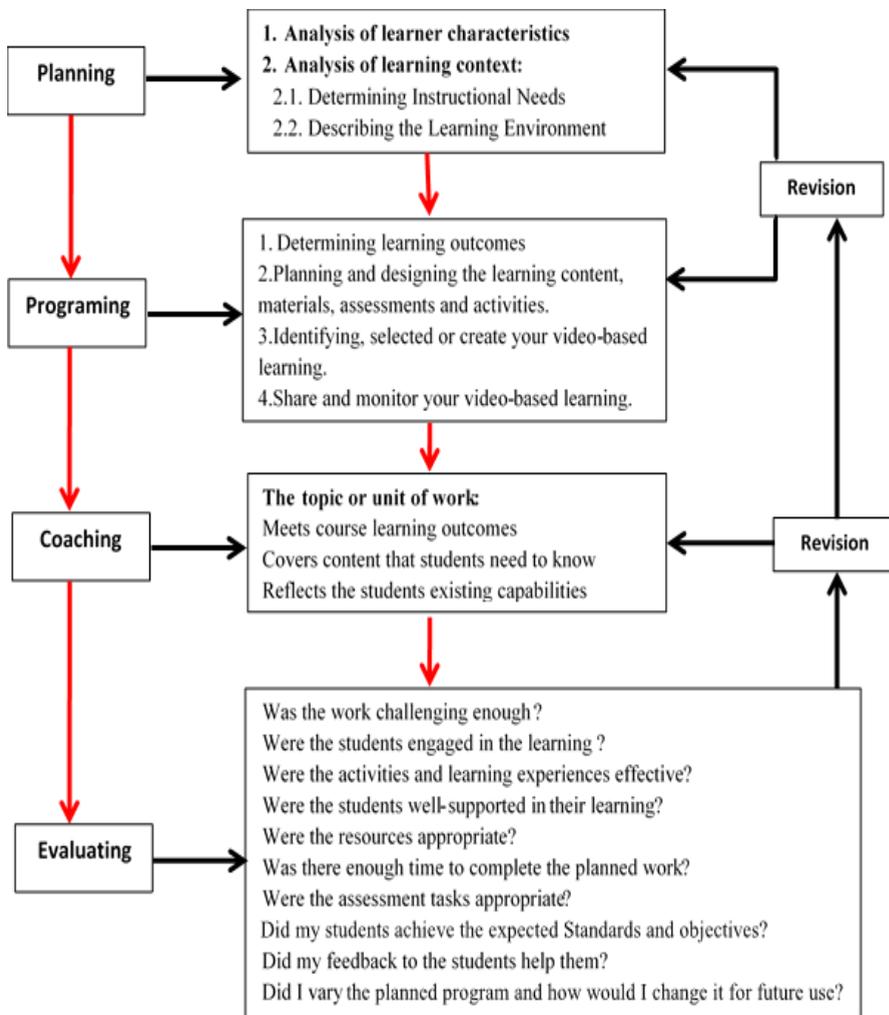


Figure 2: Instructional design model processes

Programming Phase

The Programming phase deals with learning outcomes, identifying the content, exercises, assessment strategies, learning activities and delivery mode. The Programming phase should be systematic and specific, see [Figure.2].

At the start of Programming phase, the instructor should have a pretty good idea of what the learners/students will already know when they start the course (through a learner analysis). The instructor should also know what learners will need to learn during the course (learning outcomes).

How do you create a course that helps student move from what they already know and gain mastery of the new material? That's the question that the Programming phase process answers .

Steps in the Programming Phase:

There are basically four steps in Programming phase :

Determining learning outcomes

Planning and designing the learning content, materials, assessments and activities.

Identifying, selected or create your video-based learning.

Share and monitor your video-based learning.

Determining learning outcomes:

During the planning phase (a learner analysis), the instructor examines the learners' /students' current knowledge and capabilities. What do the students already know and have the ability to do? The instructor uses the information from the learner analysis to create a unit of work or a topic that focuses on students' actual needs.

We want a unit of work that challenges but doesn't overwhelm our students. If we don't take time to study the learners/students and their contexts, we could make a unit of work that bores students because it's too basic. We could also create a course that's impossibly difficult for a group of students —because it might assume that students know more than they really do. It is not only important to know what material we're going to teach, but also what our students need to be taught. Describe what the students will be able to do after having learnt this topic (i.e. learning outcomes and tasks they can do/perform) and list the relevant key/foundational concepts.

Planning and designing the learning contents, assessments and activities.

Learning activities are used in education because they facilitate effective communication, especially if it's educational technology tools (Danielson, 2011). They help learners to process and retain what they learn, as well as enhancing the instructor's credibility. Therefore, they should be simple, clear, active and professional. The learning contents or video-based learning used by instructor must enhance the learning, not replace it or distract from it. You must consider the topic, why you are flipping it, how this topic relates to capabilities that count? Identify established misconceptions around this topic and address these in the pre class activities and make links with assessment explicit.

Well-designed learning contents shorten coaching time and increase comprehension substantially. They can increase participation of learners, and facilitate group consensus.

Identifying, selected or create your video-based learning:

Technology must be used to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of the learning delivery process. This may be quite a change from traditional teaching procedure adopted by instructors. Individual and articulate vendors will make pitches for their own particular product, many of whom have contributed to the revolutionizing of IT teaching and training. Instructors must start by asking themselves a series of questions about technology and pedagogy: Will they make their own videos, curate others' material, or a combination of the two? (Bergmann, Sams 2012). There are plenty of good, educational videos from websites such as TED-Ed and Khan Academy, and online course sites such as edX, courser, and Alison allow you to get your students in. But, to achieve truly comprehensive educational goals, instructors must take the advantage of educational technology on the market. This means that instructors will have to create their own video-based learning, according to the learning outcomes and the topic that they cover. I absolutely agree with Babiker (2015) when he stated that: "Teachers must and need as educator to create their own multimedia applications if they really want to make use of the multimedia applications as an effective tool in education. When teachers create their own video-based learning they must remember to keep the lower-order things on Bloom's taxonomy to the videos and the higher-order things in class. (Bergmann, Sam 2012).

Plan, share and monitor your video-based learning:

In this step you have to plan how you are going to share your video, if you have a learning management system. All you need to do is upload the video and then add your students to the course. Another way is to create YouTube channel and upload it in. You can then monitor the activity to make sure everyone is logging in to view the material. You won't be able to monitor all student activity in real time from the learning management system or any other delivery media you choose, so you should set-up a mechanism that confirms the student has viewed the content. A simple end-of-lecture quiz (the points of which will be added to the activity), is a good place to start. This will also make it possible for you to deliver on the next step more effectively.

Coaching Phase

Gagne described instruction as asset of events external to the learner design to support the internal process of learning (Gagne, 1985). Smaldino state that "instruction is the arrangement of information and the environment to facilitate learning. This may be done by the learner or the instructor" (Smaldino, 2005). The learning styles of the learners must be taken into consideration in the Coaching Phase. Learning styles include the way a person perceives the world and new information, their unique experiences and the motivation they have for learning a particular topic (Gulid & Garger, 1998; Fralick, 2011). It does not necessitate the design of customized topic for every learner, but it does require that every learner is accommodated and their learning needs catered for. The requirement for measurable results can only be met in this scenario. Only when instructor knows the base line can they judge what they have accomplished.

Research has shown that, the more involved and interested students are in what they are doing, the more they learn. Using learning strategies in which our students are 'saying and doing' improves their learning enormously (Smaldino, 2005), (Gulid & Garger, 1998; Fralick, 2011), (Danielson, 2011). When we stand out the front of a room and lecture, our students' learning is far less effective, especially where this is our 'normal' teaching method.

The learning strategies we choose are important in ensuring that students are challenged and enjoy learning. They enjoy learning when that learning is relevant to them. They are also more likely to be challenged and engaged if they are actively involved in the learning activity. Tsai et al. (2015) state that "Flipped learning helps instructors move away from direct instruction as their primary teaching tool toward a more student-centered approach" (Tsai, et al., 2015, p.174). It is the learner who does the learning. Instructors can, of course, guide the process, but student develop understanding through what they do (Danielson, 2011).

In the 21st century instructors are facilitators of student learning and creators of productive classroom environments, the instructor acts as a coach when students are involved in project work or self-study. The instructor provides advice and guidance and helps students clarify ideas and limit tasks (Danielson, 2011).

Here are just some steps the instructor may use it during the coaching phase:

Set up the physical space to accommodate group based learning and organize learning resources

review student responses to the video, at the start of the class

Select the relevant concepts, related content and group learning activities e.g., case studies, flow charts, role play, quizzes, posters, which require students to apply and analyze the core concepts covered in the video

Support the class activities with planned mini lectures that introduce and/or summarize more complex concepts

clarify remaining learning issues

deliver classroom learning activities and mini lectures as needed and 'time on task' - monitor allocated time dedicated to each classroom activity Summarize the learning segments by reviewing the learning outcomes.

But even more important than the coaching methods chosen is the attitude of the instructor which must emphatically be to promote independence among learners so that they can figure thing out for themselves when he is no longer available. In order to do this effectively, we as instructor must make the learner active in the learning process. We provide basic information, the concepts, the vocabulary and the skills, and then make the learner do the work! Ask more questions than we answer, and encourage them to answer their questions by progressing logically from the information and the skills we

have delivered to them in the programming phase, and by using the resources (handouts, recorded video, web sites etc.). The rule of thumb is don't tell them how to do something, ask them how to do it.

Evaluation Phase

This ID Process stresses the concept that good program requires planning, programming, review, and revision. Each of the three ID phases provides review checkpoints that allow the instructors to evaluate the work that has been produced so far. The ID evaluation phase can produce pretty graphs and metrics, but that's not its main purpose. The evaluation phase measures the program's efficacy and make sure that the students achieve the expected learning outcomes.

Mary Thorpe (1988) see evaluation as "the collection, analysis and interpretation on information about any aspect of a program of education and training, as part of a recognized process of judging its effectiveness, its efficiency and any other outcomes it may have" (Thorpe, 1988, p.5). Evaluation must be seen as an ongoing process that is initiated in the earliest stages of program planning and continued beyond program completion.

Each the instructional course should be accompanied by a well-designed evaluation plan for determining its effectiveness. Because of the complexity of current changes in education, this plan should extend over time in order to describe and give value to the interrelationship of individual change and systemic change in education. The development of the evaluation strategy should commence at the beginning of the planning process for each the instructional course.

As a preliminary step, evaluators determine the purposes of the evaluation. After the purposes of the evaluation are determined, the evaluators can plan the evaluation itself. The evaluation design should be based on the intended outcomes of the institutions-improvement effort. The evaluators can ensure the quality of the instructional system design process by asking questions that focus on the value of the program in achieving institutions -improvement goals and critiquing it with a short-term evaluation questions checklist.

Evaluation Questions

During the evaluation phase, the instructor measures how well the program, practices and strategies achieved its goals. Here are just some of the questions that might be explored during the evaluation phase .

Did the activities and learning experiences cater for the needs, ability levels and interests of all students ?

Was the work challenging enough ?

Were the students engaged in the learning ?

Were the activities and learning experiences effective?

Were the students well-supported in their learning?

Were the delivery media appropriate?

Was there enough time to complete the planned work?

Were the assessment tasks appropriate?

Did my students achieve the expected outcomes?

Did my feedback to the students help them?

Did I vary the planned program and how would I change it for future use?

For some questions, it's fairly easy to collect information. You can find out students' opinions of the program through a short survey immediately after the class. A pre-test and post-test can measure how well students achieved the learning objectives .

Summary & Conclusion

Instruction must be appropriate, and meet the needs of its target group, and it must be seen to be justified in terms of return on investment. In other words, it must be effective in changing the way students do thing so that efficiency and productive

are improved. In my view, traditional lecturing methods in higher education institutions - needs to change in the near future. Some experts say it is too late to begin the changes, as we need new competencies in instructors right now. However, if our instruction methods remain practical, flexible and learner-centered, there is a hope that the next generation of learners will get the support and skills they need in their future life.

Flipped learning model appoints to increase motivation toward learning process, mimic reality and are consistent with its requirements, bringing this generation need to harness technology, to add excitement, suspense and curiosity for the multiple elements of the curriculum materials, classroom learning environment, and effective means of communication between the instructor and the learner and meet the individual and specific needs of each student. The flipped learning model meets the needs of learners in the 21st century, and facilitates a learning experience that equips learners with the necessary skills and attitudes for the 21st century. Higher education institutions can therefore justify investment in this delivery mode. It's possible for someone to record a lectures in a video clips without following this instructional design methodology, but there's a much higher degree of risk. The lectures could have the wrong focus, confuse or frustrate the students, or even lack critical content. So, if the course has been developed without planning or programing, then all you can do is hope that the course will go well.

This Instructional design model provides a systematic methodology to plan, and program the unit of work or a course before it launches. If we follow this ID Process, we'll have a high degree of confidence about the course when it's ready to launch.

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Combating Overweight and Obesity among School Children and Adolescents through Student Counselling in Saudi Arabia

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Abstract

Overweight and obesity are health problems that can affect many children and adolescents around the world. The literature has identified that the prevalence of overweight and obesity is high in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (Saudi Arabia) in children and adolescents attending schools in Saudi Arabia. Student counselling practices can be a cost effective way to help students to deal with overweight and obesity in Saudi schools. The aim of the study was to conduct an evidence-based review of the literature in order to suggest new approaches to applying student counselling services and programmes in order to directly combat overweight and obesity in schools in Saudi Arabia. The study used a non-empirical review of the literature on overweight and obesity and on student counselling in the United Kingdom and Saudi Arabia. The study argues that in theory student counsellors in schools in Saudi Arabia are ideally placed to help to directly address and reduce the existing high prevalence of overweight and obesity in youths and adolescents attending schools in Saudi Arabia. This could be done using a combination of dietary interventions and counselling methods. The research study concludes that student counselling in schools in Saudi Arabia could potentially be used to directly help to combat and reduce levels of overweight and obesity among school children and adolescents in the long term.

Keywords: Student counselling; overweight; obesity; children; psychotherapy; behavioural therapy; cognitive therapy; health; diet; schools; Saudi Arabia.

Introduction

The Global Burden of Disease (GBD) 2015 Study systematically estimated the prevalence of overweight and obesity among children (<20 years of age) and adults between 1980 and 2015 (Obesity Collaborators, 2017). It was estimated that in 2015 107.7 million children (prevalence of 5.0%, uncertainty level, 101.1 to 115.1) and 603.7 million adults (prevalence of 12.0%, uncertainty interval, 592.9 to 615.6) were obese worldwide (Obesity Collaborators, 2017). It was also noted that the prevalence of obesity among children and adults has doubled in 73 countries since 1980, it has shown a continuous increase in most other countries, and the rate of childhood obesity in many countries has been greater than the rate of increase in adult obesity (Obesity Collaborators, 2017).

Statistics released by the World Health Organization (WHO) (2010) showed the prevalence of obesity was 23% for males and 36% for females in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (Saudi Arabia). These represent highly significant prevalences of obesity in Saudi Arabia. As will be seen, other studies have shown that there has also been an alarming rise in the prevalence of overweight and obesity in children and adolescents in Saudi Arabia. Al-Enazy *et al.* (2014) note that obesity at any age will increase the risk of persistence of obesity at subsequent ages. Indeed, another survey noted that approximately one-third (26% male, 41% female) of obese Arabic-speaking pre-school children and half (42% male, 63% female) of obese school-age children were also obese at adulthood. In practice this would seem to indicate that unless overweight and obesity is tackled effectively at a young age, there is an increased likelihood that overweight and obese children and adolescents will continue this trend on into adulthood. This is highly problematic from a health perspective, as the WHO (2016) states that:

Childhood obesity is associated with a higher chance of obesity, premature death and disability in adulthood. But in addition to increased future risks, obese children experience breathing difficulties, increased risk of fractures, hypertension, early markers of cardiovascular disease, insulin resistance and psychological effects.

This article seeks to highlight the spiraling prevalence levels of overweight and obesity in children and adolescents in Saudi Arabia. It will show how the complex interaction of social determinants that affect overweight and obesity levels in children and adolescents in Saudi Arabia make tackling overweight and obesity highly difficult in practice. The article will also show how student counsellors in schools in Saudi Arabia could in theory be used to bring about a significant change in prevalence levels of overweight and obesity in Saudi schools. The first part of the article will provide an overview of school counseling practices, the second part will outline the prevalence of overweight and obesity around the world, the third part will provide an overview of overweight and obesity in Saudi Arabia, and the fourth part will show how overweight and obesity can be combated through student counseling in Saudi Arabia.

School Counselling Practices

The United Kingdom (UK) Department for Education (2015) states that although mental health issues are relatively common (e.g. up to 10% of 5 to 15 year old school pupils experience them), many children and young people do not always get the help that they need as quickly as they should. Consequently it is observed that issues such as depression, anxiety, low mood, conduct disorders, and eating disorders can significantly impact on the happiness and future life chances of such children and young people (Department for Education, 2015). The WHO (2014) defines mental health as a state of wellbeing in which every individual recognises his or her own potential, can cope with the normal stresses of life, can work productively and fruitfully, and is able to make a contribution to his or her own community.

Good mental and emotional wellbeing is viewed as an integral part of the personal development of children and young people, so when this development is inhibited in some way counseling can be used to address this inhibition (Department for Education, 2015). Counseling is defined to mean "...a mental health intervention that children or young people can voluntarily enter into if they want to explore, understand and overcome issues in their lives which may be causing them difficulty, distress and/or confusion" (Department for Education, 2015, p.16). The British Association for Counselling & Psychotherapy (BACP) note that in Great Britain nearly 80,000 children and young people are seriously depressed, and around three children in every class have a diagnosable mental health condition (BACP, 2015). School-based counseling is defined as:

...a professional activity, delivered by qualified practitioners in schools. Counsellors offer troubled and/or distressed children and young people an opportunity to explore and understand their difficulties within a relationship of agreed confidentiality (BACP, 2015, p.1).

It has been noted that counseling and psychotherapy involve professionals focusing on encouraging people to talk about their problems and implementing change through these discussions (Rutten and Hulme, 2013). In practice it is also noted that there a range of theoretical models of counseling, with the most well known models being psychodynamic, person-centered and cognitive-behavioural approaches (Rutten and Hulme, 2013). School-based counseling is now one of the most widely recognised forms of psychological therapy for children and young people in the UK, and there are between 70,000-90,000 cases seen in UK secondary schools every year (BACP, 2015). It is noted that counseling in schools has proven to be a highly effective method of support for tens of thousands of troubled children and young people who are experiencing emotional health difficulties (BACP, 2015).

For example, counseling is beneficial because it can: (1) reduce the psychological distress that children and young people experience owing to them having to face a range of difficulties such as bullying and bereavement; (2) support young people who are having relationship problems with family and friends; (3) help young people who are having difficulty managing their emotions such as anger or depression (Department for Education, 2015). School pupils have also reported improvements in their ability to concentrate, study and learn after undergoing counseling, as well as school pupils reporting an increased motivation for school and schoolwork (Department for Education, 2015). In practice school-based counseling can help children and young people to better cope with bullying, family-related matters, emotional problems, anxiety, depression, self-harm, suicide, mental health issues, and emotional and behavioural difficulties (Phillips and Smith, 2011). This is important because emotional and behavioural difficulties may lead to several negative outcomes such as substance abuse, unemployment, school exclusion, criminal activity, social withdrawal, bullying, fighting, compulsive lying, truancy, vandalism, cruelty to people or animals, and destruction to property (WHO, 1992).

The counsellor's role covers a range of areas such as: (1) listening in a non-judgemental and patient way; (2) helping an individual to make choices and changes; (3) viewing problems from the individual's point of view; (4) helping individuals

view issues more clearly and from alternative viewpoints; and (5) helping to minimise confusion (BACP, 2004). Counselling skills may include being empathic, helping people to feel valued and understood, and listening to people in a non-judgmental way (Welsh Government, 2008). These counseling skills may be used by people who work with children and young people in roles such as teachers, school nurses, youth workers and social workers (Welsh Government, 2008).

Although there is strong support to be found in the literature for the benefits of school-based counseling, there are others who have objected to this type of counseling. For example, a research study undertaken by Montgomery (2003) found that a small minority of teachers felt that counseling was not appropriate within an educational environment as they believed that pupils would use it as an excuse to get out of lessons and as a way of exploiting the system. A study undertaken by Polat and Jenkins (2004) also noted that some teachers saw school-based counseling as a way of avoiding lessons, and therefore suggested that it should be offered out of school hours. Kerry (2001) argued that the counseling of students in schools might in theory lead to tensions within the schools. Kerry (2001) explained that counselors are meant to act in a non-judgmental way which might be taken to mean that they condone the actions of students. However, teachers require to instill authority within the classroom setting and this often includes the use of sanctions, and so teachers might perceive counseling staff as undermining their authority (Kerry, 2001). Consequently, when evaluating the use of school-based counseling it is important to note the context in which it will be undertaken in order to aim to ensure that counseling will be beneficial for the students and not negatively affect the school environment in any way.

Overweight and Obesity

The UK National Health Service (NHS) notes that the term 'obese' describes a person who is very overweight with a lot of body fat (NHS Choices, 2017). In the UK it is said that obesity is a common problem estimated to affect around one in every four adults and around one in every five children aged 10 to 11 (NHS Choices, 2017). Obesity is generally caused by the consumption of excess calories (e.g. fatty and sugary foods), and the excess energy is stored by the body as fat (NHS Choices, 2017). Overweight and obesity can be measured through the use of the 'body mass index' (BMI). This is a weight-for-height index which is typically used to classify overweight and obesity. The BMI is measured by dividing a person's weight in kilograms by their height in meters (kg/m²) (WHO, 2015). An individual who has a BMI that is 25 or greater than 25 is overweight (WHO, 2015). An individual who has a BMI that is 30 or greater than 30 is obese (WHO, 2015).

In 2014 more than 1.9 billion people aged 18 or over were overweight, with 600 million of these people being obese (WHO, 2015). The WHO found that worldwide obesity has more than doubled since 1980, that 39% of adults aged 18 years and over were overweight (2014) and 13% were obese (WHO, 2015). It was also found that 41 million children under the age 5 were overweight or obese (2014), and that most of the world's population live in countries where overweight and obesity kills more people than underweight (WHO, 2015). Alqarni (2016) states that the determinants of obesity include: (1) family history of obesity; (2) diet; (3) marital status; (4) diagnoses of diabetes; (5) physical activity; (6) education; (7) age; (8) hypertension; (9) high glucose level; (10) eating habits; (11) sleeping interruptions; and (12) genetic factors. Alqarni (2016) states that the consequences of obesity include: (1) cardiovascular diseases; (2) cancers; (3) hypertension; (4) hypercholesterolemia; and (5) Ischemic heart disease. Obesity may also lead to other serious risks such as type 2 diabetes, coronary heart disease, some types of cancer (e.g. breast cancer, bowel cancer), and stroke (NHS Choices, 2017). It can also lead to other conditions such as depression and low self-esteem (NHS Choices, 2017).

Boodhna (2013) observes that there is considerable evidence that links childhood overweight and obesity with a number of long-term and immediate physiological and psychological health risks. Boodhna (2013) notes that childhood and adolescent obesity can continue on into adulthood, with more severe and well-established health risks such as middle-age mortality and a range of chronic diseases in adult life. Research studies have identified high levels of adolescent dissatisfaction with body size and shape, and an increased prevalence among girls (Gustafson-Larson and Terry, 1992; Hill, Draper, and Stack, 1994; Braet and Wydhooge, 2000). Other negative psychological effects linked with overweight and obesity include low self esteem, low self image and depression (Sjoberg, 2005; Cornette, 2008).

Overweight and Obesity in Saudi Arabia

Overweight and obesity have been linked to more deaths around the world as compared to underweight (WHO, 2015). However a scoping review of the literature has identified that overweight and obesity in Saudi Arabia is reaching chronic levels, among children, adolescents, and adults. El-Hazmi and Warsy (1997) conducted a research study of 14,660 adult Saudi males and females in Saudi Arabia. The study found that 27.98% out of a sample of 1033 males present in the

Western Region were overweight, and 16.55% of these were obese (El-Hazmi and Warsy, 1997). Out of a sample of 1358 females, 24.15% of those were found to be overweight, and 21.8% of these were found to be obese (El-Hazmi and Warsy, 1997).

Al-Nuaim (1996) undertook a research study that demonstrated that out of 9,061 children (6-18 years) attending public schools in Saudi Arabia, the prevalence of overweight (11.7%) and obesity (15.8%) were very high. Al-Nuaim (1996) noted that the findings of a high prevalence of childhood obesity called for an early health education programme on the appropriate choice of diets for growth, health and longevity. The research study carried out by El-Mouzan *et al.* (2010) used Saudi reference data to show that out of 19,317 children and adolescents studied, the prevalence of overweight (21.3%), obesity (9.3%), and severe obesity (2.0%) were all significantly high. El-Mouzan *et al.* (2010) concluded that it was essential that some type of action be taken in order to try to prevent a rise in the significant number of overweight and obese children and adolescents in Saudi Arabia.

Al-Hazzaa (2012) undertook a longitudinal study (10 years) of 2,906 school children (14-19 years) in secondary schools in Saudi Arabia. The study found that young children and adolescents had less active lifestyles, with less physical activity levels and with increasingly sedentary lifestyles owing to sedentary activities such as watching television or video (Al-Hazzaa, 2012). Al-Hazzaa (2012) believed that it was absolutely vital that the Saudi Government should make obesity a national priority in order to promote more healthy and active lifestyles for children and adolescents in Saudi schools. Al-Hazzaa *et al.* (2014) carried out a school-based multicentre cross-sectional study from 2009 to 2010 in three major cities in Saudi Arabia: Al-Khobar, Jeddah, and Riyadh.

The study sampled 1,401 male secondary school students and 1,507 female secondary school students (aged 14 to 19 years) (Al-Hazzaa *et al.*, 2014). The study found the prevalence of overweight in males was 19.5% and in females was 20.8%, whilst the prevalence of obesity in males was 24.1% and in females was 14% (Al-Hazzaa *et al.*, 2014). Al-Hazzaa (2014) stated:

It is concluded [*sic*] that the proportions of overweight, obesity, and abdominal obesity, observed among Saudi adolescents were remarkably high. Such high prevalence of overweight and obesity is a major public-health concern (p.634).

A study carried out by Al Saleh (2013) sampled 1,000 children of Saudi nationality aged 2-14 years who visited the National Guard Comprehensive Specialized Clinic between December 2014 and May 2015. The study found that the prevalence of overweight in boys was 9.5% and in girls was 14.4%, and the prevalence of obesity in boys was 13.5% and in girls was 18% (Al Saleh, 2013). The study also found that the prevalences of overweight and obesity were the highest in the 10-14 year group (Al Saleh, 2013). A cross-sectional study carried out by Al-Dossawry (2010) sought to determine the prevalence and demographic characteristics of overweight and obesity in children in the Eastern province of Saudi Arabia.

The study sampled a total of 7,056 children (aged 2-18 years) from schools and the outpatient department of a hospital (Al-Dossawry, 2010). The study found that the overall prevalence of overweight was 19.0% and of obesity was 23.3% (Al-Dossawry, 2010). It was also found that more than 50% of children aged between 4 and 18 years had weight above the 85th percentile. A cross-sectional study conducted by Al-Enazy *et al.* (2017) focused on primary school students in AlAbnaa schools based in Tabuk, Saudi Arabia. A total of 331 primary school students aged 6-13 years were sampled (Al-Enazy *et al.*, 2017). It was found that the prevalence of overweight among males was 7.3% and among females was 12.4%, whilst the prevalence of obesity among males was 17.4% and among females was 20.9% (Al-Enazy *et al.*, 2017). Al-Enazy *et al.* (2017, p.17) stated "The results of the study provide alarming evidence-based data on the considerable prevalence of childhood overweight and obesity among primary school children in Tabuk, Saudi Arabia."

Al-Saleh (2013) notes that over the past three decades Saudi Arabia has undergone an enormous lifestyle-related transformation, and that this has largely contributed to the increased prevalence of obesity in Saudi children. Al-Saleh (2013) believes that children in Saudi Arabia have become less active, as fewer children walk to school, and many of them spend a lot more time on sedentary activities (e.g. watching television, using computers, playing video games). Al-Saleh also notes that adolescent boys can drive cars which give them easy access to unhealthy diets (e.g. fast food restaurants). Al-Enazy *et al.* (2017) notes that there is evidence that the prevalence of overweight and obesity in Saudi Arabia is growing dramatically, perhaps owing to a tax of urbanization and increased sedentary life style.

Al-Dossawry *et al.* (2010) also believed that children in Saudi Arabia had become less active, that few or none walked to school, and more spent time in sedentary activities such as viewing television, or playing computer and video games. Al-

Hazzaa *et al.* (2014) also agreed with these conclusions. They noted that the high prevalence rates of overweight and obesity must reflect major changes in lifestyle-related factors such as lack of physical activity, increased sedentary behaviours, unhealthy eating habits, or a combination of any of these factors (Al-Hazzaa *et al.*, 2014). Al-Hazzaa *et al.*, (2014) explain that the hot climate and high air pollution in major cities discourages outdoor activities and increases the prevalence of inactivity. There seemed to be an over-reliance on cars rather than walking for short-distance travel (e.g. trips to and from schools) (Al-Hazzaa *et al.*, 2014). Also, whereas previously communities in major Saudi cities were designed to support pedestrian travel in common daily activities (e.g. shopping, travelling to schools and mosques), newly modernized cities with large street networks totally discourages walking (Al-Hazzaa *et al.*, 2014).

Combatting Overweight and Obesity through Student Counselling in Saudi Arabia

The WHO (2016) notes that:

Overweight and obesity, as well as their related noncommunicable diseases, are largely preventable. Supportive environments and communities are fundamental in shaping people's choices, by making the choice of healthier foods and regular physical activity the easiest choice (the choice that is the most accessible, available and affordable), and therefore preventing overweight and obesity.

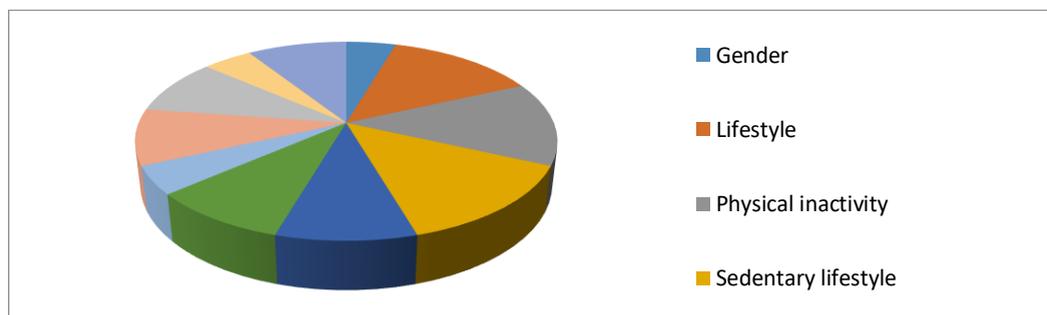
As has been noted previously, the high prevalence rates of overweight and obesity seen in Saudi adolescents reflect major changes in lifestyle related factors. Al-Hazzaa *et al.* (2014) argue that in order to combat childhood overweight and obesity fundamental changes in public policies, the food and built environments, and health systems are required, in addition to primary prevention through promotion of a healthy diet and active lifestyle. Al-Hazzaa *et al.* (2014) warn that if no drastic measures are taken to reduce the level of obesity among Saudi children and youths, it is likely that Saudi Arabia will experience a fair reduction in the absolute life-expectancy for the young generation. Alqarni (2016) states:

There is a dire need to raise the issue at the national level, and design efforts and strategies to combat obesity in the country, through involvement of all stakeholders, including policy makers, educators, healthcare providers, and individual citizens (p.5).

There would therefore seem to be a clear and pressing need to effectively address the alarmingly high levels of prevalence of overweight and obesity in children and adolescents in Saudi Arabia. Al-Enazy (2017) observes that childhood is the critical period for the initiation of obesity and associated morbidity, and therefore this is precisely the time at which measures to prevent overweight and obesity will be most effective. Kann *et al.* (2006) state that school health programmes can significantly affect the lives of children and adolescents as they can improve their health-related knowledge, attitudes, and skills required to learn healthy behaviours. Dhaifallah *et al.* (2017) remark that children spend an essential part of their lives at school and it is plausible to acknowledge that schools can exert significant influence in achieving positive students' health and social outcomes.

They argue that the role of educational institutions in creating sustainable improvements in the health status of the Saudi Arabian community is crucial (Dhaifallah *et al.*, 2017). The school setting is potentially a highly apt environment in which to develop and set up an effective overweight and obesity prevention programme (OOP Programme) which would aim to tackle the moderating social determinants of obesity (Figure 1).

Figure 1: Social Determinants of Childrens' Overweight and Obesity



The WHO (2017a) states that the promotion of healthy diets and physical activity in school is essential to fight the childhood obesity epidemic. It states that:

Because children and adolescents spend a significant time of their young lives in school, the school environment is an ideal setting to acquire knowledge and skills about healthy choices and to increase physical activity levels (WHO, 2017a, p.1).

The WHO (2017c) generally recommends that individuals increase consumption of fruit and vegetables (as well as legumes, whole grains and nuts), they limit energy intake from total fats and shift fat consumption away from saturated fats to unsaturated fats, they limit the intake of sugars, and they become physically active, i.e. at least 60 minutes of regular, moderate- to vigorous-intensity activity each day that is developmentally appropriate. In addition to this, it is observed that a multisectoral approach is essential for sustained progress, as it can mobilize the combined energy, resources and expertise of all stakeholders involved (WHO, 2017c).

Pelletier (2015) carried out a review of the literature relating to the school nurse teacher's role in preventing childhood obesity at school. It was found that the review of the literature demonstrated that school nurses could have a major impact in preventing obesity (Pelletier, 2015). Effective interventions implemented by school nurse teachers included: (1) Hohman, Price, Sonnevaille, Rifas-SHiman, Gortmaker, Gillman and Tavaras, 2012; (2) Johnston, Moreno, El-Mubasher, Gallagher, Tyler, and Woehler, 2013; (3) Morrison-Sandberg, Kubik, and Johnson, 2011; (4) NASN, 2014; (5) Steele, Wu, Cushing, and Jensen, 2013; and (6) Soderlund, Malmsten, Bentsen and Nilsen, 2010 (Pelletier, 2015).

AlBashtaway *et al.* (2014) argue that school nurses are particularly well placed to take action to promote healthy behaviours within the school, and to help students in schools gain appropriate access to services that can help them maintain or improve their health. School nurses can act as health assessors (i.e. obtaining students' health history and performing physical assessments) and health educators (i.e. educating students by promoting a healthy lifestyle and modifying unhealthy behaviours) (AlBashtaway *et al.*, 2014). Indeed, it is noted that school nurses have an ideal opportunity to enhance health-promoting activities in order to reduce the risks of benign overweight or obese (AlBashtaway *et al.*, 2014).

In practice, the United States (US) National Association of State Boards of Education (NASBE) states that schools can help students adopt and maintain healthy eating and physical behaviours in eight ways (Table 1) (Wechsler *et al.*, 2004).

Table 1: 10 Health Strategies for Schools (Wechsler *et al.*, 2004)

1	Address physical activity and nutrition through a Co-ordinated School Health Programme (CSHP) approach.
2	Designate a school health co-ordinator and maintain an active school health council.
3	Assess the schools health policies and programmes and develop a plan for improvement.
4	Strengthen the school's nutrition and physical activity policies.
5	Implement a high-quality health promotion programme for school staff.
6	Implement a high-quality course of study in health education.
7	Implement a high-quality course of study in physical education.
8	Increase opportunities for students to engage in physical activity.
9	Implement a quality school meals programme.
10	Ensure that students have appealing, healthy choices in foods and beverages offered outside of the school meals programme.

Al Saleh (2013) has argued that the establishment of pre-school, school, and adolescent health programmes, with an emphasis on increasing the number of hours of physical education and the consumption of healthy food, as well as incorporating health messages into the school curricula, will help to reduce obesity. The literature has identified that school nurses can help to implement healthy dietary intervention programmes in schools. However, the implementation of an effective and successful OOP Programme will require a great deal of time and effort from a range of stakeholders. This is especially the case in Saudi schools where there exist a broad range of social determinants of childrens' overweight and obesity which need to be specifically addressed.

Consequently, it is argued that the school's student counselor is in the ideal position to be able to implement and oversee the OOP Programme in schools in Saudi Arabia. The student counselor would act as the coordinator to coordinate with relevant stakeholders such as teachers, parents, physical education teachers, and school nurses. The student counselor is also ideally placed because they are able to provide ongoing and rounded support to students in schools. Al-Hazzaa *et al.* (2014, p.642) note that "Obesity is a complex disease with genetic and life-style factors, both playing important roles in de-termining a child's weight and body composition." If student counselors are able to speak and counsel students on a

regular basis they will not only be able to provide regular positive support regarding adopting a healthy lifestyle and healthy eating habits, but they will be able to build up a more detailed and comprehensive picture of the social determinants that may be affecting a particular child.

The use of student counselors in schools to combat overweight and obesity among school children and adolescents in Saudi schools is therefore highly recommended, as this would form part of the overall guidance and counseling programmes for school children and adolescents in schools in Saudi Arabia. The complex nature and interaction of social determinants of overweight and obesity demonstrate the need for a more holistic and comprehensive assessment of the health of children and adolescents in Saudi schools. Consequently, it is noted that within the specific context of Saudi schools, the implementation of an OOP Programme by school nurses alone might prove to be highly challenging. School nurses may understand the medical and health perspectives relating to overweight and obesity.

However, the broad range of social determinants of overweight and obesity in Saudi schools calls for a broader and more comprehensive understanding of social and behavioral factors affecting the prevalence of overweight and obesity in children and adolescents in Saudi schools. Consequently it is recommended that student counselors who have regular and ongoing contact with students in Saudi schools, would be ideally placed to lead a multi-stakeholder OOP Programme in Saudi schools. Overweight and obesity can often be traced back to a number of behavioural, social, and emotional factors such as depression, comfort eating, bullying, and loneliness. Therefore student counselors are in an ideal position to be able to monitor students and provide regular and ongoing support regarding the implementation of health and healthy eating programmes.

Conclusion

The spiraling prevalence levels of overweight and obesity in children and adolescents in Saudi Arabia is highly concerning. Moreover, the literature has identified a complex range of social determinants that affect prevalence levels of overweight and obesity in children and adolescents. These include factors such as increasingly sedentary lifestyles, poor dietary habits, over-abundance of fast foods, and poor quality physical activities. The complex interaction between these factors means that in practice children and adolescents in Saudi schools may find it difficult to effectively tackle overweight and obesity. Without concerted efforts at a national level it has been noted that Saudi Arabia will experience a fair reduction in the absolute life-expectancy for the young generation (Al-Hazzaa *et al.*, 2014).

The literature has identified that dietary and health interventions undertaken by school nurses have been successful in the past. Consequently, building on this literature this article has proposed that because of the broad range of health strategies that schools need to put in place in order to tackle overweight and obesity, student counselors are ideally placed to run and oversee special cost-effective programmes that are designed to effectively combat overweight and obesity in Saudi schools. Student counselors can work with other relevant stakeholders to oversee these programmes and to regularly communicate and counsel students on dietary and health issues, as well as a broad range of mental, psychological, and emotional issues within the student counseling framework. This is a strategy that would be likely to have a higher probability of successfully combating overweight and obesity among school children and adolescents in schools in Saudi Arabia.

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"The Big Sister Model in Educational Training" The Art of Mentoring and fellow Mentoring" (BSM)

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Abstract

In an ongoing search for new models to streamline college training and mentoring, a different training model was developed called the "Big Sister Model". This model was experienced for five years in the kindergarten-training program at the Kay College of education in Israel. Within this model, two female students are trained in each kindergarten: one in the third college year and the other in the second. Together with kindergarten staff, the two students plan the class curriculum and activities. A third-year student, who possess additional one year experience in practicing (veteran), has the opportunity to mentor a 2nd year student who also has the opportunity to observe the training of the third year and get more experience. This process provides a good staff relationship and develops interpersonal relations based on social and psychological elements, which points to a huge positive change in behavior, interpersonal relations and its motivations. In peer mentoring, the mentor accompanies, analyzes, supports, instructs, empowers and provides necessary knowledge in the mentoring process. It undergoes a process of empowerment, leadership, and success (Power et Al, 2011). This study is a continuous action research that aims at examining the effectiveness of the "Big sister" training model. When a third-year student mentors a second-year student, her personality will be accordingly empowered. Moreover, she is exposed to another year of the second year training program, once when she receives guidance in the second year and once more as a 3rd year student mentor. The second-year student enjoys continuous training throughout the day with a close colleague in addition to the training teacher and pedagogical mentor. In addition, she reveals the contents and skills of the third year allowing her ongoing internalization over time all third-year program. In the effectiveness of the training, we also sought to deeply examine the areas that this model promotes and strengthens as well as, how much the students perceive it as a training benefactor compared to the regular model in a control group.

Key words: Peer mentoring, preservice training program, mentor, mentee, college, leadership

1. Introduction

Kaye College of education is located in Be'er Sheva in southern Israel, and therefore reflects the population in the region. Approximately 50% of students enrolled are Bedouin (males and females) who attend various specializations. Bedouin'society is conservative and controlled by traditional customs and norms, so the existing educational concepts are not always compatible with new educational concepts and sometimes even contradict them. Most of the students are female by time. Bedouin female teacher represents the new educational approach on one hand, and is being fed by the social traditional perception on the other hand. This puts her in a conflict situation and pushes her to preserve the status quo, or to lead to a change in the environment's perceptions (Abu Asbeh, Karakra, A. & Arar, and H. 2007). Empowering her personally and professionally, designs her professional identity to be able to lead and face new challenges and match them to her community needs (Moghadam, 1993; Giddens, 1994; Gilat, 2010).

¹Bedouins in Israel are a minority within the Arab minority, part of the population of original Palestinian Arabs who remained in Israel after 1948 war (Abu-Saad, 2001).

Table 1: Birth and Death Rates among General Population in Israel, Muslims in Israel and Moslems (Bedouins & others) in the Negev, 2008

Demography characters	Bedouins /Negev	General population /Negev	Moslem population/ Israel	General population/ Israel
Age structure under 14	55.1%	33.8%	41.4%	
Births/1000	43.3	25.9	28.5	21.5
Fertility	6.91	3.68	3.84	2.96
Infant mortality rate/1000	10.6	7.2	7.1	3.9
Gross Mortality Rate	2.2	2.9	2.5	5.4

Bedouin Female students usually enroll in college soon after finishing high school. Their ages usually are 18-22. Some of them are already engaged and some got married and have kids. Usually, Bedouin woman education is directed to women's traditional channel of childcare (see Statistical yearbook of Bedouin, 2004, 2013). Thus, most of the Bedouin females study humanities and social sciences in the university and colleges, which allow them to join the teaching field that is perceived as a female profession (Espanyoli et al., 2003). Therefore, Bedouin female students choose this field of specialization at the teacher training colleges, which will prepare them to be teachers in kindergarten or school.

College studies bring the Bedouin female student into a change in personality; enlarging their educational and professional knowledge they require to understand and effectively do their job, they will have an eye and a window to other cultures that affect their social and educational perspectives, and get more qualifications in professional, social and life skills (Sada-Gerges, 2013).

Table 2: Female Bedouin percentage in Ben-Gurion University and in the Kaye-the Academic College of Education in the years 1998-2002 and 2011

Year	High studies Institute	Bedouin students	Bedouin female students	% Bedouin female students
1998-2002	Ben-Gurion University	244	54	22.1%
	kaye college	339	216	63.7%
2003	Ben-Gurion University	319	142	44.5%
	Kaye college	430	282	65.58%
2011	Ben-Gurion University	472	311	65.8%
	Kaye college	405	303	74.8%

The curricula in the college are designed to provide adequate and sufficient educational and professional tools to Bedouin female students, which are foreseen to facilitate and support their job as kindergarten and preschool teachers in dealing with the children. However, the curricula do not provide enough personal and social tools needed to promote the necessary changes that female Bedouin students tend to initiate in their conservative community and to stand in front of halts which may be impeded or stop them (Sada-Gerges, 2013).

Training and experiencing the teaching process is a main part of the learning development at the college where the student internalizes the materials and bridges between theoretical learning and experience. So pedagogic training at Kay College is a matter of many challenges. The unique structure of Kaye College and the relationship between the college's visitors requires a constant search for challenges and reforms. However, in order to seek for a new challenge that matched the characteristics of Bedouin society, all the second, third and fourth-year students were recruited in-group interviews in order to hear their opinions and what they thought about what they have had gone through to the college and see on the field. One of the challenges offered was a new training model called the "Big Sister Model, the art of mentoring and peer mentoring" a peer-mentoring program which was suggested to strengthen the training process.

What is Pedagogic Guidance Program?

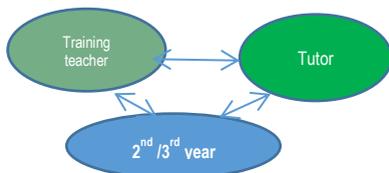


Figure 2 Regular Training Model

According to the Ministry of Education in Israel, College Pedagogic mentoring program is a program in which a college mentor teacher send her / his students to practice the teaching in the field (Walkington, j., et. al., 2001, Hudson, Peter B., 2013). He or she is supposed to provide guidance and feedback to students undergoing teaching in the training classes. In this case, we talk about the kindergarten as a training class. Usually, one or two (mostly) students from the same year (2nd or 3rd-year) do their practicing in training class. Mostly, each student does a separate activity according to the subject and the missions required in the kindergarten. Second-year student usually works in small groups while the 3rd year student is more integrated in managing the circle time activity in addition to the group activities. She is responsible for managing the day's agenda together with the kindergarten staff in several days during the year. The two students work together and separately. At best, a joint work plan is written in cooperation with the teacher and under her supervision. However, it does not always work out. The pedagogical tutor visits the student in the garden, staying for about one to two hours and sometimes more. She watches and follows the student and the children's reactions to the activity she has prepared and performs. Duration of activity is about half an hour. When the student finishes the activity, the counselor asks to sit down with her to give feedback on what she has seen. Sometimes the teacher also joins this feedback session

In the regular training model, the three remaining vertices of the training is a teacher-instructor teacher and a pedagogical instructor (Bates, A.J., Ramirez, L., Drita, D., 2009). Every student has the mentoring circle shown in (Figure1).

2. The Big Sister Model, The Art of Mentoring and fellow Mentoring (BSM):

2.1 Developing and Implementing Steps

Relying on the known ancient saying of Roman philosopher Seneca: "while we teach we learn", the peer mentor program was suggested to assimilate what is learned because the best way to understand a concept is to explain it to someone else (Paul, A. 2011). Third-year students will be empowered by the fact that they guide their colleagues, explain to them and building a relationship of teamwork. Thus, long-term exposure further, assimilates the contents, and enables the student to better manage his knowledge. This is what BSM project.

According to CaelaFarren, expertise leading people to mastery and creative management, "Peer mentoring is a form of mentorship that usually occurs between a person who has lived through a specific experience (Peer Mentor) and a person who is new to that experience (the Peer Mentee). "Mentors, who may be older or younger than you, are those who know more about a certain area of expertise than you do. Mentoring is a learning and development partnership between a professional, with in-depth experience and knowledge in a specific area and a protégé seeking learning and coaching in the same area" (Farren, C., 2006). The Peer Mentor may challenge the mentee with new ideas, and encourages the Mentee to move beyond things that are most comfortable. Thus, through peer mentoring, the mentor accompanies, analyzes, supports, instructs, empowers and provides necessary knowledge in the mentoring process. It undergoes a process of empowerment, leadership, and success (Power and Al., 2011; Roberts, A. 2000).

2.2 Why "Big sister"?

Big sister in the Bedouin or Arab society is a main character in the house after the mother; she helps in cleaning, cooking, and child caring (Al- Hassani. A., 2012). She tries to be a good modeling for her brothers and sisters and take responsibilities that empower her leadership skills. This name of the project was inspired by one of the first year students who described her mentor as a big sister after one year of peer mentoring. Later on, after discussing the project with the college president this name is adopted.

2.3 The project avatar:

The very beginning- 1st step:

It began in Fall Semester 2007 with the goal of increasing the internalization of training process during the college studies for the preschool students. It was motivated by two reasons:

During a collective interview, Bedouin female students in the early childhood program students expressed their fears of being sucked into the traditional teaching system when they finish college and join the teaching system in school, as did some of the college-graduated students, who adopted the traditional ways in teaching after finishing their studies in college. This reason led to the question:

Is the college training program and curricula enough for initialization the modern teaching process? How to strengthen the internalization process? It was suggested to adopt a peer-mentoring model. A peer mentor is defined as a resource, a helping hand, a sounding board, a referral service, providing both personal and professional support for students in the early stages of a graduate program. In peer mentoring, the mentor accompanies, analyzes, supports, instructs, empowers and provides necessary knowledge in the mentoring process. It undergoes a process of empowerment, leadership, and success (Power and Al) research (2011). Various studies (Hoban et al., 2009) found that mentoring increases self-confidence, professional growth, self-reflection, and problem-solving abilities among new / novice teachers as well as mentors. It also promotes peer-to-peer collaboration

Moreover, researchers show that mentoring models based on mutual learning are very effective on the process learning, since the mentor, who is a slightly more experienced colleague, and the mentee, together adopt a position of research, engages together in collaborative reflection, and builds new understandings and each one plays an important role in providing personal and professional input in the process Learning (Le Cornu & Ewing, 2008).

Reviewing all the benefits of the mentoring process encourages the director to adopt it accompanying by action research.

At the beginning of the year 2007-2008, the first year grade-training program was stopped according to the new Ministry curriculum. Therefore, there was a need to bridge the courses they study and the practice. This requires assisting the students in preparing and implementing the activities in a real class during the intensive experience week, which takes place twice a year. For this purpose, one 3rd year student (mentor) was recruited to one or two students in the 1st year (mentee). Individual and group meetings were held to discuss the missions. Students (mentor and mentee) organized the individual meetings every two weeks. While the tutor organized the group meetings to reflect the previous steps, goals, and draw the next action map. Part of the students was from the same place so they met more often on different occasions. First-year students (mentee) earned some benefits from this mentoring program:

Getting help in planning and preparing activities in a kindergarten.

Reporting a nice and fast socialization in college.

Meeting and experiencing the educational process in kindergarten.

".. The mentoring process was excellent, it was fun for me, especially when we attended the kindergarten, in which we tried to deal with the children"... (Ahlam)

".. I learn how to make an activity plan". (Ameera)

"...my mentor was responsible and accompanied me in every step I did... she was like **a big sister** (Najat)

"... I recommend this program for any 1st year student..." (Nuha)

"...My socialization process was better in the college. I felt confident" (Hana)

Third-year students (mentors) also earned some benefits from this mentoring program:

They got an extra credit academic point for tutoring.

They earned social and educational skills by guiding the younger students,

They felt leaders and motivated by getting the chance to lead other students.

"... This program made me feel more confident."

".. .Reveal more to my abilities." (Ziqrayat)

"... Acquaint with other (new) people" (Rasha)

“... Feeling I can be a leader...” (Iman)

“... Learn from my mistakes of last year..” (Khadija)

These feedbacks and much more about the program bring the head of the department who was the mentor at the same time to develop it further. The same students in the 1st year asked for additional guidance in the next year. this moves the project to the second stage of intensive mentoring time.

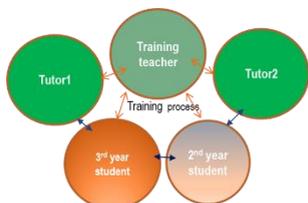


Figure3: Two Tutors Model in BSM

SecondStage: Two Tutors Model in BSM

Later in the Next year, the 2nd-year student was engaged with a 3rd-year student in the same class with the same teacher but there were two tutors who agreed to be in the program. Tutor1 of the 2nd year students and tutor2 of the 3rd year students. These two tutors have to be in touch with the training teacher, as usual, and visit their student. The two students, mentor, and mentee spend more time together in the same class: wacht each other, help each other and working together in many missions. Tutors’ visits occurred mostly at the same days, which adds more visitors to the kindergarten besides. This somewhat hindered the class teachers to be less welcoming. Tutors and students arrange two meeting along the year to reflect the training process improvements and its benefits on students which move the project to the next promotion stage.

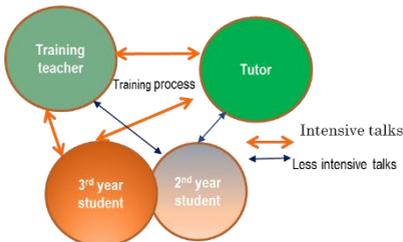


Figure 4: big sister peer- mentoring model

Third Stage: One Tutor for both students (Mentor and Mentee)

Later in the following year, the same tutor took two college year groups: 2nd-year students and 3rd-year students. She guides both groups in their curricula that is needed for each college year and bridges the issues. Meetings were conducted in separate groups and for the two groups together according to the subjects, plans and new issues arise during the training time on the field.

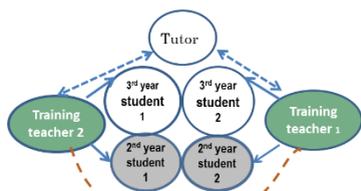


Figure 4: Working unit in two adjacent gardens

Fourthstage: Working unit in two adjacent kindergarten

This stage was promoted when field feedback meetings with one class feedback unit: tutor, training teacher mentor, mentee, was taking place and the other class unit join them and share them with their experience which make the two units to have more expanded feedback meeting and the cooperation between the students is expanded to create mentoring team who works together as one unite aiming to contribute to the mentee's training development, the kindergarten curricula, and teamwork. There was a meeting during the day when the teacher assistant takes the class in an activity giving the team to work together once a week to build the final program activities to the next week.

Students usually make contacts with the teachers prior to these meetings to know the upcoming events and issues in the

kinder and plan the ideas to the teachers. This plan of ideas strengthens the relation between all class staff and students. It gave another meaning to the training program

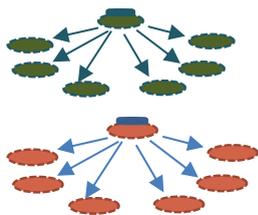


Figure 5: one group member mentoe her group

FifthStage: Creating a networking A In this stage the peer mentoring get another meaning. Every student felt the responsibility to check strengths and weaknesses in his training process. Additionally, all students in the two groups have to fill an anonymous questionnaire about every one in the group as they see them from time to time.

After sorting the points in categories, students take responsibility to work together to strengthen their points by helping each other, everyone with her strong points support others. It can be also showing special activities like telling a story, creative handmade jobs or any different thing she wants her fellows in the group to know. Both groups group members work together to support each other each make easier for everyone (Figure 5).

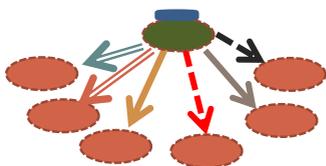


Figure 6:One group member mentors other roup

Later every group can choose one or more from its members to present an issue that she is expert in it to the other group (Figure 6)

These activities rise up during the discussions and add another meaning to the training and teaching process.

This model runs for seven years (it stopped in 2011 and 2016 when its director was in his sabbatical year. During every year two digital questionnaires were delivered to the students. All information discussed with the students that make the entire atmosphere nice and supportive.

3. Type of study, purpose, and participants,

This study is a qualitative action research study that follows the training process while implementing “the Big Sister Model (BSM). Since “Action research” requires ongoing collaboration between researcher and students during the training time. The participants were female Bedouin students in the Bedouin department of early childhood program; it starts with 1st-year students at “mentee position” while third-year students were the “Mentor”. During the process, it was moved to the 2nd-year student (mentee), while 3rd-year student keeps their position as mentors. The study Hypothesis leans on the theory that peer mentoring is very efficient in promoting students skills (Power and Al research, 2011). By collaborating students in the research process and involving them in its purpose, which is to promote the training, and mentoring process. This brings them to be more active in reflecting their steps during their training to bring a promotion and skills enhancement that rise from their needs according to their experience. The tutor or college director get the students involved in reconsideration the type of subjects and decision-making. The range of cooperation varies greatly, from sharing all the considerations related to the research subjects to a more limited level of cooperation. The guiding principle is that the practical people are important partners in the process, whether or not they are major partners, and therefore must be included in decisions concerning their fate and the future. Moreover, providing the feedback is a necessary cognitive need, almost the motivation to understand the field of action and to give meaning to their actions. Moreover, the practice of the practical people mobilizes the level of motivation to cooperate in achieving the goals of the project and intervention feed it (Bridges, D. 2001; Gaventa, J. & Cornwall, A. (2001).

The entire number of participants in the project is 6. of the continuing steps. All the group (students and tutor) make their own group laws and group life, based on the principles of collective decision-making: stages and anchored in the principles of change, (when to meet, what to discuss, How to take decisions, where to implement and how..., through compromise, movement, and freezing (Lieberman, 1980; Forsyth, 1990). According to Fisher, (2003), in peer mentorship, different values and conflicts must be constantly explored and sought to settle them democratically. This action should be taken up to clarify the issues and questions, to their hearts, to decide them and to take decisions that take into account the interests of all those involved in the process (Fisher, K., 2003). The group is the main tool by which changes are made among the participants in the research, and it is used as a decision-making framework. The decision-making process is cooperative and subject to the rules of discussion. Starting from the first steps and continuing forward through evaluating and improving it according to the results and needs. Director, students and evaluating department are involved in getting the results of the new model training process.

4. Study questions

Since peer-mentoring program is a good way to empower students as described before, this study aims to answer the following questions:

Is it possible to put two students from different years in the same training kindergarten in order to improve their experience and empower them?

Is it possible to streamline training by using the “Big Sister Model” (BSM)?

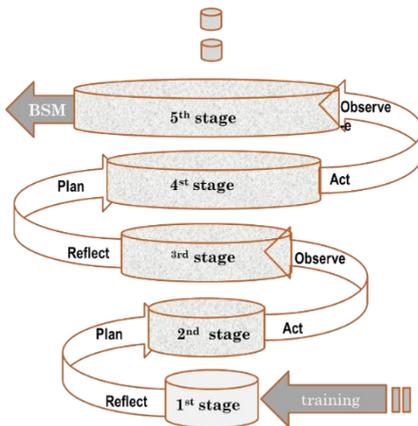


Figure 7: Spiral Promotion, step-by-step BSM

5. Research tool

The main research tools used for this study were the collective interviews group discussion. Besides the results of the monthly student training skills evaluating questionnaires and semester project questionnaire. This questionnaire was created during the implementing of the project to reflect the changes done during the project implementing and its impacts. The research strategy

This research has a spiral strategy that starts from the current situation, which was “the regular training system”. By reflecting all answers of the students and as a result of suggestion it was decided to do to “peer mentorship” as a first stage which was promoted according to the student’s backgrounds. Then every step comes after a previous step. As was described in chapter (2.3), it starts from the needs of the students who become the participants and co-researcher.

First stage: interviewing to reflect issues regarding the training system. The main conclusion from these interviews relying on another case study research done in the same place and time (Sada-gerges, 2017); this research has a spiral strategy, which starts from the current situation (The regular training system). Because of the reflection, peer mentorship was suggested at the first stage that was promoted according to the student’s backgrounds. Then every step comes after a previous step. As was described in chapter (2.2), it starts from the needs of the students who become the participants and co-researcher (Maynard & Furlong, 1993).

After one year in action and training taking into account all the notes, ideas reflected by the meetings of all the involved participants the program promote to another plan which led to Stage 2 Acting according to the plan and observing reflecting stage 3 and so on (figure7).

6. Results and discussion

6.1: BSM definition

Using a final questionnaire at the end of the every year to get a holistic description about the BSM was obligatory. Students give their opinion after being in the BSM for one year (as mentee) and for two years (as mentors). Nearly 14 students fill in an evaluating questionnaire every year for the last four years. Of course, this questionnaire will have more changes in the future since this program is dynamic and in a constant promotion. The participant Number in the last four years are 14 per year; 7mentors and 7 mentees (total=56). These phrases were repeated during meetings or previous open questionnaires.

“... My colleague in other training program was full of fears. I was relax..I felt more confident to go to a new class because I know that a big sister will wait for me their second year student speaking about the first day in the field...”: Second year student (mentee).

My mentor help me to find out my skills and to use it in the training activities...she is really leader.. I follow her and feel confident regarding the next year activities and context.): Second year student (mentee).

"...To help a peer is nice and gave me more confidence...I started to reveal more to my abilities...To know more about myself, to empower social skills... felt a leader": Third year student (mentor)

".. To be exposed another year to the same context was very good... I review with my mentee the same materials....."Third year student (mentor)

"...we have good team work. Everyone knows what part of the puzzle to put in the comprehensive picture/plan..." Third year student (mentor)

"My other colleague in other training programs works good but not relaxed, planned and well-structured like our team in the Big Sister Model": Third year student (mentor).

These phrases emphasize the contribution of the BSM. They were repeated almost in all interviews and questionnaires.

6. I.1-Definission the "big sister model (BSM):

About 44 (20 mentors and 24 mentees) of 56 (78.6%) choose to define the model as it literally sounds and as it was suggested from the beginning (a). It can be explained that participants are still influenced by the Bedouin culture in defining the elder sister role at home and choose to use the expression to express the similarities between the two roles. This means how much the participants see the importance of this role and it implies that the relation between them is very close like sisters. They share emotional moments together as well:

"... We bring breakfast to eat together..." "I was in her marriage the spite that it is away from my home..." she makes me a happy birthday surprise sharing the kindergarten staff..", "I took her opinion about choosing my fiancée..."
2.Cooperationbetween the two sisters. Also phrases in 6.II.b (*I was with here in many things. Helped her to use books in the library, how to arrange hair cover, how to use excel to make charts*)

6. I.2 The cooperation between the two sisters.

The big majority of the participant seems to agree that the cooperation between the two sisters takes place with all the activities as shown in the previous table (PartI.2). A full acceptance(100%),i.e. all students (28) of mentors and 28 of mentees, was to the phrase "planning activities together" because it seems that being together in the field and close to the training teacher encourage them to use their time and prepare the activities. All plans should be involving the peers together because there is a comprehensive weekly plan leaning in every peer duties in the kindergarten so they have to match activities together. This also leads to the other phrase "mutual support" (PartI.2.g). Being together and planning one plan obligate them to support each other so their plan will succeed.

Other phrases also for major acceptance. The small differences might be because of everyone opinion about how much the activity is perfect.

6. I.3. The contribution to the model

Sharing "decision-making" and "designing the future steps" (6.I.3 I,j) were unexpected issues. All the participants seem to feel contributing to the Model and like that. They were 6.of the discussions about improving the model or improving the tutor way of training the trainersand how to manage the relations between all partners. Sharing and being involved give satisfactory to the peers and make them responsible and committed to the program.

Table 4: BSMdefinition

6.I	Defining the model:	Mentor (28)	Mentee (28)
1. Point out how you define the "big sister model (BSM)".	a. An older sister supporting a younger sister, or	20 (71.4%)	24 (85.71%)
	b. Two sisters: one experienced person and one less experienced person who help one another.	8%	4%

6. II:	2. How much you agree with these phrases about the cooperation between the two sisters.	c. Planning activities together	28 (100%)	28 (100%)
		d. Consultation	22(79%)	25 (89 %)
		e. Performing activities and supplementary activities	25 (89 %)	27(95 %)
		f. Mutual feedback	24 (86%)	28(100%)
		g. Mutual support	27(95%)	27(95%)
		h. Experience reflection	26(92.%)	26(92 %)
	3. point out what is your contribution to the model	i. Sharing in making decision	28 (100%)	28 (100%)
		j. Designing the future steps	25 (89 %)	22(79%)

Mentor evaluation:

6. II.a. BSM Contribution to the Mentee / professional skills

Mentors evaluate their contribution to professional skills of the mentee (Daloz, L. A. 1990) in Table 5 6II.a. Half of them give score 5 (very strong) and 32% give score 4 (strong) to the phrase "Development of self-confidence of the mentee in the kindergarten" (II.a.1). This means that these mentors really think that they are a help to the mentee by supporting them to be more confident. Since, we speaking about training and teaching, this, of course, related to the other phrase (II.a.6): "How to implement an activity". Knowing what to do and how, in the training field, means to be confident. Thus, mentors understand they are supporting to the self-confidence. The same but fewer mentors seem to give the strong voting is what they give to the phrase (II.a.2): "How to develop a conversation with the children in the group". Talking and managing a conversation is very important to the mentee's professional skills especially when they work with a small group and introducing the activity to the children. Since the mentor was in this position in the previous year this is a strong point for her in knowing how to evaluate her support. Not all mentors have the ability and not all of them feel very good to support this skill or to train this skill. They know that the mentee has one more year of training before going out to the field. The phrases (6.II.a.) (7. How to treat children; 8. How to deal with learning problems; 9. How to deal with behavioral problems) are skills in which mentors cannot give full support on them because they are also still training these skills. However questionnaire answers show high scores, no. 4 (strong) and 5 (very strong). Most mentors (more than 60%) think they nicely supports the mentee. It is certainly very good and of course, it helps the tutor (the college mentor) to strengthening these skills better.

Phrase (6.II.a.10), (Give constructive criticism and make a reflection), Most mentors (64%), give high score or degree to the reflection they could give to mentee. Making a reflection to any activity put the reflector in a thoughtful and evaluating position that also enhance his way in making these activities. The phrase (6.II.a.11) (Be a modeling person), give the full picture about the responsibility that mentor feel commitment towards the mentee and the BSM by being a model person and try to give the good picture about the

Table 5: Mentor evaluation

6. II. Mentor evaluation		28				
II.a	BSM Contribution to the Mentee / professional skills Point out the following statements that you think you influenced on the mentee. Please rate from 1 (very weak) to 5 (very strong)	1 weak	2	3	4 strong	5 very strong
	1. Development of self-confidence of the mentee in the kindergarten	0	0	5 (18%)	9 (32%)	14 (50%)
	2. How to develop a conversation with the children in the group	0	0	4 14%	8 (29%)	14 (50%)
	3. Planning activities in the kindergarten	0	0	0	20 (71%)	8 (29%)
	4. Adapting activities to the subject, age and level of children	0	0	5 (18%)	9 (32%)	14 (50%)
	5. Preparing and creating ideas for activities,					
	6. How to implement an activity	0	0	0	14	14

					(50%)	(50%)
	7. How to treat children	0	0	9 (32%)	9 (32%)	10 (36%)
	8. How to deal with learning problems	0		8 (29%)	7 (25%)	13 (46%)
	9. How to deal with behavioral problems	0	0	9 (32%)	14 (50%)	5 (18%)
	10. Give constructive criticism and make a reflection	0	0	9 (32%)	9 (32%)	10 (36%)
	11. Be a modeling person	0	0	0	10 (36%)	18 (64%)
II.b	Are there other things that you think you influenced the mentee during the BSM? ...I was with here in many things. Helped her to use books in the library, how to arrange hair cover, how to use excel to make charts.....					
II.c	BSM Contribution to Mentor: Evaluate how BSM influenced on you Rate from 1 (very weak) to 5 (very strong)	1	2	3	4	5
	1. Self-confidence	0	0	0	4 14%	24 (86%)
	2. Development of training or mentoring skills	0	0	0	14 (50%)	14 (50%)
	3. Sense of leadership	0	0	0	13 (46%)	15 (52%)
	4. Feeling more responsible towards the kindergarten	0	0	0	14 (50%)	14 (50%)
	5. Improving observation skills	0	0	0	4 14%	24 (86%)
	6. Accept constructive criticism from the little sister	0	0	0	6 (21%)	22 (79%)
	7. Less stress created with the class partner comparing with the same level partner	0	0	0	3 (10%)	25 (89.28%)
	8. Assimilation of various topics and content	0	0	0	0	28 (100%)
II.d	Are there any more other things that you think you got or developed from your participation in the BSM? It was important to us to see the activities, which we work on it last year from another point of view again and evaluate it ... amazing					
II.e	Do you regret being in this program? If you come back one year, will you choose this program or the other program? In the beginning, I thought it will be very hard, but I want to be because I appreciated my mentor and I want to be good mentor as well. This is the best thing ever happened to me in college.					

6. II.c BSM Contribution to Mentor

Like mentees, mentors speak about improving personal and social skills. Being “*self-confidence*” can come true by being responsible to show her knowledge to the mentee. This is different from the regular program when the two peers or students from the same college year (grade). In most situation even if they are best students and best friends sometimes competition rise in front of the training teacher and the tutor which makes one of them in most cases looks “bright” who is capable and know everything and the other less capable. In the BSM program, any mentor whatever she is bright or not, will be superior to her mentee by knowledge. First, she was in the second year and know its materials; second, she was exposed to the third year materials by being watching and working with her mentor in the same program and the same class, which make her more, relax and confident. She is experienced with one more year and knows what is she going to do in the current year, all this make her feel able to lead and develop mentoring skills (phrases II.c.1-3). Being confident allow also her to

“accept constructive criticism” from her mentee because she has been their last year and understand what her mentee can get from the observing her (phrase II.c.6).

6. III Mentee Evaluation

BSM Contribution to the Mentee / professional skills

Looking at table 6 allowing having a comprehensive idea about the contribution of mentoring process on mentee in the BSM from the Mentee point of view. The majority of students (mentees) give high score to the “phrases III.1-12” which expressing the goals of the BSM. These goals are known to the mentees as something to be reached during the program to enhance the training process and its impacts. Which means they think that they achieved the BSM goals. All mentees think that this program built self-confidence regarding the professional skills (89% scores 5, 11% scores 4). The same in developing activities in the training class (89% scores 5, 11% scores 4). Almost the same while talking about “Preparing and creating ideas for activities”. Being with someone supporting and more experienced improve the personality and the professional skills (Power and Al., 2011; Roberts, A. 2000).

The lowest scores that the Mentees give in evaluating what they got from the BSM where moderate scores to the phrases (3: not high not weak):

“How to develop a conversation with the children in the group” (21%), “How to treat children” (18%), “How to deal with didactical problems” (18%), “How to deal with behavioral problems” (21%). All of these phrases talk about the relation preserve student- child. These skills come from the experience and being more time with children to assimilate the way to treat the various characters of children.

These mentees have only one-year experience with children working mostly in a small group. These skills need more experience to be improved them. Other students who are the majority, think that they got good skills.

An impressed impact of the BSM on mentees is the reflection skills. Reflection aims to explore how improvement can come from collecting evidence training. Being part of the weekly reflection meetings: with the tutor, the mentor, the training teacher, give them the modeling reflection,

Table 6: Impact from the peer mentoring (BSM)

6.III: Impact from the peer mentor (Second year responses)	Strong 5	4	3	2	weak 1
1. Development of self-confidence	25 (89 %)	3 (11%)	0	0	0
2. How to develop a conversation with the children in the group	8 (29%)	14(50%)	6 (21%)	0	0
3. Planning activities in the kindergarten	25 (89 %)	3(11%)	0	0	0
4. Acclimating activities to the subject, age and level of children	14 (50%)	6 (21%)	8 (29%)	0	0
5. Preparing and creating ideas for activities,	6 (21%)	22(79%)	0	0	0
6. How to implement an activity	22 (79%)	5 (18%)	1 (3%)	0	0
7. How to treat children	6 (21%)	17(60%)	5(18%)	0	0
8. How to deal with didactical problems	6 (21%)	17(60%)	5(18%)	0	0
9. How to deal with behavioral problems	14(50%)	8 (29%)	6 (21%)	0	0

10. Give constructive criticism and make a reflection	26(92. %)	7 (2%)	0	0	0
11. Be a personal example and modeling	26(92. %)	7 (2%)	0	0	0
12. be exposed to the next year curricula by watching the mentor activities	28 (100%)	0	0	0	0

All of answers show how much the students are satisfied from their mutual contribution. Most answers are strong to very strong which emphasize the sayings or the phrases as a stable statement with a "prove" regarding the BSM contribution.

7. Conclusions

Peer mentoring in the BSM adds another level in the social relation between students who practice teaching in the same class. There was less stress between the couple (the two preservice student), because they behave as a one learning-unit and they working as a team group to promote a shared project. The well-constructed professional development programme on BSM-mentoring promotes the quality of mentoring for enhancing preservice teachers' (Hudson, P.; Spooner-Lane, R.; Murray, M., 2013). Both of the students felt more self-confident in behaving during the training process; promote many skills: constructive reflection, team working preparing activities. They were exposed to another year training curricula, the second-year students learn about the next year curricula by watching the 3rd year training activities during the training day. The 3rd year students examine the second year-program curricula by mentoring and watching their mentees, which add assimilation and internalisation to the learning process. third year mentors add leading skills to what they promot during BSM (Grierson A. L.; Cantalini-Williams, M., Wideman-Johnston, T.; Tedesco, S. 2011). Besides the nice and supportive atmosphere of the team working and feeling relax and motivated to work together.

8. Recommendations

To continue in this program adding evaluation points or stations for participants skills with contrasting to other students from other training programs.

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Relationship Between the Socio-Educational Context and the Cognitive Performance Based on the WISC–IV Index Scores

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Abstract

Background: National and international studies attach special importance to the shared social and educational environment as an explanatory variable for intellectual performance in psychometric tests. Objective: To analyse the relationship between maternal education, number of books available at home, school starting age and extracurricular activities -as variables to measure socioeconomic, educational and environmental level- with WISC-IV level cognitive production. Method: A survey was implemented to 154 children, aged 6 to 12, who attend public schools² in the city of San Luis (Argentina). This sociodemographic survey was designed *ad hoc* and was implemented together with the Argentine version of the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children. ANOVA and Student's *t*-Tests were used to analyse the differences between the variables proposed from the data obtained and WISC-IV. Results: Associations were found between mothers' educational level and their children's Verbal Comprehension Production, Perceptual Reasoning, Working Memory and total IQ. In addition, significant differences were found between number of books available at home, school starting age, extracurricular activities and some WISC-IV index scores. Conclusion: the need to acknowledge the socio-environmental factors to develop a proper interpretation of the test production is ratified. In this context, an extended and integrated diagnostic device is proposed as a means to capture the complex scheme that emerges from the combination of capacities consolidated thanks to the stimulation provided by the environment and the development of specific abilities less influenced by environmental factors.

Keywords: intellectual capacity - WISC -IV – childhood – socio-educational context

Introduction

Latest generation conceptual matrices show that genetic programming requires environmental stimulation to complete the task started by the genome. When meeting others, neuronal circuits from the brain hemispheres evolve with the specificities that are then turned into the integration areas self-representation, the world around, constitutive systems of different cognitive abilities; as a consequence, ways of being and behaving with the animate and inanimate world are outlined (Gallese, 2011; Kandel, Schwartz y Jessell, 2001; Lecannelier, 2006; Sadurní, 2011).

From this perspective, human development, and particularly the evolution of cognitive functions is shaped as an open and complex organization, in an interplay with permanence and changes that accompany the evolutionary path, immersed in a specific time and contextual space, and influenced by them. Every intellectual potentiality and difficulty is developed in the crosslinking with the cultural and family environments. Recent studies give special importance to the shared environment, to parents' education, and mainly to the mother's, as some possible variables to account for children's intellectual development and school performance. (Labin, Brenlla y Taborda, 2015; Fuica, Lira, Alvarado, Araneda, Lillo, Miranda,

¹ CONICET stands for *Consejo Nacional de Investigaciones Científicas y Técnicas* (National Scientific and Technical Research Council), and it is the main organization in charge of the promotion of Science and Technology in Argentina.

² Public schools are part of the free public education and commonly include kindergarten, primary and secondary schools.

Tenorio y Perez-Salas, 2014; Brenlla y Taborda, 2013). To disregard the fact already mentioned is detrimental both to interpret the results obtained in psychometric tests and to advance health promotion programs (Fletcher-Janzen, 2010; Flanagan y Kaufman, 2006).

From this perspective, the research study in course focusses on the study of the potential influences of the stimulation received from the sociocultural environment in the interplay of crystallized and fluid abilities to solve the items in the Argentine version of the fourth edition of the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children (WISC-IV).

The author of the test defined intelligence as the individual's global capacity to behave with intention, think rationally and act in an effective way with his surroundings. The scale's fourth version takes into account the advances in psychometry, neurosciences and the "Hierarchy Theory of Intelligence" (CHC), developed from the proposals by Cattell, Horn and Carroll, in an attempt to introduce the differentiated evaluation of crystallized abilities –explored from the Verbal Comprehension Index–, of fluid reasoning processes –analysed from the Processing Speed, Working Memory and Perceptual Reasoning Index scores–; at the same time the test measures global intelligence in an accurate way. In Argentina, there are very few current bibliographic reports on the cognitive domains based on this psychometric instrument. There are studies developed only in Buenos Aires –both in Capital Federal and the surrounding areas (*conurbano bonaerense*). Consequently, it is worth expanding and replicating these studies in the rest of the country. The main purpose is to provide valid evidences for the analysis based on the test in different socio-educational contexts, following the guidelines provided by the *International Test Commission* in relation to the responsible use of psychological instruments.

Method

Participants

The sample was made up of 154 children, aged 6 to 12, and divided in groups according to their ages. The group had 89 boys and 65 girls, all of whom attend public schools in the city of San Luis (Argentina). Children and parents accepted to participate willingly; they were chosen using a purposive sampling method.

Instruments

I) Survey: it was designed *ad hoc* with the aim of exploring the maternal academic antecedents, children's previous school experiences, number of books available at home and the children's extracurricular activities. All the variables mentioned were taken as proxy indicators to measure socio-educational stimulation.

II) The Argentine version of the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children, Fourth Edition (WISC-IV) (Taborda, Barbenza y Brenlla, 2011). This instrument is administered individually and evaluates subject's global intelligence (FSIQ) through composite scores: Verbal Comprehension (VCI), Perceptual Reasoning (PRI), Working Memory (WMI) and Processing Speed (PSI).

Design and procedure

Once the educational institutions gave permission to carry out the study, parents and children were informed about the methodology of work. Those who decided to participate signed an informed consent. After that, the socio-demographic survey was administered to mothers and the complete version of WISC-IV was administered to children in two meetings. Then, the protocols were scored blind by two professionals.

A descriptive design was implemented together with a quantitative methodology. From the results obtained, tests for normality of distribution tests and variance homogeneity were applied, so as to ensure the proper use of normality tests in the variance analysis (ANOVA) and Student's t-test. In order to know if the variable maternal educational level has significant effects, the group was divided into three groups. The first group was made up of children whose mothers had incomplete primary or secondary schooling (less than 12 years of education). The second group was made by subjects whose mothers had 12 years of education, which means they have finished secondary school. The third group was made up of children whose mothers have been to University or to a tertiary level institution (more than 12 years of education). The variable books at home was computerized into two groups; group 1: 1-25 books and group 2: more than 26 books. The variable extracurricular activities was also taken into account. In relation to the variable school starting age, the first group was formed by children who started maternal education at the age of 1, 2 or 3; while in the second group children started school at the age of 4 or 5.

Results

Variance analysis showed significant differences between maternal educational level and the VIC measures [F (2;149) = 14.92; $p = .000$]; PRI [F (2;149) = 7.88; $p = .001$]; WMI [F (2; 149) = 11.30; $p = .000$]; and FSIQ [F (2; 149) = 14.33; $p = .000$] but not for PSI [F (2; 149) = 1.74; $p = .169$]. *Post hoc* tests reveal that there are differences between the group of children whose mothers have a lower educational level and the groups of children whose mothers have 12 or more years of education. The association between number of books at home and WISC-IV scores has a significant impact on mean scores PRI [$t(2.32) = .007$; $p = .021$], WMI [$t(2.23) = .152$; $p = .027$], and FSIQ [$t(2.36) = .529$; $p = .020$]. Similarly, the analysis of differences in WISC-IV mean scores in relation to the beginning of early childhood education showed differences in the groups studied only in FSIQ [group 1: $M = 97.50$, $SD = 11.39$; group 2: $M = 92.69$, $DE = 12.62$; $t(2.1) = .503$; $p = .034$]. In relation to WISC-IV differences according to extracurricular activities, significant differences were recorded for the VCI measures [extracurricular activities: $M = 94.53$, $SD = 12.17$; subjects that do not do any extracurricular activities: $M = 89.19$, $SD = 12.28$; $t(2.50) = .686$; $p = .013$]; WMI [subjects that do extracurricular activities: $M = 100.10$, $SD = 11.80$; subjects that do not do any extracurricular activities: $M = 93.79$, $SD = 13.63$; $t(2.96) = .042$; $p = .004$], PSI [subjects that do extracurricular activities: $M = 102.07$, $SD = 12.28$; subjects that do not do any extracurricular activities: $M = 97.09$, $SD = 12.90$; $t(2.37) = .693$; $p = .019$] and FSIQ [subjects that do extracurricular activities: $M = 96.97$, $SD = 11.06$; subjects that do not do extracurricular activities: $M = 91.21$, $SD = 13.45$; $t(2.79) = .729$; $p = .006$].

Discussion

The purpose of this article is to analyse the differences in the performance of children in tasks that imply the use of crystallized and fluid abilities, according to the socio-educational conditions.

The results obtained show associations between maternal education level and their children's VCI, PRI, WMI and FSIQ. In this sense, significant differences were found between number of books at home and indexes VC, PR and FSIQ; significant differences were also found between most indexes and extracurricular activities. Differences were significant for FSIQ in relation to school starting age. These differences clearly blur in the other domains evaluated.

The data obtained show the impact of environmental variables in the consolidation of crystallized abilities and in the cognitive processes that imply the use of fluid reasoning domains such as attention, concentration, ability to maintain in the conscience information that is activity and can render results. Environmental variables also exert an influence on concept formation and recognition, perception of pattern relationships and understanding implications. On the other hand, in the processing speed tests that imply abilities to combine visual stimuli, non-related patterns or partially hidden patterns, production is homogeneous in the groups studied; so, it can be said that these activities depend very little on environmental stimuli. (Flanagan, 1998).

As a consequence, access to artistic, sports and cultural extracurricular activities and to a bigger number of verbal, perceptual and scientific stimuli provided by mothers with large academic training correlates with unequal access to socio-educational opportunities in the future. In this sense, there is evidence of the limitations to consolidate crystallized and fluid abilities reflected in the cultural transmission from generation to generation. What has been outlined above is congruent with several updated research studies that evidence the existence of a mutual codetermination between subjectivity, environment, sociohistorical context, genetic vulnerability and brain development (Rebollo, Carriquiry, Christophersen, y Rodríguez, 2010; Kandel, 2007).

From the perspective outlined above, the use of psychometric instruments is understood as a testing method that should be complemented with cross-sectional studies: qualitative interpretation, clinical analysis of results and study of recurrences throughout the whole clinical diagnosis and/or educational process. Therefore, the use of an extended and integrated diagnostic device is proposed, a device that takes into account the complexities and the relevance of psychological evaluation for a person's life. Extended diagnosis is the implementation of test-retest techniques so as to evaluate the symptoms evolution –after six months or a whole year of treatment, depending on the disturbance observed at the beginning– before delivering categorical diagnoses (Brenlla y Tabora, 2013).

In this sense, it is advisable to have a test taker that understands the child and the group he/she belongs to and the socio environmental factors surrounding him/her to develop a broader interpretation of the production registered in the WISC-IV. At the same time, the results show the importance of outlining public policies to bridge the current sociocultural gap through the design of specific stimulation programmes.

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Supervision of learners with intellectual disabilities in a special school: *In loco parentis* of teachers as a wellness perspective

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Abstract

This chapter addresses a study that was conducted at a special school for learners with intellectual disabilities in the Bojanala region of South Africa's North West Province. After all, the learners are the heartbeat of the school; in their absence, the school, its buildings and facilities, and even the teachers would be rendered pointless. The aim of this study was to explore ways in which learners are supervised and cared for, considering their mild, moderate and (in a few cases) severe intellectual disabilities. This longitudinal study took place over a period of three years and was embedded in a community engagement project conducted at a particular special school in said region. Due to the nature of a project, action research was selected as the approach most likely to yield useful results over an extended period of time. Additionally, Hettler's Wellness Theory (1980) was used as the theoretical framework by which to investigate how this school's teachers and other personnel adhered to the *in loco parentis* principle - i.e. teachers' legal imperative to assume some of parental functions and responsibilities, including protecting learners' physical and psychological wellbeing. As such, the school management team (SMT) and teachers made up the study's participants. Data were collected by means of questionnaires, interviews and observations. In their encounters with the school management team, the researchers realised that it is particularly crucial to ensure learner safety at special schools. Initial findings also revealed that most of the teachers employed at the school had not received training on teaching at a special school. Furthermore, teachers indicated that they were aware of their specific roles, stating that they only needed to be reminded of what they needed to do in order to ensure learner safety at all times. They pointed out that they simply followed the duty roster with regard to learner safety. This entails teaching learners about dangerous objects like garden utensils and how to remove them from the school premises in addition to adhering to the school safety policy. The teachers further revealed that 24-hour security personnel were employed by the school and that the school premises were bordered by a fence. Meanwhile, the SMT indicated that, although the school did have a safety policy, threats to learner safety persisted. For example, learners were not provided with protective equipment while working in the workshops. The SMT listed the potential consequences of this unsafe school environment as physical injuries, bullying, kidnapping, arson, harassment, and teen pregnancies. Since the study was transformative in nature and action research was relevant, there was a need for intervention. Thus, the findings of the study were shared with the SMT. Furthermore, it was clear from conversations with teachers that they needed intervention, including in-service training. The intervention process was discussed with the school management team and all staff members. It was patently obvious that the majority of the teachers and some of the management team did not have specialised training in special needs or inclusive education and that they were not aware of the needs of learners with intellectual disabilities. The SMT thus highlighted the need for training for all staff members in how to adhere to the *in loco parentis* principle.

Keywords: Intellectual disabilities, wellness, health promotion, safety, *in loco parentis*, supervision, bill of rights, professional teaching staff, behavioural problems, special school.

Introduction

Intellectual disabilities are defined by their advent during a crucial developmental period of the sufferer. They are characterized by sub-average intellectual functioning, with sufferers testing with Intelligent Quotient (IQ) scores of 70 below

and demonstrating deficits in at least two areas of adaptive behaviour; i.e. communication, self-care, home living, social skills, self-direction, learning, leisure and work (Intellectual Disability Rights Service, 2009, pp. 1).

Meanwhile, education becomes meaningful only when learners, regardless of their intellectual capacity or abilities, are able to pursue their educational rights in an environment that is both safe and secure (Joubert, 2015, pp. 153). Public school educators are obligated to supervise learners for the full duration of the school day; this includes time spent participating in extra-mural activities. Moreover, extra care is needed when dealing with intellectually disabled learners since many of them, especially those suffering from autism, are unable to care for themselves as well as other children are able. As such, South African common law dictates that educators must assume the responsibility to care for children from their parents while they are at school or involved in official school activities. Note that educators are not expected or allowed to replace parents, but they are accountable for anything that happens to learners while they are at school. Roos, Oosthuizen and Smit (2009, pp. 126) posit that the *in loco parentis* principle obligates educators to carry out caring supervision over learners' psychological and physical welfare, since they are impressionable and immature persons. In keeping with this, Coetzee (2007, pp. 74) argues that educators are vested with both "delegated" and "original" authority to take good care of the children placed in their charge. Teachers are supposed to ensure their duty of care on learners as *bonus paterfamilias* (i.e. to act as any reasonable person would act given the circumstances). This duty begins when the first learner arrives at the school in the morning and continues until the last learner has left the school in the afternoon. Geographically, the bounds of teachers' responsibilities extend to a few meters beyond the boundaries of the school premises; i.e. the immediate vicinity of the school.

Theoretical Framework

The perspective that guided the study in question was Hetler's (1980) Wellness Theory, as expounded on by Van Lingen (2000), which defines wellness as a continuous process of holistic development based on personally determined goals. Hetler (*ibid.*) adds that there are six dimensions pertinent to human development: physical, emotional, social, spiritual, intellectual and career wellness. According to Myers, Sweeney and Witmer (2000, pp. 252), meanwhile, wellness is:

A way of life orientated toward optimal health and well-being in which body, mind and spirit are integrated by the individual to live life more fully.

This theoretical framework was of great use to the researchers in the study at hand as it helped them to better understand the ways in which the SMT and teachers supported learners in their holistic development across all wellness dimensions. The framework also assisted researchers in identifying gaps in teachers' knowledge and skills, hindering their ability to provide adequate learner support.

Legal Framework for Learner Safety

In the Republic of South Africa, the supervision of learners with intellectual disabilities in special schools is governed by the following legal framework:-

1. The 2007 United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities and Optional Protocol

The preamble to the United Nations *Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities* (2007) reaffirms that all human rights and fundamental freedoms as well as the needs of persons with disabilities are to be fully guaranteed without discrimination. In terms of Article 10 of this document (*ibid*) :

[The] parties reaffirm that every human being has the inherent right to life and shall take all necessary measures to ensure its effective enjoyment by persons with disabilities on an equal basis with others.

Moreover, Article 12 of the *Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities* (*ibid.*) holds that the life of a disabled person matters just as much as that of his or her able-bodied counterpart. In most circumstances, disabled children rely on able-bodied persons to assist them both mentally and physically to safely navigate dangerous environments. Unsafe environments therefore pose a particular threat to the disabled person's right to life.

2. The Constitution of South Africa, 1996

a. The right to education (Section 29)

In terms of Section 29 of *The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa* (1996a), all South Africans have the right to basic education. This right can only be fulfilled in a safe school environment. The State must therefore ensure that public schools are free of drugs, weapons and other potentially dangerous elements. When Government fails in this mandate, many learners are forced to drop out of school to protect their own safety and are thus deprived of their right to basic education. Parents cannot be forced to enrol their children in schools where threats to their children's lives and wellbeing abound. Moreover, educators cannot provide learners with basic education if their own right to safety cannot be guaranteed.

b. Equality (Section 9)

The Constitution advocates the right to equal protection and benefit under the rule of law. Section 9(3) (Republic of South Africa, 1996a) states the following:

The State may not unfairly discriminate directly or indirectly against anyone on one or more grounds, including race, gender, sex, pregnancy, marital status, ethnic or social origin, colour, sexual orientation, age, disability, religion, conscience, belief, culture, language and birth.

Disabled children in South Africa are among those groups of people who qualify as previously disadvantaged. Therefore, as per the current dispensations affirmative action policy, special attention is paid to this group when it comes to matters such as employment and education to protect them against unfair discrimination. The Criminal Justice Support Network (CJSN) (2009) defines discrimination as follows:

[Discrimination] is treating a person, or group of people, less favourably than others would be treated in same circumstances because of their membership of a particular group, such as having a disability or being a woman.

Thus, any form of negligence in terms disabled children's safety on the part of educator may amount to unfair discrimination.

c. Human Dignity (Section 10)

Section 10 of *The Constitution* states that "everyone has inherent dignity and the right to have their dignity respected and protected" (Republic of South Africa, 1996a). Bullying and sexual violence violate the human dignity of disabled learners. Female learners, in particular, are often forced to drop out of school to escape violent school environments (Prinsloo, 2009, pp. 53). To combat this, user-friendly infrastructure and approachable social services personnel should be put in place to ensure safe schooling environments for disabled learners. The absence of such infrastructure and social services can be regarded as a serious infringement on the disabled learner's right to human dignity.

d. The right to life (Section 11)

Although Section 11 of *The Constitution* states that, "everyone has the right to life" (Republic of South Africa, 1996a), unsafe school environments continue to pose threats to the right to life of learners. For example, corporal punishment and bullying, among others, can be considered violations of this section. When learners are left unsupervised, the risk of them fighting and or otherwise injuring themselves becomes far greater. This is evidenced by the proliferation of media reports of stabbings, bullying, and rape in South African public schools over the past several years.

e. Freedom and Security of Person (Section 12)

In terms of Section 12 of *The Constitution*, the freedom and security of a person refers to their being safe from all forms of violence, torture, and cruel, inhuman and/or degrading treatment (Republic of South Africa, 1996a). This applies as much to intellectually disabled learners as to any other South African citizen. Thus, name-calling and other forms of degrading treatment and discrimination based on their disabilities amounts to infringement of this right.

f. Privacy (Section 14)

In terms of Section 14 of *The Constitution*, infringement on a person's right to privacy includes accessing their personal information in order to divulge it to third parties (Republic of South Africa, 1996a). The personal information of disabled learners is of a particularly sensitive nature and so must be handled with care in order to remain confidential, in keeping with this section of *The Constitution*. It is the responsibility of the school management team, together with the teaching staff, to ensure that learners' privacy is maintained.

Nevertheless, it should be noted that, in terms of Section 36 of *The Constitution*, no right is absolute and can be limited provided the limitation is reasonable and justifiable (Republic of South Africa, 1996a). In all human rights, safety comes first. This simply means that an individual's right of to privacy can be limited if preserving this right may endanger the individual's safety or that of other citizens. For example, if it is suspected that a learner has brought drugs or weapons to school, their right to privacy must be infringed upon to enable a search of their person and property.

g. Safe environment (Section 24)

Barry (2006, pp. 111) posits that the legal duty of care vested upon schools requires that they take action to prevent any foreseeable harm to learners in their charge. The SMT is responsible for drawing up a duty roster to ensure that all educators are involved in supervision. Such a roster will also serve as evidence of accountability in case of any incidents in which learners are harmed or threatened with harm.

3. The South African Schools Act, 84 of 1996

Section 8(a) of the *South African Schools Act* (84 of 1996) (Republic of South Africa, 1996b) advocates the search for and seizure of drugs and weapons in schools and other public areas. Moreover, the Minister of Education permits schools to utilise search devices for this purpose and to contact that South African Police Services (SAPS) to conduct random searches. In such cases, a police official may, without a warrant, conduct a search of any public school premises, provided there is sufficient reason to suspect the presence of such contraband. All people within the public school at the time of operation may be subjected to a search. Any weapons and/or drugs found during the search will be seized.

4. The Regulations for Safety Measures at Public Schools (2001) as amended in 2006

In 2001, the Minister of Education declared public schools to be violence- and drug-free zones in terms of Section 61 of the *South African Schools Act* (Republic of South Africa, 1996b). Safety measures must thus be in place in order for schools to remain free of drugs and other dangerous objects. These safety measures should be ensured in the school safety policy and should include the following:

- a. People are prohibited from carrying dangerous objects onto the public school premises.
- b. Illegal drugs are forbidden on the public school premises.
- c. No person must be allowed to enter the public school premises under the influence of alcohol or drugs.
- d. No form of violence or unrest will be allowed on public school premises.

In keeping with the *South African Schools Act* (Republic of South Africa, 1996b), school safety policies should also allow police officers to conduct random searches, as discussed under Point 3.

5. The Children's Act, 38 of 2005

The Children's Act, 38 of 2005 is derived from Section 28 of *The Constitution*, which holds that the best interests of the child are of paramount importance in all matters pertaining to the child. As such, Section 9 of the *Children's Act* (38 of 2005) (Republic of South Africa, 2005) states that in all matters concerning the care, protection and wellbeing of a child - the child's best interests are of paramount importance. According to Joubert (2015, pp. 169), Section 10 of the *Children's Act* (Republic of South Africa, 2005) states that every child of such an age, maturity and stage of development as to be able to participate in any matter concerning that child, has the right to participate in an appropriate way, and that views expressed by the child must be given due consideration. In other words, within the context of this study, the law requires that the learner's voice be heard in all matters pertaining to his or her educational. Within this paradigm, it is clear that more serious attention needs to be paid to hearing the voices of intellectually disabled learners, lest their disabilities prevent them from effectively communicating their needs and desires.

Research Methodology

The study in question was embedded in a transformative-pragmatic paradigm, which employed both quantitative and qualitative methods for data collection. To ensure adherence to the relevant ethical considerations, the project was cleared by the University of South Africa ethics committee and the Bojanala regional office of the North West Province Department of Education. Participants included the school management team and teachers at a special school for learners with

intellectual disabilities in that region. The researchers used questionnaires, interviews and observations for a data collection. Manual thematic content analysis, as outlined by Henning, Van Rensburg and Smit (2004, pp. 179), was used to analyse the data. Frequency tables were compiled based mainly on teachers' perceptions of how supervision was conducted at the school, whereas more in-depth data was obtained from both the SMT and the teachers. Out of this, the following themes emerged:

- Inadequately qualified educators;
- Safety concerns related to learner transportation;
- Safety concerns in workshops and the garden;
- The importance of effective feeding and health schemes;
- The need for a functional roster for playground supervision.

Risk Environment

School Playground

The school playground is the place where learners usually spend their leisure time during and after school hours. Schools are required to take reasonable steps to assess and respond to potential risks of harm to their learners (Barry, 2006, pp. 113) and this responsibility extends beyond the bounds of the classroom. School managers should ensure the presence of educators on the playground whenever they are in use by learners. Indeed, Joubert (2015, pp. 179) posits that the *in loco parentis* responsibility of educators starts from the time the learners enter the school premises and continues until the last learner leaves at the end of the school day.

Sports Grounds

Most school extra-mural activities take place on site on the school sports grounds, where injury in the normal course of play is inevitable for learners participate in school sports (Joubert, 2015, pp. 179) such as athletics, soccer, rugby, netball, cricket, and so forth. In light of this (and to prevent more serious injuries) educator supervision of the sports grounds supervision is essential. Such supervision is even more important in special schools, where disabled learners may be uniquely vulnerable to injury. In addition, all schools must obtain signed consent forms from parents before allowing learners to participate in school sporting activities. Joubert (2015, pp. 174) asserts that the following information should be included in such consent forms:-

1. The purpose of the school activity;
2. The nature of the school activity undertaken;
3. The full fixture of the school activity with the name of the supervising educator and his or her contact details;
4. The kind of transport, accommodation and food arrangements that have been made for away-from-school activities.

It is important to note that schools are not allowed to request parents to sign indemnity forms, exempting the school and educators from liability for damages. Such forms, even if they are signed by parents or learners, are not legally binding and the school will still be obligated by law to provide compensation for damages.

Transportation of Learners

Although the majority of South African learners currently utilise public transport, there are a number of learners whose parents bring them to and fetch them from school. In this regard, Section 5.10.1 of the Department of Education's *Guidelines to ensure quality education and support in special schools and special school resource centres* (2007a) states that a special school must provide transport for all those learners who require transport in order to be able them to access the school. The guidelines further recommend that the transport subsidy for special schools, both residential and non-residential, should be evaluated regularly to ensure adequacy. Furthermore, transportation companies that convey learners to and

from school should register with the school, since their activities are interconnected with those of the school. In this regard, the Department of Basic Education's *Regulations for Safety Measures at Public Schools* (Department of Basic Education, 2007, schools must ensure that the following conditions are met:-

1. The drivers of such vehicles are in possession of valid driver's licences and professional driving permits.
2. The transport company or the owner of the vehicles provides the school with the following:
 - a. Insurance and roadworthy certificates for each vehicle;
 - b. Passenger liability insurance documentation.
3. The vehicle transporting learners has a fire extinguisher.

Additionally, certain challenges are posed when learners are dropped off outside the school premises since somebody needs to monitor them until they enter the school. Schools should thus ensure that all learners (including both those who use public transport and those who are transported by their parents) are both dropped off and collected inside the school yard to ensure their safety before and after school.

Workshops and Craft Centres

Learners are taught practical skills such as woodwork in school workshops and craft centres. Whilst these are very valuable skills to impart to learners with intellectual disabilities, the kind of equipment and substances involved in such activities can pose serious threats to learners' safety. In terms of the South African *Occupational Health and Safety Act* (85 of 1993), learners, like employees, are entitled to a safe working environment and it is the school's duty to ensure that potential hazards and risks are eliminated or at least mitigated (Republic of South Africa, 1993). Woodwork tools like saws, jointers, boring machines and the like can cause injuries if learners do not use them properly and the noise and sawdust that they produce can also be detrimental to learners' wellbeing. Learners with strong allergies can develop serious respiratory problems such as chronic bronchitis if they are repeatedly exposed to sawdust and persistent exposure to loud noises can cause permanent damage to learners' hearing. Therefore, personal protective equipment (PPE) such as dust masks, respirators and earmuffs must be provided to learners under the supervision of educators to ensure the proper use of PPE and adherence to sound health and safety practices.

Garden

At the special school where this study was conducted, as part of the focus on gardening as a learning area in the curriculum, each learner is assigned a portion of the school yard in which to cultivate a garden. As with woodwork, this valuable practical learning experience does pose some safety hazards. Garden tools such as spades, garden forks, and hoes used to loosen the soil can be dangerous; especially when they are used by intellectually disabled children. Learners working in the garden thus need educator supervision to minimize the risk self-injury and injuring to others. Additionally, the proper PPE, such as gloves and safety boots, must be provided to learners to further minimise the risk of injury.

Road Safety

The special school in the study is situated in a rural area along a main road, which learners coming from the village have to cross in order to gain entry to the school. This situation poses a serious threat to learners' safety as there are no traffic signs or road markings to clearly indicate a pedestrian crossing, and there is no scholar patrol on duty to assist learners in crossing the road before and after school. This situation is especially disconcerting if one considers the fact that intellectually disabled learners often need more assistance in such situations than their able-bodied counterparts do. This is yet another instance by which we are reminded that even learners with only mild intellectual disabilities have significant difficulty in effectively managing their lives without sufficient support and training.

Access to School Premises

All schools ought to have well-trained security guards at their points of entry to control access to the premises. Security guards employed in special school must receive additional training on how to interact with intellectually disabled learners (Department of Basic Education, 2007b). All people entering the school premises are subjected to searches. It is advised that visitors be required to produce identity documents and provide their details before they are granted entry to the school.

Collection of children from the school must also be monitored to ensure that the right child is collected by the right parent or designated person. The school will be held liable if any child goes missing during school hours.

RequirementS for safe environmentS in Special schools

Trained staff

The Department of Basic Education's *Guidelines to ensure quality education and support in special schools and school resource centres* (2007b) advocate that staff in special schools should include professional teaching staff as well as professional and non-professional support staff to ensure a learning environment and support structure suitable for children with special needs.

1. Professional Teaching Staff

Special schools require well trained professional educators who are specifically qualified to teach intellectually disabled learners. The safety and scholastic development of intellectually disabled learners can be jeopardised if they are supervised by educators who know nothing about their needs. Prospective staff members must be thoroughly screened before they are appointed to ensure that they suitable to work with children with special needs (Department of Basic Education, 2007b). According to the aforementioned guidelines (Department of Basic Education, 2007b), professional teaching staff should have the following skills if inclusive education is to be supported:

- A first degree or diploma, which includes training on special needs or inclusive education;
- Training in the development of Inclusive Learning Programmes;
- Engagement in ongoing professional development related to the needs of the learners;
- Competence in the methods of communication utilised by the learners in the school.

It is also recommended that learning support teachers and teaching assistants be included on the teaching staff. Special schools should adhere to the teacher-learner ratio recommended by the Department when appointing teachers.

2. Psychologists

Individuals with intellectual disabilities often also suffer from associated mental illnesses (Intellectual Disability Rights Service, 2009) and therefore require the support of a psychologist. Psychologists can easily diagnose and assess the nature of both the intellectual disability and the mental illness and subsequently recommend the most appropriate modes of support. At times, intellectually disabled people may have more than one disability that, in the absence of a psychologist to make a proper diagnosis, often goes undetected. It should be noted that a single psychologist can be appointed at District level to oversee a number of special schools rather than focus on just one school. Through partnership with psychologists, special schools can ensure optimal safety and support for all learners, since each learner's particular needs can be identified and understood.

3. Social Workers

The services of the social workers are inevitably required when one is dealing with intellectually disabled learners, particularly when those learners demonstrate behavioural problems. Among other services, social workers, like psychologists, can provide counselling to learners. It is the responsibility of the social worker to liaise with learners' parents and guide them to the appropriate support channels. Intellectually disabled learners who pose a threat to the safety of other learners can also be directed to social workers.

4. Nursing Staff

As nursing staff are fairly scarce, it is recommended that health professionals be appointed by the District and stationed at special school resource centres to ensure their accessibility to multiple schools (Department of Basic Education, 2007b). More importantly, nurses should be required to pay regular visits to special schools to ensure that prescription medication, where relevant, is being administered correctly. Ensuring the safety of intellectually disabled learners in class and surrounding is not only dependant on educators creating a safe physical environment; learners' internal functioning must also be regulated and this internal regulation is often performed by medication.

Recommendations for a Maintaining a Safe Special School Environment

Schools should draft simple posters outlining their safety policies and procedures and display these in all classrooms. This will assist in maintaining a risk-free environment for staff and learners. Unsafe conditions must be identified and reported to the school office immediately. It is the responsibility of educators to provide sufficient supervision in the classroom. Under no circumstances should intellectually disabled learners be left unattended in the classroom or on the school grounds. As such, principals should refrain from calling educators to the office during class time and staff meetings should be scheduled for after school, once the learners have already gone home. Additionally, the security of the building and perimeter fences should be checked regularly.

Discussion of Findings

Inadequately Qualified Educators

The researchers found that, of the 22 teaching staff members employed the school, only four had qualifications specialising in inclusive education. Eighteen of these educators only had generic three-year teaching qualifications, with only the aforementioned four teachers being qualified at NQF Level 8. The challenge was that it was not easy for the four relevantly qualified teachers to guide or teach the other 18 staff members how a special school should be run. These less qualified staff members were frustrated by the need to teach these learners in a more holistic way than they had been trained to do. As Hetler (1980) explains, for all wellness requirements to be satisfied at a special school, teachers need to make sure that every learner's intellectual, emotional, social, physical, and spiritual potential is unleashed in addition to preparing them to be eligible for employment upon completion of their schooling. Teachers expressed their desired for skills development interventions to better prepare learners for gainful employment. The challenge is to prepare students to enter the workforce by the time they graduate at age 21 so that they can support themselves financially, without having to rely solely on government disability grants. Furthermore, teachers were worried about the teacher-to-learner ratio in their classrooms, with the large class sizes making it difficult for them to supervise learners properly. As such, they expressed the need for assistant teachers to be employed at the school to provide support in this regard.

Safety Concerns related to Learner Transportation

The study revealed that almost half of the learner population used public transport facilities to travel to and from school. It was clear that the school's minibus was not sufficient to transport all learners. Learners from neighbouring villages travelled on the backs of *bakkies* (small trucks) with canopies not designed or intended for this purpose but rather for the transportation of goods. Due to socioeconomic constraints, parents had no choice but to depend on this highly unsuitable and even dangerous mode of transportation for their children. Sadly, no staff member raised the issue of the clear need for a school learner transportation service, despite the fact that they were all aware of these issues and many even transported learners themselves. This situation is clearly having a very negative impact on learner safety.

Safety Concerns in Workshops and the Garden

Learners in the various skills classes were grouped according to their abilities and interests in order to prepare them for the most suitable careers. Unfortunately, the classrooms, workshops and outdoor spaces where welding, electrical work, carpentry, needlework, and gardening skills were taught only accommodated learners with mild intellectual disabilities. In other words, only those learners who possessed of the intellectual capacity to understand workshop safety practices and to take the necessary precautions were truly safe in these environments. Nevertheless, it was encouraging to discover that all learners were supervised by teachers at all times in these environments. This is significant as the inadequate safety precautions made it necessary for an adult present to prevent accidents. With regard to gardening, teachers encountered the challenge of learners wanting to water the garden during teaching periods when they became bored with academic subject matter. Teachers allowed this, despite the risk involved in these learners being left unattended.

The Importance of Effective Feeding and Health Schemes

Kwatubana and Nel (2014) assert that a health-promoting school eliminates health hazards in the school and its surrounds. The school in question indeed complied with such a definition of a health-promoting school. The kitchen where food was prepared was clean, despite water shortages, thanks to the diligence of the kitchen staff. Learners also washed their hands before they ate their meals and teachers supervised the serving process as well as the collection of dirty dishes. No learner was allowed to eat while standing or outside of the classroom in order to ensure close monitoring. School meals were

especially important because some of the learners only ate at school due to impoverished home environments. The vegetable garden in the school premises meant a great deal because learners knew that, after the harvest, their crops would form part of their meals. Hence, they took special care of the garden and watered it regularly.

The Need for a Functional Roster for Playground Supervision

The only formal roster that was availed to researchers was the one used for formal sports training or when there were matches at the school premises. Most often, due to staff shortages, children played alone on the sports field with no supervision during break times. Teachers complained that they were supervising children who were eating in the classroom and were unable to supervise those playing outside the classrooms. This poses a serious challenge to teacher learner ratio at a special school for learners with intellectual disabilities.

Intervention

Since the project involved both research and the community, it was necessary to perform the research before sharing the findings thereof with the SMT and teachers. The nature of the project called for action research, which is more concerned with practice than with theory (Townsend, 2010). Furthermore, as Wood (2014, pp. 667) asserts:

Action research contributes to improving social situations, while simultaneously generating knowledge that can influence educational practice and research in a significant way.

The researchers asked the school management team to outline their needs and where they needed immediate intervention. Their immediate needs lay in the area of teacher roles and responsibilities regarding supervision and to help teachers to understand their *in loco parentis* responsibilities. To address this, the researchers organised a workshop for the entire staff on supervision and *in loco parentis* responsibilities in relation to the various roles pertinent to learner safety within the school premises.

The intervention was initiated in terms of holding a number of workshops in areas where knowledge and training gaps has been identified. The workshops covered transport safety, safety in workshops, hygiene and health matters, and children's rights in general. Evaluation was done to measure how successful the intervention workshops were and the findings were satisfactory in that they initiated a reasonable change at this special school.

1. Transport and Safety

The first workshop was on the safety of the learners during their transportation between their homes and the school. Some of the learners travelled in vehicles of various descriptions, whilst others who lived in the village simply walked to school. Neither road signage nor road markings were in place to inform drivers about children that are crossing the road from the village. To ensure the implementation of adequate solutions, the school management team included this item in their parents meeting so that the issue of safe learner transportation was thoroughly discussed and addressed. Some parents volunteered to monitor the transport used by the learners in addition to ensuring that the rules of the road were respected.

2. Safety in Workshops and the Garden

The school has the following workshops: welding, carpentry, bricklaying, and electrical work. In all of these workshops, certain precautions must be taken to eliminate the risk of injury. The second workshop was thus on safety in the workshops, where learners are exposed to hazardous substances such as dust, heavy machinery, and hand tools. Safety rules and warning signs were posted on the walls of the workshops and these rules were explained to and continually reinforced with learners each time they entered the workshops.

Meanwhile, in response to concerns with regard to the safety of learners while gardening, teachers were made aware of the importance of supervising learners when they are using garden tools and pesticides, and even when they lay fertilizer. The school did not have a garden and so the researchers assisted the teachers and all the learners who were interested in planting one. These interested teachers and learners were also given training by a facilitator organised by Unisa's Chance2Advance initiative. One of the primary values of this initiative was its strong ability to prepare learners for career wellness. Subsequent to receiving the training on gardening, two learners from the school found employment in this field in the nearby town.



Image 1: Learners under supervision of teachers and facilitator on how to start a crop garden
(2013 Unisa Community engagement intervention)

3. Teacher and SMT Roles

The whole responsibility of ensuring a safe environment in school is vested in the school management team (SMT). The researchers therefore instituted the intervention initiative of training the SMT on learner supervision. The training was aimed at making the SMT aware of its duties and responsibilities as expected in terms of its *in loco parentis* role; i.e. teachers are required to honour their duty to care for learners as *bonus paterfamilias*. This duty begins when the first learner arrives at the school in the morning and continues until the last learner leaves the school in the afternoon. It is extended to a few meters beyond the school yard, within the vicinity of the school. Each educator's duty to care for learners must be included in his or her job description, to remind him or her that it is their lawful obligation. When drawing up the school duty roster, the SMT must ensure that it indicates the names of teachers who are on supervision duty at the school entrances and surrounding areas.

As mentioned, sports ground supervision is of also paramount importance in special schools. Classes left without an educator descend into chaos, especially in the case of learners with special needs. Teachers were encouraged to implement what they had learnt and informed that, after three months, the research team would return to the school to evaluate the safety measures put in place.

This intervention will benefit the school in that teachers now understand their roles regarding learner safety at the school and will practise what they have learnt. Moreover, the school management team will be able to allocate teacher duties (especially those that involve learner supervision at break times) more appropriately and effectively. It will also benefit the learners in that the teachers will be more careful in dealing with safety issues that impact them in the future.

4. Career Wellness

Since teachers expressed concerns about how to prepare learners for future careers, the researchers organised facilitators for to train the learners in computer literacy and pedicure and manicure skills. The teachers were also trained in those skills so that they could supervise learners during their practical activities for those subjects. The training was done over a period of five days from 08h00 to 14h00 each day. All those who attended training received certificates from Chance2Advance. For teachers, this training was credited as continuous professional development.

Evaluation after Three Months

After a period of three months, the researchers visited the school in order to give support and guidance where necessary. It was found that the teachers and the school management team had sought sponsors to buy the necessary material where they needed to improve their situation. They had also advertised posts for teachers with various skills in promoting career wellness for learners with intellectual disabilities. Workshop environments had become far safer. Although there was a lack of some items like safety boots, the school had managed to obtain safety hats for bricklayers, glasses for welders, and two sewing machines. The school's training hair salon was also equipped with the necessary supplies. The SMT and teachers were applauded for their initiative in these areas. The crop garden had improved significantly and learners took great pride in the sense of ownership and achievement they derived from planting and tending to the garden when they saw the crops growing. The vegetables from this garden were harvested and cooked as part of healthy break-time meals for learners. In

this way, physical wellness was promoted, with the garden initiative contributing towards healthy eating patterns for the learners.

The following images demonstrate some of the successes achieved through the action research project at this school.



Image 2. An improved garden after three months



Image 3. After a while, bricklayers had the material to use and all had safety hats



Image 4. Two sewing machines were secured and learners sewed their own netball uniforms



Image 5. Protective/safety glasses were worn by learners when welding

Conclusion

This chapter has repeatedly emphasised the fact that learners have the right to basic education in terms of Section 29 of *The Constitution* (Republic of South Africa, 1996a). This right can only be fulfilled in a safe school environment. The intervention was thus framed within the essence of education law embedded in the German concept of *geborgenheit*. Cassells (as cited in Oosthuizen, 2009, pp. 16) explains that, in the German language, the term infers more than its direct English translation as “security”; it encompasses a web of concepts including “salvage”, “salve”, “save”, “rescue”, “shelter”, “shield”, “hide”, “conceal”, “being saved”, or “being in safety”. Teaching and learning for children can only take place in an environment that is free of fear and the risk of harm.

Learners’ wellness in all dimensions is crucial irrespective, of their situation or abilities. Nevertheless, the current study demonstrated the particular need for holistic development for learners with intellectual disabilities. The researchers, in using action research, were able to support the school management team and teachers by intervening where information, training and infrastructure gaps were identified. The school also realised its need to seek help and support from other organisations so that the learner is developed holistically. As the old expression goes, “it takes a village to raise a child”. Indeed, special schools need an extensive network of stakeholders in order for all the wellness needs of learners to be met. In action research, lessons learnt for participants promote self-reflection and the development of problem-solving skills (Zuber-Skerrit, 2011) that promote lifelong learning. The efforts of teachers to outsource skilled teachers and resources has greatly benefited the school and enabled it to improve despite the challenges inherent in its rural location. When learners exit the school at the age of 21, they will be adept in one or two key skills, imparted to them during through this holistic approach to their education.

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Students' Cultural Background as a Determinant of Various Categories of Social Behaviour

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Abstract

The aim of this research was to assess in which way the cultural background of students should be taken into account working with students as well as the adjustments of school activities by the school management, and what differences are possible to be noticed in regard to their cultural background. The empiric part of the research covered the sample of students of United World College in Mostar, comprising of 124 examinees coming from total of 47 different countries, but wider part of the research covered and comparisons with 67 students of Gymnasia Mostar, in total, the sample consisting of 191 examinees. In this piece of work, only the results considering the characteristics of students of United World College Mostar. Employing of Hofstede's operationalization's of national cultures, the students have been, in respect to culture they come from, grouped according to established dimensions: Individualism – Collectivism, Power Distance index, Uncertainty Avoidance index and Masculinity vs. Femininity. Within separate dimensions the comparisons have been carried out regarding to the level of expressed social distance toward the others, level of empathy, intercultural sensibility, locus of control and the assertion of parental control and emotionality dimension. Using t-test, and descriptive statistics, differences between the students have been stated regarding to considered criteria variables, while Pearson's correlation coefficient was used for variable being in linear relation.

Keywords: students' cultural background, intercultural sensitivity, social distance, empathy, locus of control

Introduction

Contemporary researches are rich with the intentions of establishing a relation between characteristics of culture and personality traits as a member of a culture, although serious scientific critics could be mentioned for the majority of tries of presenting of national characteristics. In essence, it is needed, or challenging at least, to try to establish some of national characteristics (Hofstede, 2001, 2005; Rot, 2008). Certainly, every generalization should lead to dangerous and scientifically inadmissible generalization and stereotypes, but thanking to endeavour being left behind the American sociologist Riesman, anthropologists Kardiner, Linton, Mead, Inkeles and Levinson, as well as in the area of ex-Yugoslavia Jovan Cvijić, today we have an opportunity to talk about „basic personality structure“, „modal personality“, „national character starting from personality concept as relatively lasting and organized system of dispositions“, and common „psychological characteristics of inhabitants of the Balkan peninsula“ (all according to Rot, 2008). Emphasizing the importance of caution with establishment of national characteristics as well as complexity of such kind of research, Inkeles and Levinson (1969, according to Rot, 2008:153) suggest that such researches should be oriented not according to establishing of global personality but some behavioural categories such as: relation to authority, understanding of own self, self-respect, the main forms of anxiety, aggressiveness, the ways of cognitive processing and alike. Cultural background of the examinees has been possible to be examined in various ways, but for the purpose of this research we called upon Hofstede's standpoint (2001, 2005) on national dimensions of culture, social distance, and traditional results by Rotter on locus of control (according to Pennington, 2004; Sue and Sue, 2008). One of the most entire researches of characteristics of cultures national dimensions is one being offered by Geert Hofstede in period from 1967 to 1973, and his researches he

appended with those dating from 90s and 2000s. Firstly, these researched had been conducted within the frame of IBM international corporation with basic intention to establish differences arising from various cultures from the aspect of management and organizational culture. Later on, Hofstede had broadened up the understanding of national dimensions to different everyday behavioural standards and functioning within the family upbringing, school, and society in general. In order to determine more as precisely as possible, the characteristics of studied cultures, Hofstede called upon earlier works and researched conducted by Ruth Benedict, Margaret Mead, Alex Inkeles and Daniel Levinson, developed and with time, modified Values Survey Model dividing 40 countries on the basis of four dimensional scores within 12 clusters. Applying both correlation and factor analyses, Hofstede has succeeded up-to date to collect and compare the results on nearly 90 cultures. For the term *dimension* as an aspect of culture, he decided out of two reasons: empiric measurability in regard to different cultures and ideal types description that are, this way, easier to be understood. In respect to culture characteristics on the basis of researched he had carried out starting from late 60ies up to date, Hofstede produces thesis as the all cultures could be placed into bipolar scales of Power Distance Index, Uncertainty Avoidance Index, Collectivism / Individualism, Masculinity vs. Femininity and Long Term Orientated vs. Short Term Orientated cultures. For the purpose of analysing gathered data within this study, the comparison of national cultures characteristics has shown very appropriate one, also in accordance with suggestions given by Inkeles and Levinson, especially since the research itself had been conducted at the international school United College in Mostar, Bosnia and Herzegovina (here within referred as UWC Mostar) attending by the students from the entire world as the name itself suggests.

The aim of research

Within the scope of a large-scale study of the impact of the International School United World College Mostar to the local community (Alić, Cerić and Habibović, 2017), the importance of cultural background was separately analysed in respect to a sequence of criterion variables such as: the assertion of parents' behaviour, intercultural sensitivity, social distance, locus of control, empathy, the resistance to stress, anxiety and tendency to depressive mood. In theoretical part of the analyses, we leaned upon Hofstede's model of national culture dimensions in a way that we classified the students in regard to cultures they originate from, but at the same time with appreciation of the categorization that the author of this theory Geert-Hofstede (2001, 2005) had established on the basis of large-scale researches. During the results interpretation, it was especially interesting to compare data gained from the previous researches (Alić, Cerić and Habibović, 2013, 2015), in which, using similar instruments, observed different categories of social behaviour of students and youth originating from Bosnia and Herzegovina living in the USA and in some European countries. The aim of this research was to establish in what way a cultural background of students should be taken into consideration working with them, what adjustments are needed from the school management to be done in regard to school activities, and what differences are possible to be noticed among the students in respect to their cultural background.

Methodological scope of research

The research has element of both qualitative and quantitative analyses. In this research, a non-experimental transversal lay out has been used, in which we relied on the interview with single students, focus groups, polling using standardized scales of evaluation, analysing of available historical data of UWC Mostar, analysing of theoretical information and statistical data processing. The empirical part of the research covered a sample of UWC Mostar students comprising of 124 examinees, out of which 75 females, 45 males, while 2 examinees stated to be bipolar-bisexual. Students of UWC Mostar are coming from 47 different countries but the biggest group is that comprising of 39 students coming from Bosnia and Herzegovina. We have stated as the students at UWC Mostar as their mother tongue mentioned 34 different world languages, 55% actively use or consider English to be their second language. By the use of Hofstede's operationalisations of national cultures, according to the culture they come from, we grouped students in regard to stated dimensions: Individualism vs Collectivism, Power Distance Index, Uncertainty Avoidance Index, and Masculinity vs. Femininity values. During the research, the following questionnaires were used: a questionnaire on general information of examinees; perception scale of family relationships with 25 items through which the examinees evaluate dimensions of emotionality and control both of mother and father– Alpha Cronbach for mother's emotionality is 0,771, father's emotionality 0,795, for mother's control 0,898, while Alpha Cronbach coefficient for father's control is 0,967; Empathy scale (Baron-Cohen, 2012) - Alpha Cronbach coefficient 0,837; Intercultural Sensitivity Scale / containing sub-scales: Interaction Engagement, Respect for Cultural Differences, Interaction Confidence, Interaction Enjoyment, and Interaction Attentiveness (Chen, G.M. & Starosta, W.J. 2000, according to Fritz, Mollenberg, & Chen, 2002) - Alpha Cronbach coefficient is 0,833; The locus of control / externality scale (Bezinovic, 1990) - Alpha Cronbach coefficient is 0,833; Social distance scale; and DASS21-

Alpha Cronbach coefficient in this research for anxiety scale is 0,786, stress scale 0,787, and depression scale 0,852. The Alpha Cronbach values had shown for majority of applied questionnaire equally high values as well as in our earlier researches (Alić, Cerić and Habibović, 2013, 2015).

Analyses and interpretation of research results

From the talks with some of employees of UWC Mostar, the assertions of the students of Gymnasium Mostar but also from the citizens, we have noticed numerous examples of differences among students from other countries in regard to specific behaviour of the members of local community. These differences attracted our attention and animated us into more detailed analyses of cultural background of students as a determinant of possible miss / understanding within the situation of cultural contact. The behaviour of students in respect to an attitude toward the authorities, established norms, responsibility take over, competition, independency, or the ability of cooperation with students from other cultures, significantly vary from the usual behaviour of young people of this region and is greatly conditioned by cultural partakes that characterize the students. It is also noticed as students from some cultures are not able to function together, i.e. students coming from cultures being competitively directed in prospect to others have problems whenever they have to cooperate within same groups. In regard to the evaluation of emotionality dimension and father and mother control respectively, we employed the scale of perception of family relationships, and in regard to the results gained above and under arithmetic mean, we have grouped the results of examinees into four parental styles: authoritative (high and balanced level of emotionality and control), permissive /high emotionality and low control), authoritarian (low emotionality and high control), and indifferent (low emotionality and low control of parental behaviour). Naturally, the perception of parental emotionality and control should be observed in compliance to the perception of parental role the examinees had already adapted in their culture background and in this matter, numerous parental behaviours could be valued as authoritarian in one culture but in other as authoritative.

For instance, Arabs would call the education *terbijeh*, which in simplified and free translation would signify the education/upbringing of soul in regard to compliance and spiritual slavery with the final goal of serving God. In the logic of English language, this term could not be literally translated without „unpack of cultural mental software” keeping in mind that education/upbringing in Arabic culture is based on religious and philosophical foundations which nourishes different system of beliefs and values in that culture. Similarly, we can determine ourselves toward the dimensions of control and attention due to differences comprising from diversities formed within the cultural programming of the members of different cultures. While in the USA literal usage of the term *control* would provoke negative connotations, in Asian cultures, *control* and *training* could be considered as an integral part of enculturation. In these cultures, the accent is upon spiritual maturation based on the values and beliefs that are differently defined in the West. Along with that, it is important to emphasize as the typology of parental styles could never be considered as static category since the perception of authoritative parenthood significantly changes with members of Chinese, Japanese and Arabic cultures living in Europe and in the USA, therefore, a conclusion imposes as the usage of these terms has primarily socio-cultural context (Alić, 2012:209).

Taking into consideration that we had previously established the significant connection between cultural background of students and their readiness for cultural contact, we checked up to which extent the students' cultural background could be related with the sequence of considered criterion variables. Clearly, it is rare opportunity to analyse the members of different cultures, so such possibility and access to examinees coming from numerous different cultures, has been special research challenge. For this part of our analyses we used the suggestions of Alex Inkeles and Daniel Levinson on the possibilities of study the number of behavioural categories, and Hofstede's model of national dimensions of cultures in a way we classified students according to the cultures they originate, but taking into appreciation the operability of national cultures being established by Geert Hofstede the author of this theory after his vast research work. In this way, the students coming from 47 countries have been included in this research being grouped according to established dimensions: Individualism vs Collectivism, Power Distance, Uncertainty Avoidance, and Masculinity vs. Femininity values. The position of each culture studied is presented in charts in Figure 1. and Figure 2.

Figure 1. The overview of Power Distance Versus Individualism/Collectivism (adapted according to: Hofstede, 2005:83.)

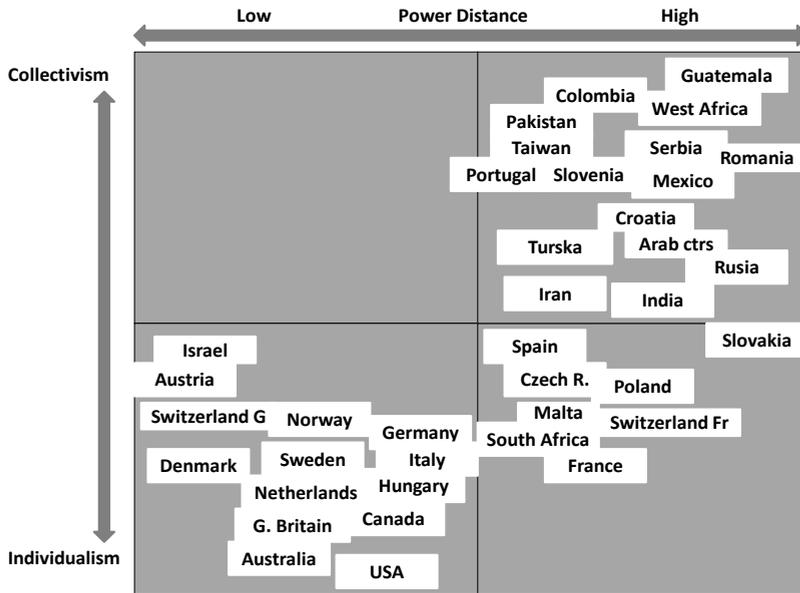
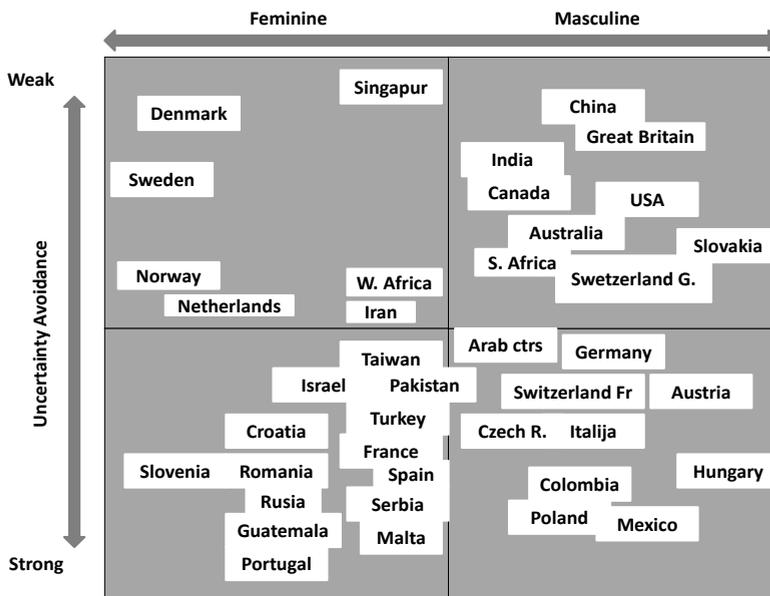


Figure 2. The overview of Masculinity/Femininity Versus Uncertainty Avoidance (adapted according to: Hofstede, 2005:187.)



We have carried out the calculation of connection of the observed criterion variables by using Pearson's coefficient of correlation, taking into consideration they are on interval or ratio measurement scale that are in linear correlation. Using Pearson's correlation coefficient, possible correlations are checked up between the variables: evaluation of emotionality and control dimensions of father and mother, level of social distance, empathy, intercultural sensitivity, inclination to anxiety,

depressive moods, stress, as well as national dimensions of culture. It is affirmed that in respect to the evaluation of mother's emotionality there are no statistically significant differences in regard to national dimensions of the culture, (Table 1.).

Table 1. Extract from correlation matrix for dimensions of parental emotionality, parental control and cultural dimensions

Scales		Individualism vs. Collectivism	Power distance index	Masculinity vs. Femininity values	Uncertainty avoidance index
Dimension of mother emotionality	Pearson Correlation	.026	-.016	-.018	-.052
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.775	.859	.845	.577
	N	119	119	119	119
Dimension of mother control	Pearson Correlation	.262 ¹	.285 ^{**}	.289 ^{**}	.133
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.004	.002	.001	.150
	N	119	119	119	119
Dimension of father emotionality	Pearson Correlation	.202 ²	.018	.072	.045
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.033	.852	.454	.641
	N	111	111	111	111
Dimension of father control	Pearson Correlation	.131	.229 [*]	.240 [*]	.181
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.170	.016	.011	.058

Regardless to cultural differences, the examinees highly evaluate mother's emotionality. The differences are visible in control mother's behaviour where the correlation at level $P > 0,01$ has been noticed with examinees coming from collectivistic cultures ($r=0,262$; $p=.004$), but controlling mother has been evaluated to a higher extent by examinees coming from high power distance index ($r=0,285$; $p=.002$), and examinees from cultures in which femininity is more emphasized ($r=0,289$; $p=.001$). Statistically significant correlation at level $P < 0,05$ ($r=0,202$; $p=.033$) has been noticed with the evaluation of father's emotionality coming from collectivistic cultures. In regard of father control dimension, correlation at level $P < 0,05$ has been noticed with examinees from power distance index ($r=0,229$; $p=.016$) as well as with the examinees coming from the cultures where femininity values are more emphasized ($r=0,240$; $p=.011$).

In Table 2., an extract from correlation for national dimensions of culture and observed criterion variables, empathy, locus of control, intercultural sensitivity, inclination to depressive and anxiety moods and the resistance to stress have been shown.

Table 2. Extract from correlation matrix for national culture differences and observed criterion variables

Scales		Individualism vs. Collectivism	Power distance index	Masculinity vs. Femininity values	Uncertainty avoidance index
Social distance	Pearson Correlation	-.289 ³	-.289 ^{**}	-.165	-.194 ⁴
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.003	.003	.093	.048
	N	104	104	104	104
Empathy	Pearson Correlation	-.155	-.167	-.084	-.189 [*]
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.097	.074	.370	.042
	N	116	116	116	116
Locus of control	Pearson Correlation	.205 [*]	.226 [*]	.220 [*]	-.051
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.026	.014	.017	.582
	N	118	118	118	118
Intercultural sensitivity	Pearson Correlation	-.244 ^{**}	-.180	-.117	-.068
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.008	.051	.207	.467

¹ *. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

² **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

³ *. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

⁴ World Economic Forum, 2006, Global Competitiveness Report 2006-2007, p.26

	N	118	118	118	118
Depressiveness	Pearson Correlation	.128	.184*	.077	.104
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.167	.046	.410	.261
	N	118	118	118	118
Anxiety	Pearson Correlation	.139	.205*	.091	-.080
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.133	.026	.326	.392
	N	118	118	118	118
Stress	Pearson Correlation	.143	.147	.129	.048
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.122	.113	.163	.603
	N	118	118	118	118

Statistically significant correlation between the level of social distance at $P < 0,01$ has been noticed at examinees coming from individualistic cultures ($r = 0,289$; $p = .003$), the examinees coming from low power distance index ($r = 0,289$; $p = .003$). Also, a significant correlation at level $P < 0,05$ in relation to lower social distance is noticed with examinees coming from cultures of low uncertainty avoidance index ($r = 0,194$; $p = .048$). The previous correlations confirm the expectations as cultural background has strong impact to social distancing and building up ex-group relations. The correlation between the level of empathy and national dimensions of culture has been noticed only in regard to dimensions of uncertainty, on level $P < 0,05$ ($r = 0,189$; $p = .042$), while the examinees coming from low uncertainty avoidance index cultures gain somehow higher scores on empathy scale. We assume that such difference could be attributed to differences in early attributions of children's' behaviour knowing as in cultures with low uncertainty avoidance index a smaller usage of negative and obtrusive attribution. Correlations between externality of locus of control and cultural dimensions at level $P < 0,05$ are found with examinees coming from collectivistic cultures ($r = 0,205$; $p = .026$), cultures of high power distance index ($r = 0,226$; $p = .014$), and cultures in which femininity values are emphasized ($r = 0,220$; $p = .017$) from which it could be stated as the examinees coming from these cultures incline to external locus of control.

In respect to intercultural sensitivity, statistically significant correlation at level $P < 0,01$ has been found with examinees from individualistic cultures only ($r = 0,244$; $p = .008$).

The inclination to depressive moods is more pronounced with examinees coming from higher power distance index at level $P < 0,05$ ($r = 0,184$), while the inclination to anxiety is also statistically significant at level $P < 0,05$ ($r = 0,205$; $p = .026$) with examinees coming from cultures of higher power distance index. These data could be related to the fact that the students coming from cultures of higher power distance after coming to the new culture, have far more difficulties to integrate into new context.

The connection between social distance, locus of control, depressiveness, anxiety and stress shows a dependence, extroversion and building up ex-group relations with students from individualistic cultures of low power distance and low uncertainty avoidance index. Unlike of students from collectivistic, students from individualistic cultures are more directed to outer groups that was also explained in literature as a characteristic of individualistic cultures. Higher level of inter-group interaction in collectivistic cultures, differences in building up inner and outer group relations effect to social distance, intercultural sensitivity, a concept of mental health, but also to the estimation of the importance of parental dimensions. Although there is a correlation on the scales of depressiveness, anxiety and stress only between depression and anxiety with examinees coming from the cultures of higher power distance, it is noticeable that students from collectivistic cultures on these scales gain higher scores that could be explained by social context they presently reside – it favours to higher extent to the students from collectivistic social context, but they do not get it sufficiently.

As a continuation of the analyses we present comparisons between the level of expressing the social distance, locus of control, empathy and intercultural sensitivity, for all poles of national culture dimensions respectively.

Dimension individualism – collectivism

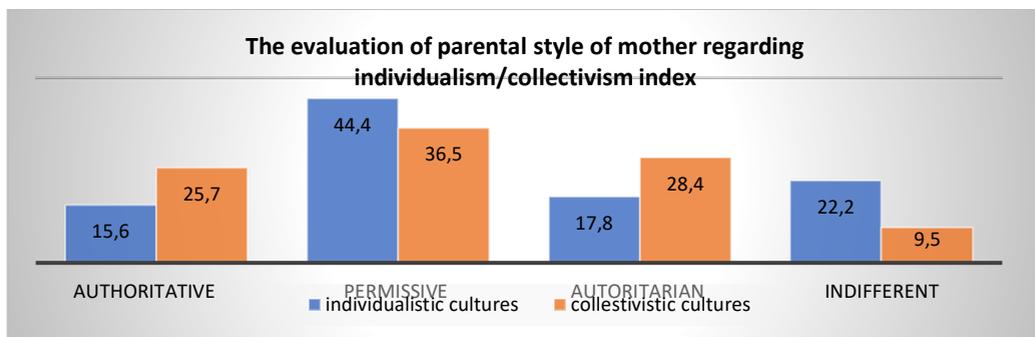
Hofstede considers dimensions individualism versus collectivism in opposed terms of defining the relationships among individual and community, and those relationships differ considering the nature of social structure, development of sense of belonging to the community but also a positioning of own, individual comprehension related to the community. Within this dimension, as Hofstede says, individualistic cultures promote the concept in which everybody should firmly grasp the destiny in its own hands, so the individual efforts build into the integrity of social system, while collectivistic cultures are

more inclined to subject of the individual to community, acceptance of common destiny and relying on each other. The differences in defining and everyday practical living of cultural practices are recognizable in the field of children upbringing rituals, symbols the members of cultures use on everyday basis, but also in determination towards the parents and other important persons. Thus, the practice of upbringing and education of children in collectivistic cultures puts an accent on subordination to the group or collective, because of what are more present strategies modelling the concept of shame. In individualistic cultures, it is emphasized to rely on own potential, endeavour, self-initiative and generally speaking, higher responsibility and feeling of own control of events and activities.

Such ritual symbolic solutions if formed by the usage of a language. In English, first person in singular is written with capital letter "I", while Hofstede, referring to Chinese-American anthropologist Francis Hsu (2005:93), says that the closest word in Chinese for the first person singular – "Ren" that besides the individual also includes the entire social-cultural surrounding an individual lives in, so the individual being introduced to others actually introduces to entire primary social circles.

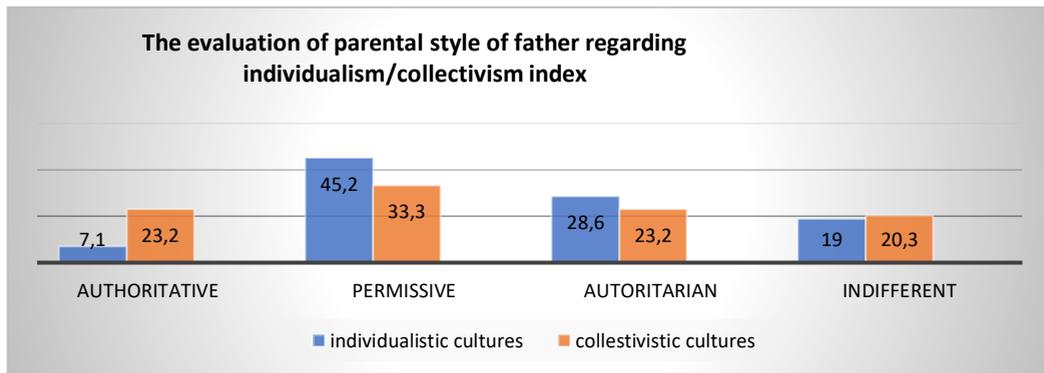
Non-adaptability to the local culture in regard to all variables that influence on the perception of UWC Mostar in the eyes of local community we have checked whether the students are coming from either individualistic or collectivistic cultures. From Figure 3., it is visible as students coming from individualistic cultures evaluate mother in higher extent as permissive (44.4%), indifferent (22.2%), while students coming from collectivistic cultures, evaluate in high percentage authoritarianism (25.7%) and authoritarianism (28,4%) of mother.

Figure 3. Differences between evaluation of parental style of mother regarding dimension individualism/collectivism index



The examinees coming from individualistic cultures significantly evaluate father as being permissive (45.2%) and indifferent (19%) than the children coming from collectivistic cultures. At the same time, much more authoritarianism (23,2%) has been evaluated with the examinees from collectivistic cultures, contrary to only 7,1% authoritative fathers in individualistic cultures (Figure 4.).

Figure 4. Differences between evaluation of parental style of father regarding dimension individualism/collectivism index



The examinees coming from both cultures almost equally consider father and mother being permissive, but the authoritativeness of father in relation to mother's has been far higher evaluated with examinees from individualistic cultures although there are no statistically significant difference among students in regard to evaluation of mother's behaviour, the difference is clear to be noticed in respect to extent of presence of parental strategy according which in individualistic cultures a high emotionality is dominant, but low control, while in collectivistic cultures a controlling behaviour of mother is more present. The continuation of the analyses brings the comparisons between the level of social distance expression, locus of control, empathy and intercultural sensitivity. In Table 3. it is visible as the differences are noticed between the all variables considered, except for the level of empathy.

Table 3. Differences between criterion variables regarding dimension individualism vs. collectivism

Scales	National dimension of culture	N	M	δ	SE M
Social distance	Individualism	43	8.02	1.472	.224
	Collectivism	61	6.74	2.469	.316
Locus of control	Individualism	45	17.0000	4.90825	.73168
	collectivism	73	19.2603	5.51772	.64580
Empathy	Individualism	44	47.48	11.987	1.807
	Collectivism	72	43.75	11.405	1.344
Intercultural sensitivity	Individualism	45	102.2889	6.53530	.97422
	Collectivism	73	97.1781	11.52936	1.34941

t-test I - K	t	df	p
Social distance	3.051	102	.003
Locus of control	-2.316	116	.023
Empathy	1.675	114	.097
Intercultural sensitivity	2.714	116	.008

Higher interaction in collectivistic cultures, differences in building inner and outer group relations effect on social distance, intercultural sensitivity, a concept of mental health but also on the evaluation of the importance of parental dimensions. All of these variables according to their aftereffect are of importance for the total influence that school through its employees and students gains in regard to local community, but also the influence that through the organizational school culture and activities affect the students at UWC. This is confirmed by proportions obtained by t-test.

Social distance is statistically significantly lower with students from individualistic cultures at level $p < 0,01$ ($r = .003$, $df = 102$). The difference is noticeable when we compare it with average score, thus with students from individualistic cultures it is 8.02 with SD 1.472, while with students from collectivistic cultures it is 6.74, and SD 2.469. Students from collectivistic cultures show statistically higher evaluation for dimension of mother control at level $p < 0,01$ ($r = .002$, $df = 117$). Students from collectivistic cultures show statistically higher evaluation for dimension of emotionality of father at level $p < 0,05$ ($r = .003$, $df = 109$). Although there are no statistically significant differences, it is interesting comparing the average scores to notice as students from collectivistic cultures consider of greater importance dimensions of emotionality of mother also and father control that confirms the thesis on importance of appreciation of cultural differences in building up the relationships, and differences leading from it in regard to evaluation of social distance and intercultural sensitivity as well as variables being important as criteria in the process of accepting or rejecting the others.

There is statistically significant difference in inclination to external locus of control. Namely, we notice that at level $p < 0,05$ ($r = .023$, $df = 116$) students from individualistic cultures incline to internal, but students from collectivistic cultures incline to external locus of control. Although, there are no differences in regard of empathy, it is noticeable that students from individualistic cultures gain higher scores on empathy scale. In respect to sub-scales of intercultural sensitivity, statistically significant difference has been found at sub-scale of interaction concernment at level $p < 0,01$ ($r = .003$, $df = 116$), sub-scale

of appreciation of cultural differences at level $p < 0.05$ ($r = .042$, $df = 116$) and sub-scale of interaction kindness at level $p < 0,01$ ($r = .002$, $df = 116$) in favour of the students from individualistic cultures. Also, a statistically significant difference in noticeable at level $p < 0,01$, ($r = .008$, $df = 116$) in respect to entire intercultural sensitivity in favour of students from individualistic cultures.

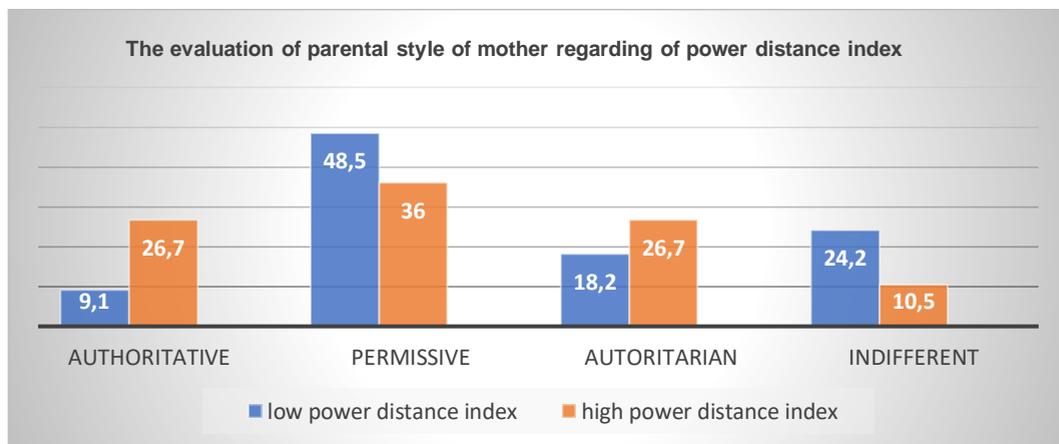
On the scales of depressiveness, anxiety and stress there are no statistically significant differences, but it is noticeable that students from collectivistic cultures gain higher scores that could be explained by social context they presently reside at – it more favours to students from individualistic cultures. Students used to pursue the elements of collectivistic social context but they do not get it sufficiently. That brings us to conclusion as, generally speaking, organizational culture of UWC inclines to partakes of individualistic cultures, and in such circumstances students from individualistic cultures cope much easier.

Dimension of power distance index

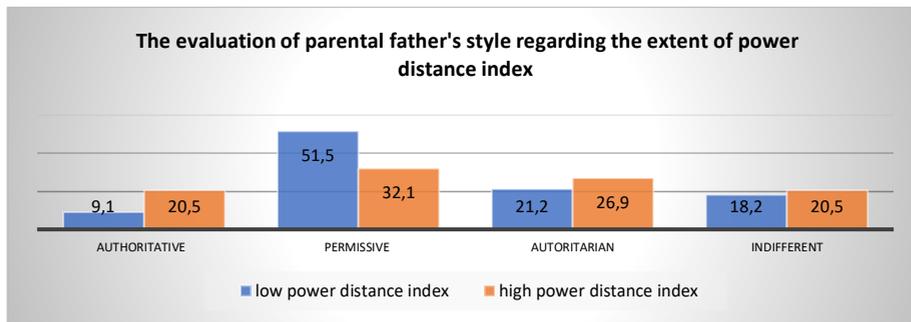
Defining the extent of power distribution (in a family, school, organization, society...) is diametrically opposed within cultures of high and low power distance index. So, in cultures with highly emphasised power distance index, education of children is directed to obedience, subduing, resigned appreciation of authority of superiors, grownups and older. The all relationships are based upon the principle submissive –superior so in cultures where relationships are defined in this way, it is accepted as cultural norm from all participants. In cultures with high distance power index are dominant autocratic leadership, patronizing and commandment, thus an abuse of power is often. Opposing to such, in cultures with low index of power definition an inclination to equality, bigger freedom of individual choices, earlier becoming independent or appreciation of choices of every single individual are present. Hofstede brings as in such cultures a participative or democratic style are dominant ones, directing and inducing, negotiation and persuasion, thus the abuse of power is rare one. A need for independency in cultures with low power distance index is very early programmed into *mental software* of children.

Dimensions of power distance index are noticeable in all institutions of society. Family structure and communication, and architectural layout of homes family live in, architecture of schools, classroom layout, forms and methods of learning as well as the relationship between teachers and students vary in accordance to the extent of defined power. Judging by the distribution of the results of evaluation on parental mother's behaviour and in cultures of low power distance index, far more represented are permissive (48,5%) and indifferent (24,2%) styles, while in cultures of high power distance index noticeably higher evaluations are of authoritative (highly expressed balance of emotionality and control (26,7%) and authoritarianism – high control, low emotionality (26,7%) (Figure 5.).

Figure 5. Differences between evaluation of parental style of mother regarding dimension of power distance index



In cultures of low power distance index, a father has been evaluated in significantly higher percentage as permissive (51,5%), but in indifferent (18,2%), while, as expected, in cultures of high power distance index authoritative (20,5%) and authoritarianism of father (26,9%) are being significantly higher evaluated. (Figure 6.).

Figure 6. Differences between evaluation of parental style of father regarding dimension power distance index

Such results are in accordance with the expected and statistically significantly different at level of 5%, so it is possible to conclude as the cultural programming of *mental software* in respect to relations to authority and cultures of low power distance index significantly impact on low controlled parental behaviour, and consequently also to expected relationship towards authority with children coming from such cultures. In respect to comparisons of key criteria variables, using t-test the differences in regard to all variables, except for the extent of empathy has been stated. (Table 4.)

Table 4. Differences between criteria variables regarding dimension power distance index

Scales	Power distance	N	M	δ	SE M
Social distance	Low	32	8.22	1.263	.223
	High	72	6.85	2.395	.282
Locus of control	Low	33	16.4545	4.99431	.86940
	High	85	19.1529	5.37079	.58254
Empathy	Low	32	48.31	13.010	2.300
	High	84	43.96	11.036	1.204
Intercultural sensitivity	Low	33	102.0606	7.30984	1.27248
	High	85	97.9882	10.95064	1.18776

t-test of Power distance index	t	df	p
Social distance	3.051	102	.003
Locus of control	-2.578	116	.012
Empathy	1.803	114	.074
Intercultural sensitivity	1.970	116	.050

Social distance is statistically significantly lower with students coming from cultures of low power distance index at level $p < 0,01$ ($r = .003$, $df = 102$). The difference is notable when we compare it with average score gained, so with students coming from cultures of low power distance index is 8,22 with SD 1.263, but with students coming from cultures of higher power distance index is 6.85, and SD 2.395. Students from cultures of higher power distance index statistically highly evaluate dimension of mother's control at level $p < 0,01$ ($r = .006$, $df = 109$). There is no statistically significant difference at empathy extent although a higher score has been visible with students coming from cultures of low power distance index. There is statistically significant difference in regard of inclination to external locus of control. Namely, we notice as at level $p < 0,05$ ($r = .012$, $df = 116$) students of low power distance cultures incline to internal, but students from higher power distance index incline to external locus of control. In respect to sub-scales of intercultural sensitivity, statistically significant difference has been found at scale of interactivity engagement at level $p < 0,05$ ($r = .013$, $df = 116$) and sub-scale of interactivity attentiveness at level $p < 0,01$ ($r = .010$, $df = 116$) in favour of students from cultures of low power distance index. Also, statistically noticeable is difference at level $p < 0,05$ ($r = .050$, $df = 116$), in regard of entire intercultural sensitivity in favour of students from low power distance index. On scales of depressiveness and anxiety we could notice statistically significant difference at level $p < 0,05$ ($r = .019$, $df = 116$) in regard to inclination to depressiveness, and at level $p < 0,05$ ($r = .014$, $df = 116$) in regard to inclination to

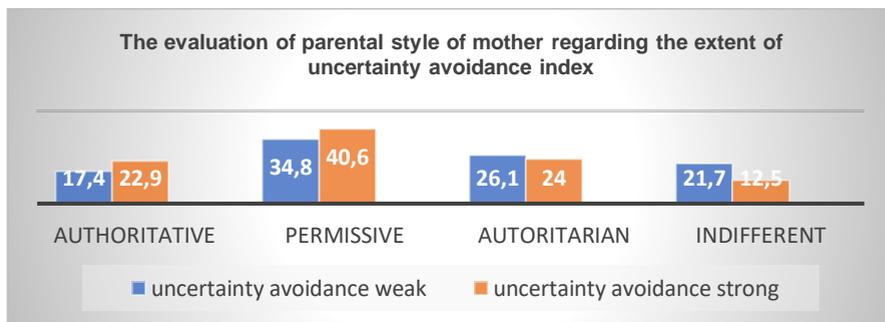
anxiety, meaning that students coming from higher power distance index cultures are more inclined to depressive and anxiety conditions. This refers to possible conclusion as the entire organizational culture of UWC Mostar is closer to students coming from cultures of low power distance index, and less favours to students coming from high power distance index cultures. It is also possible to conclude that these data indicate eventual affinity on one side as well as the attitude to cultural norms that build up the entire relationships as at school, so at the school board.

Uncertainty avoidance index

Disapproval or affirmation of boundaries of freedom and security are the integral part of repertory parental children disciplining starting with early age. A disapproval of initiative is a way of direct impact to will traits and when the will is affirmed, then it has to serve of accuracy and meticulousness. This way, in cultures of high power distance index contrary to uncertainty, the concept of absolute truth is developed which rests upon certain premises and if we follow it without prior examination and curiosity, the success will not be failed. Contrary to this, in cultures with low uncertainty avoidance index an exploring and tasting of own success that often means a risk take over and personal responsibility.

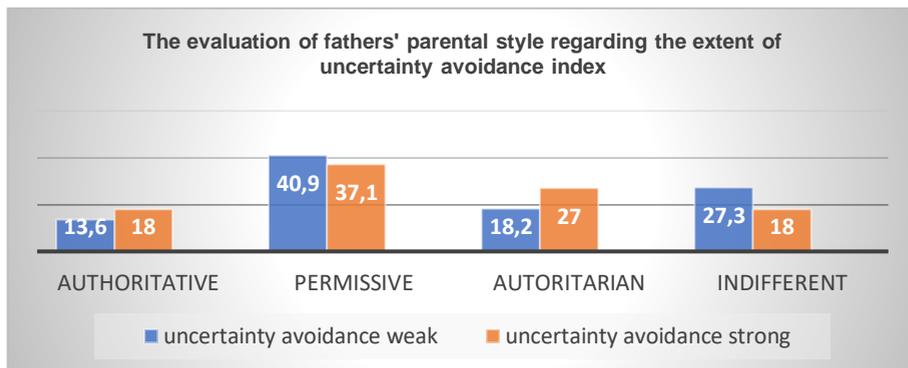
According to Hofstede (2005:174), it reflects upon the readiness of risk take over and everyday routine change taking into consideration a dominant presence of /non/ avoidance of uncertainty. Permissive style is the most present in cultures of high uncertainty avoidance index (40,6%), more emotionality affects to somehow more emphasized authoritative style of upbringing (22,9%), while in cultures of low uncertainty avoidance index there is more over-estimated indifferent parental behaviour (21,7%) (Figure 7.).

Figure 7. Differences between evaluation of parental style of mothers regarding dimension uncertainty avoidance index



The examinees from low uncertainty avoidance cultures, in percentage, evaluate somehow higher permissiveness (40,9%) and indifferentness of father (27,3%), while authoritativeness (18%) and authoritarianism (27%) and somehow over-estimated in cultures of high uncertainty avoidance (Figure 8.).

Figure 8. Differences between evaluation of fathers' parental style regarding dimension uncertainty avoidance index



Obviously that the rise of permissiveness also in cultures of high uncertainty avoidance index could be related to global tendency of impact upon parents in a sense of suggesting of higher expression of emotions, but competency that depends on expressing of carefulness as a consequence has lowering down of controlling behaviour out of fear the expressed authoritativeness could negatively reflect upon children development.

The comparison of t-test showed statistically significant difference at level $p < 0,05$ in regard to expressing the social distance and empathy (Table 5.).

Table 5. Differences between criteria variables regarding dimension of uncertainty avoidance

Scales	Uncertainty avoidance	N	M	δ	SE M
Social distance	Low	22	8.09	2.022	.431
	High	82	7.05	2.205	.243
Locus of control	Low	23	18.9565	6.06389	1.26441
	High	95	18.2632	5.23534	.53713
Empathy	Low	22	49.73	10.920	2.328
	High	94	44.10	11.697	1.206
Intercultural Sensitivity	Low	23	100.5217	10.57385	2.20480
	High	95	98.7895	10.13829	1.04017

t-test			
Uncertainty avoidance	t	df	p
Social distance	2.002	102	.048
Locus of control	.552	116	.582
Empathy	2.057	114	.042
Intercultural sensitivity	.729	116	.467

Social distance is statistically significantly lower with students from cultures of low uncertainty avoidance index at level $p < 0,05$ ($r = .048$, $df = 102$). The difference is notable when we compare it with average gained score, so with students from cultures of low uncertainty avoidance index is 8.09 with SD 2.022, and with students from cultures of high uncertainty avoidance index 7.05, and SD 2.205.

Students from cultures of low uncertainty avoidance gain higher scores on empathy scale, so we find here a statistically significant difference at level $p < 0,05$ ($r = .042$, $df = 114$). There is also statistically significant difference at sub-scale of interaction attentiveness at level $p < 0,05$ ($r = .050$, $df = 116$) in favour of students from cultures of low uncertainty avoidance that is, at the same time, the only difference within considered field of intercultural sensitivity. In respect to other variables, this dimension of national culture is of no great importance.

Dimension masculinity –femininity values

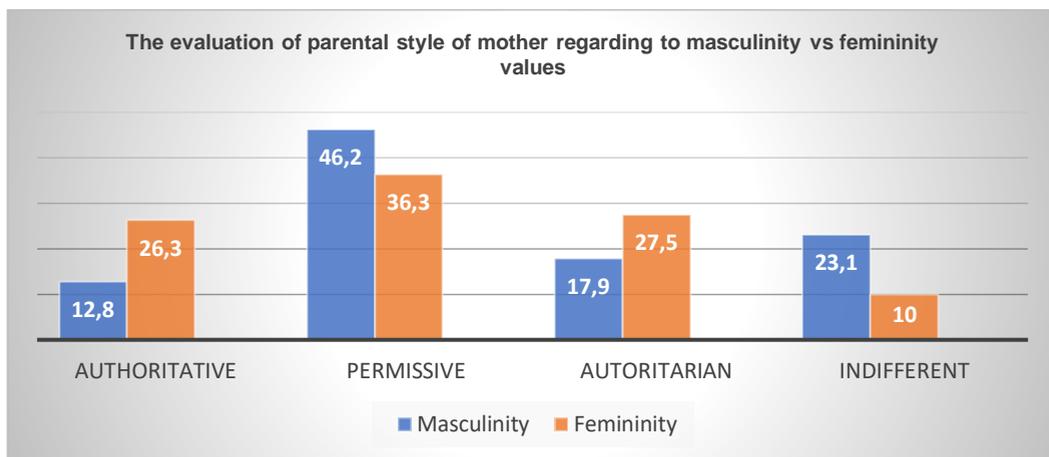
According to Hofstede, by identification with sex roles a mental software of masculine and feminine values is programmed. But, masculinity vs femininity values as cultural dimensions must not be identified with domination of either sex, but sex itself symbolises some attributes.

So, in cultures with dominant masculine values, results, prestige, money and aggressiveness (contentiousness) are appreciated unlike those with dominant feminine values where social position, development of adequate emotional relations, as well as the ability for forgiveness and sympathy are appreciated. When masculine ideals are dominant ones, competence, rivalry, market and economical advantage or calculation are in the first plan. Such life philosophy is emphasized even with family planning and children upbringing. So, it is possible that one culture affirms individuality, self-confidence, independency (individualism and low power distance index), but simultaneously the masculine values of domination and rivalry, along with the part of feminine population can promote masculine dimension. Because of that,

Margaret Mead has established that in the USA a sexual attraction rises at males towards successful women, but in a case of failure, the attraction falls down in a contrariwise manner. At the same time, in individualistic cultures where masculine values are affirmed, greater is a number of single mothers who decided to rise their children without any support and relying on males.

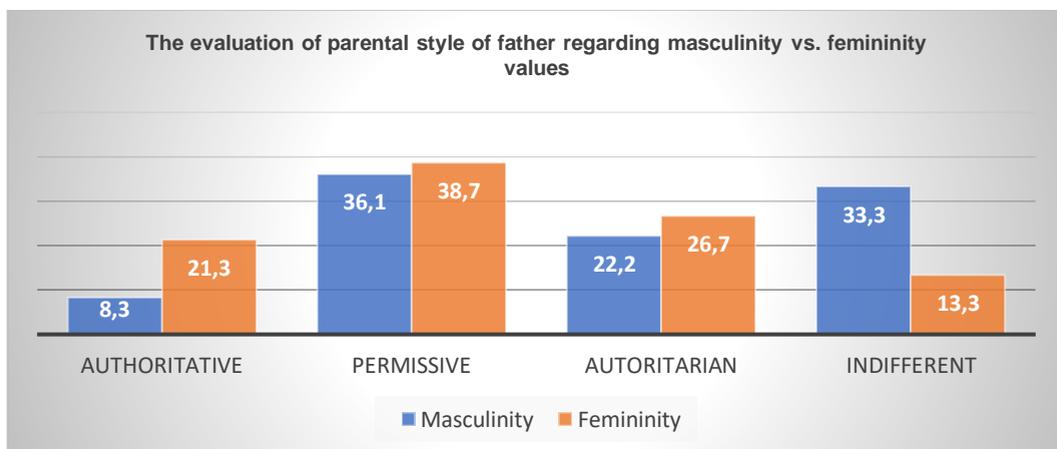
A descriptive account of evaluation of parental style of mother showed that in cultures with emphasized masculine values much more permissiveness (46,2%) and indifferent (23,1%) of parental behaviour. (Figure 9).

Figure 9. Differences between evaluation of parental style of mother regarding to masculinity vs. femininity values



From the differences in evaluation of dimensions of emotionality and controlling father, among examinees, the attention is pointed out especially to emphasized evaluation of indifference of father (33,3%) in cultures with pronounced masculine values (Figure 10.).

Figure10. Differences between evaluation of parental style of father regarding masculinity vs. femininity values



Data that in cultures where much more attention is given to emotional relationships but less to competition and market competition far more authoritative (21,3%) (in relation to 8,3% in cultures of masculinity values) and authoritarian (26,7%) parenthood, fits in Hofstede's descriptions of this national dimension (Figure 10.).

As it is visible from Table 6. in which the differences between criteria variables regarding dimension masculinity vs. femininity values are presented, there is no difference in regard to social distance as well as the entire intercultural sensitivity. By additional check-up (that are not mentioned in table) a significant statistical difference has been noted in evaluation of mother's control dimension at level $p < 0,01$ ($r = 0.000$, $df = 117$) and father control $p < 0,01$ ($r = .003$, $df = 109$) in favour the students coming from cultures where feminine values are dominant ones.

Table 6. Differences between criteria variables regarding dimension masculinity vs femininity

Scales		N	M	δ	SE M
Social distance	masculinity vs	37	7.76	1.949	.320
	femininity.	67	7.00	2.296	.281
Locus of control	masculinity vs	39	16.7179	5.10907	.81811
	femininity.	79	19.2278	5.35640	.60264
Empathy	masculinity vs	37	46.59	11.805	1.941
	femininity.	79	44.49	11.694	1.316
Intercultural sensitivity	masculinity vs	39	100.8205	8.25856	1.32243
	femininity.	79	98.2911	10.98852	1.23630
t-test M-F values	t	df	p		
Social distance	1.695	102	.093		
Locus of control	-2.470	116	.016		
Empathy	.899	114	.370		
Intercultural sensitivity	1.270	116	.207		

There is statistically significant difference in regard to inclination to external locus of control. Namely, we notice as at level $p < 0,05$ ($r = 0.16$, $df = 116$) students coming from cultures with dominant feminine values incline to external, but students coming from masculinity values incline to internal locus of control.

On sub-scales of intercultural sensitivity, a statistically significant difference has been found on sub-scales of interaction engagement at level $p < 0.05$ ($r = .003$, $df = 116$) and sub-scale of interaction attentiveness at level $p < 0,05$ ($r = .014$, $df = 116$) in favour of students coming from cultures with dominant masculinity (data have not been shown in table). It means that it is expected from students coming from cultures of competition, rivalry, struggle for primacy to have higher level of readiness to participate, but also higher level of reciprocity and circular stimulating during the interaction.

Final discussion

Researchers from these regions rarely get an opportunity to analyse the members of different cultures, so the possibility and admission to the examinees coming from 47 different countries has been special research challenge. For this research, we used the suggestions of Alex Inkeles and Daniel Levinson on possibilities of studying a certain number of categories of behaviour of members of different cultures, as well as Hofstede's model of national dimensions of culture. In regard to evaluation of emotionality and parental control, it was notices that examinees coming from individualistic cultures, cultures of low power distance index, low uncertainty avoidance index and cultures with stressed masculinity values consider their parents to be far more permissive, but also indifferent ones. Somehow higher extent of evaluation of father's control is expressed by examinees coming from collectivistic cultures, cultures of high power distance index, high uncertainty avoidance index and cultures with emphasized femininity values. The students attending the international school choosing an early separation and distance from prime social entity, coming from families in which, regardless to cultural specificity, somehow more liberal rules are practiced, they statistically prove that the majority of students have evaluated their parents as permissive ones (low control but high emotionality). The connection between social distance, locus of control, depressiveness, anxiety and stress shows the dependence on extroversion and building up ex-group relations with students coming from individualistic, cultures of low power distance index and low uncertainty avoidance index. Unlike the students from collectivistic, students from individualistic cultures are far more directed to external groups. A higher level of inter-

group of interaction in collectivistic cultures, and differences in building up of inner and outer-group relations, effect on social distance, intercultural sensitivity, concept of mental health, but also on evaluation of the importance of parental dimensions. Correlation between locus of control and cultural dimensions have been found with the examinees coming from collectivistic cultures, cultures of high power distance index and cultures with stressed femininity values. Thus, it is possible to state that examinees coming from these cultures incline to external locus of control. Although on scales of depressiveness, anxiety and stress there is correlation only between depression and anxiety with examinees coming from cultures of high power distance index, it is noticeable that students coming from collectivistic cultures on these scales gain higher scores that could be explained by social context they presently reside –it favours in great extent the students coming from individualistic cultures, the students used to collectivism search for the elements of collectivistic social context, but they do not get it in satisfactory sense.

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Student Protagonism: the Use of Webquest as a Methodological Strategy in Teaching History

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Abstract

The teaching of history is strongly marked by the concern of building, beyond the factual knowledge, a critical conscience in the students. Alongside this, we live in a reality marked by the intense information flow, available through the new information technologies, particularly the internet. In this way, the following problem arises: how to combine this great amount of information with the construction of a critical conscience, based on reliable information? The present case study searches through the use of *WebQuests*, a strategy that favors the teaching-learning relationship, to support the development of reflection and criticism of both the teacher and the student. Since it allows the teacher to select the resources available in the world-wide web, being able to make possible the contact with instructional materials to the research group involved in this case, students of the second grade of the High School. I selected those that will in fact contribute to the construction of a trustworthy knowledge that stimulates the critical sense when comparing diverse sources and materials, in the midst of an active learning process. According to this teaching-learning perspective, teachers are no longer the main knowledge depository and become methodological consultants and mediators of knowledge. The research is defined as a descriptive and analytical qualitative study, based on a private school in the city of Londrina (Brazil). As a result, it will be verified if the students, after the use of *WebQuests*, understand the importance of conducting research in so-called trusted places, in addition to perceiving the contributions of the *WebQuest* in the classroom, validating it.

Keywords: Teaching-learning process, *WebQuests*, History

Introduction

Thinking about teaching nowadays requires searching for new alternatives to a very complex picture: in the midst of the great transformation brought about by the new communication and information technologies, how can the teacher make his class more meaningful, bringing the student to greater participation and making the educating agent builder of your knowledge? It is based on the premise that it is possible and necessary to combine such technologies with the teaching-learning process, and the present work reports and analyzes an experience made with the use of *WebQuest* in History classes. As a result, it will be verified if the students, after use, understand the importance of conducting research in so-called trusted places, in addition to perceiving the contributions of *WebQuest* in the classroom, validating it.

Thinking the teaching of History

Reflecting on how to give the teaching of a subject, through its theoretical and methodological requirements, as well as the objectives that must be achieved in the middle of the educational process of the school, of which the present work is concerned, demands a consideration, even though it's quite brief, of his own course as a science. Particularly in the case of History, which implies, like other human sciences, in a critical formation of the student, one must be aware of how this subject was conceived as a science, perceiving the necessity of the moment of its establishment and its objectives.

It can be said that the gain of a scientific status of the study of History in Brazil occurred in the first half of the nineteenth century. Brazil, made independent of Portugal in 1822, passed in this period by a great discussion in the intellectual circles about the formation of the nation. Much has been discussed, even in a very aggressive way, in the sense of understanding and, moreover, presenting projects on how Brazil should organize itself after more than three hundred years as a colony.

Initially, after the fall of the official censorship in 1821, such a debate gained prominence through the pages of the newspapers, a means of communication that was spreading strongly in the country at that moment and that was able to cover the most different political conceptions, ranging from a radical liberalism to the defense of a concentration of total power in the hands of the emperor Pedro I.

This discussion went through all the First Empire (1822 – 1831) and advanced, with mitigated power, through the Regencial Period (1831 – 1840) when deputies exercised their power in the name of Emperor Pedro II, still not old enough to take political control of the country. There have been a huge number of debates that have taken place in what was the most turbulent political period in the country's history, which saw the outbreak of several revolts that seriously endangered the Brazilian territorial unit. It was during this period that in 1838 the Brazilian Historical and Geographical Institute (IHGB) was established in Brazil, an institution designed to write an official history of the nation and to establish, in the midst of the various political and social conflicts that were taking place at that moment, the definitive image about what should be Brazil.

Paulo Knauss and Temístocles Cezar, in preface to the work of Manoel Luiz Salgado Guimarães, explain the importance that the writing of history gained at that moment, when postulating that,

"The process of constructing the idea of a Brazilian nation must be understood as an 'authentic state project', in which the literate elite and state agents (who, in most cases, became mingled) mobilized a series of political, economic, cultural and symbolic resources at the service of its creation" (2011, p. 12)

This image of the Brazilian nation, to be consolidated by the action of the Institute and its affiliates, would have the purpose of showing a united nation, composed by the presence of the "three races", as an event that, present in the past, could and should be taken as an example for the present and model for the future. Through the image of the union, it was sought to decompose the legitimacy of the movements that opposed the government and its mode of action. This ideological premise of the nation was sustained, throughout the Second Brazilian Empire (1840 – 1889), through the basis of the Romantic movement, which in Brazil gained some different contours of its European counterpart. According to Bernardo Ricupero (2004), Brazilian Romanticism "considers that the main characteristics of the Brazilian nation would be in the exuberant American nature, and in its original inhabitant, the Indian" (p. XXVIII). In the same way, while European romanticism was a reaction to the advance of capitalism and new social relations initiated there, in the Brazilian case such an economic and social system was viewed with sympathy, although there was a widespread fear about the slave, which explains, still according to Ricupero, that the black people almost does not appear the beginning of Romanticism.

Thus, it is understood that the initial objective of the study of history in Brazil was to build a nationalism that, starting from a concern of the State regarding to the political-social situation of the country, served as an agglutinating element of the population gathered here. Allied to this, the political measures taken by the emperor, along with the economic growth caused by the expansion of the coffee plantations, have made the country go through a stability that has extended for more than three decades. It was in the 1880s that a series of conflicts between political power, the Church and the military led to a seizure of power by the Army and the end of imperial government in Brazil.

Once the republican government has initiated, little changed in the understanding of what history would be and what its role in the formation of citizens. This discipline was understood as forming a patriotic feeling, based on the action of the great men of the government, in a perspective strongly aligned with positivism. Some changes have been felt, particularly with regard to the icons around which history should align. Circe Bittencourt (2011) points out that "the image of Tiradentes, recovered by the military at the end of the 19th century, began to become a national symbol, seeking to recall the event associating republic and freedom" (p. 73). However, as new heroes were listed and if one sought to associate civic rituals with historical remembrance with a militaristic tradition, there were no substantial changes in the interpretation of the meaning of history, or even of its form of teaching.

More significant transformations in the understanding of Brazil's past appeared in the 1930s, when Getúlio Vargas became the country's ruler. It was a time of changes from the economic point of view, with the effective beginning of national industrialization, as well as of social changes, with the increase of the working mass that came to live in the cities. The intellectuals of that time, checking the changes that took place, sought to understand the reason for the national "backwardness", in view of the other nations already industrialized and economically advanced. However, little criticism was the story still produced and thought, based on the premise of miscegenation as a constructor of Brazilian nationality,

whose most striking feature was its pacifism and tranquility. But this situation would change, such as taught Jaime Pinsky (2011),

"In the late 1950s, and even more so, in the early 1960s, concern for the sciences of society has expanded greatly. It was the time of the 'grassroots reforms', changes demanded by workers, students and middle-class sectors in order to modernize and democratize the country's wealth division" (p. 20).

These decades marked the beginning of the popular classes' access to formal education, particularly through the creation of night courses, which should serve to create a more qualified proletariat that could serve to occupy the jobs in the industries that spread in Brazil. Despite such a technicist view, advances were seen in the interpretation of history, with more emphasis on the study of the black people's condition and the history of their exploitation in Brazil. Many scholars appropriated Marxism at that moment and started to rewrite history from the objective material conditions to which the workers of the country were subjected.

However, such a change in the historical interpretation of Brazil was soon inhibited by the rise of the military to power in 1964. In a period characterized by the intense ideological dispute of the Cold War, it was up to the Brazilians, in line with US interests, to put away the socialist danger that was alleged to surround the government. To this end, the military took power to remove João Goulart from presidency, under the allegation of building a government with socialist characteristics. In this context, teaching was hard hit, and the changes that could have shifted from academic analysis to basic education were thwarted, with the permanence of a history seen as linear, progressive, "stories of kings, heroes, and battles, which reduced men to the category of tiny object in the universe of grandiose monsters that decide the path of humanity and the role of each of us, mere mortals" (Pinsky, 2011, 21). Reinforcing nationalism, such a view of history was still aligned with a notion of "banking knowledge", as Paulo Freire (2002, p. 13) would define, that is, a notion that the student would merely be the depository of knowledge to be there deposited by the educator.

However, this was not just a time of setbacks. There has been, though timidly, some advances, as Circe Bittencourt (2008) points out

"Criticism of teaching methods led educators in the late 1960s to put more emphasis on this aspect, and the renewal of teaching thus fell on methodological issues. The emphasis on the need for methodological renewal favored the emergence of proposals that separated teaching methods from explicit content" (p. 225).

Although the contents were at the moment in the service of the construction of a nationalistic imaginary, at least there was a concern about the "how to teach", more profitable than that concerning "what to teach". From this context, the use of, for example, audiovisual resources for the teaching of the humanities, since such an instrument would allow the understanding of a story not only narrated, but perceived as made by people who, in the midst of films and images projected, gained materiality. This appeal to the use of films and documentaries became productive also by allowing different readings about a given event to be confronted by the students. As Abud, Silva and Alves (2010) affirm, "if conceptions of the past are products of the present, films reveal in their interior interpretations that, contrary to historical knowledge created through research, different visions about the same facts" (p. 167). According to Bittencourt (2008), "directed studies, crossword puzzles and other word games corresponded to mnemonic techniques understood as 'innovative teaching methods'" (p. 226).

This renewal, although discreet, expanded in the 1980s, when the military regime established in the country began to lose its force and democratic openness began to impose itself as a necessity, since the so-called "socialist danger" was already gone away, the economic crisis and the denunciations of violence against civilians removed the legitimacy of the Armed Forces as political leaders. From 1985, with the election of Tancredo Neves, the country once again had a civil government, and political reorganization measures began to emerge, giving voice to several groups that couldn't manifest themselves until then. Their demands began to gain materiality with the Constituent Assembly which, in 1988, enacted a constitution quite advanced for the time in terms of social rights.

In the midst of this process, educational reforms have also gained momentum, both in the sense of renewing curriculum content and in regard to methodologies, since, "the teaching process is intrinsically linked to the social process and the modifications in one of them reflect and are reflected in the other" (Horn, Germinari, 2006, p.18). The advance of democracy, giving voice to many groups that were previously invisibilized, made it necessary to rethink both the content to

be apprehended by the students and how to get the student to get in touch with this knowledge, that is, it was sought a renewal that covered not only the curriculum but also the methodology used in the classes.

Circe Bittencourt (2008) also warns in this regard that the educator should have clear in his practice what is understood by "teaching methodology" (p. 226), since it differs from what can only be called "teaching technique ". By teaching methodology can be understood a set of techniques whose execution is linked to the fulfillment of a specific pedagogical proposal, which pervades all instances of learning within an institution. Not just the execution of a lesson, but anything that can favor learning can and should be contemplated by this methodology. As for the teaching technique, it can be defined as a specific strategy, within which many different resources can be used, and whose objective will always be student learning.

In this way, it is not assumed that the use of a technique has value in itself, but that it is inserted in a process that crosses all the performance of the teacher and the very operation of the institution in which this educator is inserted.

Thus, we are living today in the wake of the transformations begun in the 1980s, permeated by one more fundamental element: the advent of the internet and the immense diffusion of information technologies. These have provided unprecedented access to information, which can be thought of both as an ally and as a constraint in the teaching-learning process. Allied in the sense that information now is all available online, since previously it would require long journeys to libraries or documentation centers and would require, either from the teacher or from the student, a great deal of work in locating, manipulating and finally acquiring such information, through books and documents present in such institutions. However, while facilitating access to information, such technologies make available to those who want to research a given subject a torrent of information whose truthfulness may be challenged, or that brings errors that, although small, can contribute to the construction of a distorted vision of certain subjects.

In this way, thinking about the use of the internet and its resources in the classroom is fundamental for the history professional, given the immense amount of sources, diverse documents and supporting texts that can be used in the teaching process. However, there is a constant struggle in this direction: many educators, in their lines or even in their writings, seem to be fully aware of the need for new methodologies that take on greater student protagonism, and even accept that the Internet can be a facilitator of this process. However, by actually putting their work into practice, these same educators maintain a more traditional class perspective, in the form of an expository class, without giving space for an effective participation of the student. Jaime Pinsky (2011) in a text that discusses the importance of history, points out this same incoherence when talking about a history understood only as "science of the past". In the words of the historian, "This conception of history, although much criticized 'in thesis' and resulting in jokes, is still used in practice by many historians, authors and professors, for whom to historicize is simply to report something that is already behind" (p. 9)

It is necessary, at a practical level, for a greater knowledge and even validation of these new methodologies so that, effectively, these changes that have been thought over the last three decades leave the level of the theory and reach its fullness as practice, so that the student cease to be treated as a receiver of ready knowledge and become himself the constructor of such ideas. According to Paulo Miceli, this

"can begin with what would be the reversal of a puzzle: the ready and finished event, which always composes an image that aspires to encompass the totality, must be decomposed to denounce viewers to the arbitrariness of their construct, as if one were showing the audience to the invisible threads that support the tricks of the illusionist - as supernatural as any of us" (2011, p. 45).

In a society in which the advancement of information technologies is inexorable, it is up to the educators to know and apply in their practice methodologies that allow the student to elaborate their knowledge. This does not mean that the teacher becomes expendable; on the contrary, its performance is of fundamental importance, but not as absolute holder of knowledge, but rather as mediator in this process of teaching and learning. In this process of mediation, many tools have been developed and applied effectively, showing that change is possible without the need for an absolute rupture, which could lead to the confrontation of the teachers with the new technologies and, therefore, put them away from this required transformation. The use of the *WebQuest* tool has become, more and more, an allied to the teachers in their classes and of course, in the history classes it could not be different, even going in the direction to allow the supervised autonomy of the students. To understand it in its importance and scope, it is necessary to understand that it forms part of the set known as active teaching-learning methodologies.

The active teaching-learning methodologies

We're living right now in a time of extreme technological development. The school of today requires changes in the posture of those involved in the teaching and learning process in order to favor the quality of the classes, as well as the teaching strategies, which support the reflection and criticism development of both the teacher and the student. The changes in the way of teaching and learning started happening since Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) began to integrate the activities in the classrooms. The technologies have allowed new enchantment in the school, opening their networks for students to interact and exchange experiences with other students from different places, countries or different realities.

"Students and teachers find numerous electronic libraries, online magazines, with many texts, images and sounds, which make it easier to prepare classes, do research and have attractive materials for presentation. The teacher may be closer to the student. You can receive messages with questions, you can pass on additional information to certain students. You can tailor your class to the pace of each student. The teaching-learning process can thus gain dynamism, innovation and unusual communication power". (Moran, 1995, p.25)

In this context it is necessary to situate some questions related to the objectives of the new technologies in the educational context. According to Barreto (2002), new technologies are those that are not confused with "old" ones: blackboard, notebook, pencil, pen, textbooks, etc. Such new technologies are information and communication technologies (ICT), in a formulation that demarcates their belonging to non-educational areas, in the sense of produced in the context of other social relations for other purposes.

The use of resources related to new information and communication technologies (ICT), such as simulators, virtual reality, mobile devices and even the simple use of cyberspace, has established itself as a new moment in the educational process. The flow and speed of network interactions and the collaborative purpose of information show a growing need for building new educational structures. Students no longer want to be passive in front of a television for example; his acting happens instantly via *Twitter* or sharing in networks like story of *Instagram*, *Facebook* or *Snapchat*. How to deal with this student in the classroom? According to Kenski (2012),

"The linear articulation of the classroom, in which the teacher only speaks, and then responds to the students' questions, does not always produce expected results. The students, especially the younger ones, scatter and start zapping in class. Their attention oscillates between the teacher's speech, the behavior of colleagues, the noises; they travel in thoughts" (p. 54)

According to Lévy (2007, p. 4), new ways of thinking and living are being elaborated in the world of telecommunications and information technology and with the range of technological devices and options to be worked in the classroom, the pedagogical and methodological practice of the teacher has to reinvent itself, becoming a constant awakening of new interests. It is no longer enough to change the chalk by the electronic board, the PowerPoint slides by the mirroring of digital didactic sequences, it is necessary to go beyond the universe of the classroom, to cross the walls of the school and to analyze, to punctuate the challenges, to discover the advantages and disadvantages of use of mobile technologies in virtual learning environments, since they are planned or incorporated in order to facilitate, support and extend the process of teaching learning inside and outside the school environment. In this way, the teacher becomes the moderator of the knowledge that the student will find in the different networks for pedagogical purposes.

WebQuest as a teaching-learning proposal

WebQuest is in line with proposals that have collaborative learning as a principle, since it is characterized by the active participation of the student in the learning process; by the mediation by teachers; by the collective construction of knowledge, the exchange between peers, the students' practical activities, their reflections, their debates and questions; by the interactivity between the different actors that act in the construction of knowledge; stimulation of expression and communication processes; development and evaluation of activities; the development of student autonomy in the teaching-learning process; the valuing of freedom with responsibility; commitment to authorship; by the valorization of the process and not of the product. According to Dodge (1995), the *WebQuests* are based on the conviction that we learn more and better with others, not individually. More significant learning is the result of acts of cooperation.

In addition, surfing the Internet is accessing a universe of information; is to favor the integration of interactive collaboration groups at any time or place - a factor that makes it different from any other technological innovation that has emerged in recent times and that has been leveraging Distance Education. Silva (2000) points out that the internet becomes a valuable repository for the search of information if used in the construction of knowledge, generating a rich interactive and motivating learning environment. In the same way, it can also be a distracting element of data collection without relevance or that do not add pedagogical quality to the designated use.

For this purpose, a methodological intervention of using Webquest in a History class is presented here. The objectives of this study are to present to High School students the use of active methodologies during History class focusing on the content about the transference of the Portuguese royal family to Brazil in 1808 and the consequences of D. João VI's government for the future of the country. In the context of historical learning about Brazil, using *Webquest* as a technological tool, it was sought to make the student understand the importance of the transfer of the Portuguese royal family as a decisive event for the independence of the country and its construction as a free nation.

According to Rocha (2007), the creation of the concept of Webquest arose from the need to make learners active agents of the teaching-learning process, removing from the teacher the image of the only source of knowledge in the classroom. In this way, Webquest has a structure that includes seven topics, defined by Abar and Barbosa (2008, p.21-35):

Introduction: briefly presents the subject and proposes questions that will base the evaluation process. It is the moment to arouse the students' curiosity in relation to the proposed theme.

Task: The task triggers a series of actions, about what to do. One should clearly propose the development of a creative product that will excite, motivate, and challenge students.

Process: describes how the task will be developed by the students and guides them in the information that needs to be present in the Process and in the Resources. The process describes step-by-step the activity dynamics, and the resources are information that allows you to complete the task.

Resources: in this section, the teacher provides students with the materials, previously selected on the internet, which can guide their study process. It is the moment of greater action of the educator, because it is up to him to choose which are the reliable sources that will guide the student through their work.

Evaluation: It must be presented to students with clarity how the outcome of the Task will be assessed and what factors will be considered indicative that it has been successfully completed. These criteria should be in accordance with your goals.

Conclusion: The conclusion sums up the purpose of what will be learned and signals how the student can begin to study the subject. It should be an invitation to learn more.

Credits: references to the authors of Webquest, to the school where it was elaborated, education level or age group to whom it is intended, the making or updating and other information that may be useful to those who are using it.

According to the authors, the structure proposed above validates the proposal of an activity which has the characteristics of research in which, first, the student will become aware of the subject matter; then the objectives are defined; the plan of the actions that must be executed is made; and present the resources and sources necessary to carry out the actions, and finally present an object of study that will subsidize the evaluation process.

The structure of the Webquest used for the History class was discussed among the authors so that the students could follow according to the evaluative process that would be established there, since it was an activity to which the students must have access to Internet sites, previously designated by the authors to, from this point on, be able to execute it autonomously. The following is the model developed for this methodological proposal for the History class.

Applying the Webquest

The subject chosen was the transfer of the Portuguese royal family to Brazil in 1808 and the consequences of D. João VI's government for the future of the country. As Laurentino Gomes points out, such an event

"Occurred in one of the most exciting and revolutionary moments in Brazil and Portugal, where groups of such diverse interests as monarchists, republicans, federalists, separatists, abolitionists, traffickers and slave masters were opposed in a struggle for power that was to change radically the history of these two countries " (2007, p.20).

Among the various changes that are pointed out by the author, it may be noted that the government of D. João VI was responsible for breaking the Colonial Pact, by determining in January 1808, upon arrival in the country, the Opening of the Ports to the Friendly Nations. By allowing Brazil to trade with any nation that was not considered an enemy, since the old metropolis was occupied by Napoleon Bonaparte's forces, the king ended the most characteristic measure of the entire Colonial System, namely, the restriction of trade.

It can also be argued that this transfer was responsible for the creation of an urban and administrative infrastructure that the country did not have until then, given its colony position. Due to the need to organize and administer the Portuguese Empire, whose headquarters were in Rio de Janeiro, several government agencies and departments were created, among them the Royal Printing. This agency was responsible for the rupture with the lack of printed letters in Brazil, giving rise even to journalism in the country, a channel of communication through which there would be numerous political discussions.

But not only of creations and positive aspects has been marked the administration of D. João in America. In 1817, a great revolt, caused by poverty, droughts and high taxes, took place in the province of Pernambuco, questioning the government of Rio de Janeiro and seeking separation from Brazil. This *Revolução Pernambucana* was the most serious protest movement to the power of the king installed in the old colony until 1820, when, in Portugal, the *Revolução do Porto* began. This movement, fueled by Portuguese dissatisfaction with the absence of the king and his insistence on not returning to the country, even after the determinations of the Congress of Vienna, forced the monarch to return under penalty of losing his throne. In addition, the king was obliged to swear a constitution which was drawn up by these deputies, meeting in Lisbon, and who wished to limit his power so that other situations such as this did not happen again. Finally, this Revolution also sought to annul the advances that had been won in Brazil, with the intention of recolonizing the country, subjecting it again to the exploration that had characterized the last three centuries. It is from this perspective that in 1822 the movement led by D. Pedro led Brazil to gain its independence and become a free nation.

This brief introduction, regarding the subject addressed by the students in contact with *WebQuest*, is necessary for the understanding of the importance taken by such historical event in the development of the country. The history of Brazil at the beginning of the nineteenth century is the history of the achievements of D. João VI's government or its consequences, and the country's political emancipation was deeply linked to this event. Therefore, it is essential for students, when studying the emergence of Brazil as an independent nation, to understand this event as part of a larger process than that which occurred in 1822.

Based on the perception of such importance, some topics were selected to be studied by students. Firstly, we sought to situate the event of the transfer of the Portuguese royal family to Brazil within the European context of the late Eighteenth and early Nineteenth century, when the advance of the Napoleonic troops across Europe forced such a change. For this, a video, approximately two minutes, was selected on *YouTube* and staged by well known actors to the Brazilian public. This video explained the performance of Napoleon Bonaparte within Europe and why the Portuguese court moved to Brazil. This content was complemented with the reading of an article published by a magazine specialized in producing contents regarding History for the public unfamiliar with historical researches.

Secondly, a collection of images, available in an important news portal, was presented to the students, showing paintings depicting the main characters involved in such an event. The aim was to make concrete the figures that the students only heard or read about. Then, two other links led the students to have an overview of the process of installing the royal family in Brazil, showing the transformations brought by it. In this sense, two other links still guided the student by reading about the Opening of the Ports and the emergence of the press, points of outstanding relevance to subsequent events.

The students were then able to read about the protest movement that developed in Pernambuco, as well as about the *Revolução do Porto*, which constituted two more elements present in the resources available to students. Finally, the last link took the students to a set of four short videos, produced by Laurentino Gomes, which present an overview of such changes and their consequences for the independence of the country.

All of these materials whose links were made available through *WebQuest* provided students with a very broad view of the process we wanted to present. In addition, students were also instructed to use their textbooks if they felt it necessary to

supplement or clarify any question, just as research on other internet sites was also encouraged. For this research, the time of one class (70 minutes) was made available, and students could finish these readings at home. In the possession of such information, students should then produce other materials that would translate into their evaluation. Two were the productions requested from students: first, students should construct, in their notebooks, a conceptual map in their notebooks about the transfer of the Portuguese royal family and the government of D. João VI in Brazil. This strategy was used so that, through the materials consulted, the students could construct a diagram in which, by relating the concepts, they could also hierarchize the ideas and organize the studied content. This first assessment was proposed to students to be held collaboratively, although each student should have his own conceptual map in his notebook. This was assessed by the teacher through a resumption with the students and construction of the conceptual map in the board, from the information that was provided by the students.

Secondly, students were asked to produce, within a week, a video, lasting between five and eight minutes, illustrating the studied subject. Unlike the conceptual map, which would be in the students' possession and would serve for their particular consultation and study, the video would allow the teacher to evaluate the understanding that the students obtained at the end of this process. Students were instructed to freely produce the videos, using their creativity to expose the process that had been studied. In the following week, the videos were presented in the classroom, for the exhibition of the whole class and the authors involved in this work. Various strategies were used by the students, such as the presentation in the form of television news, stop-motion video or even in the form of interviews. The videos showed that, after reading, drawing up the concept map and taking it back in class, the students had appropriated such content, building in a mediated way the desired knowledge about such subject.

Lastly, students were offered a self-assessment, which sought to understand aspects such as: if students consider the Internet as a source of information and knowledge; if they understand the importance of using *WebQuest* in the classroom; if they believe that the knowledge building should start from the student; if they feel comfortable in relation to collaborative work and if they believe that the teacher should act as mediator in the teaching-learning process. These questions were presented to be evaluated according to the following gradations: "I fully agree", "I partially agree", "I cannot opine", "I partially disagree" and "I strongly disagree". One last question left some blank space for students to freely comment on their practice or use of the Internet as a source of research. The form was presented to students without the need for individual identification, which would allow them greater freedom when formulating observations about the use of the tool or the technologies in general. The data were collected using an online form, using Google Form, and the result of this self-assessment, as well as other considerations regarding the whole process are presented in the following section.

Final Considerations

The *WebQuest* whose application is discussed in this work was developed with a group of 18 students from the second year of High School of a private school in the city of Londrina (PR). 100% of the students participated in the proposal presented for the history class and answered the self assessment questionnaire that subsidizes the analysis and discussion of the validation of the tool as an instrument of the teaching-learning process. Once the data were gathered, we came to results that corroborate the thesis of the need for new methodologies that bring the student to an effective participation in their learning, confirming that *WebQuest* as a technological tool offers the students the opportunity to be protagonists of their learning, enabling the development of initiative and autonomy.

In the first question asked in this self-assessment, when asked whether they considered the Internet to be a relevant source of information and knowledge, 66,7% indicated the answer "I fully agree", while another 33,3% stated that "I agree partially." This can be understood from answers presented by the students themselves in the last section, when, among 10 answers in this particular item, 7 pointed out that the internet can be a great ally in the teaching and learning process, but that there must be, at the same time, great care in selecting reliable sources for this study. The participants of the research, adherents to the technologies that today invade reality, realize that these can and should be used to realize or reinforce their learning.

In the second question, when asked if they considered *WebQuest* as an important tool for classroom use, 77,8% of the students answered that they agreed partially, 16,7% showed that they fully agreed, while only 5,5% couldn't opine. The fact that 94,5% agree, even if partially can be analyzed from the perspective that the use of this resource should be seen as one more element in the process of teaching and learning, since multiple are the forms of learning, via active methodologies and the insistence on only one way of elaborating this process may not encompass the multiplicity of learning styles presented by students.

In the third question, students should respond if they believed that the construction of knowledge should begin with the learner. 55.6% of the students agreed partially with this idea, 33.3% fully agreed with this, while 11.1% stated that they did not know how to express their opinion. It is perceived, through this question, that the students' posture meets the new pedagogical perspectives that place the learner as protagonist in their learning. Although still somewhat insecure, students realize that it is their responsibility to seek such a construction, since meaningful learning will occur as soon as they engage in such a process.

In the fourth question the students were asked if they felt comfortable about doing collaborative work. 55.6% of the students said they fully agree, 33.3% said they partially agree, 5.6% partially disagreed and 5.6% totally disagreed. At this point, it should be realized that a traditional perspective, in which each student works individually in the production of his knowledge, no longer suits the students' desire, since they demonstrate that working in a collaborative way is in their interest and that they do this without any problem. The fact that 11.2% of the students disagree about this perspective, can raise a hypothesis about aspects of personality or even relationships with the groups with which they carry out their work. However, this can and should be taken into account when planning the teaching process, since they must also be affected by educational actions.

In the last question, when asked whether the teacher should act as mediator of knowledge, 61.1% of the students said they fully agree, 33.3% partially agreed and 5.6% partially disagreed. The answer to this question reinforces the notion that learners understand the teacher as a fundamental figure in the process of teaching and learning, but do not perceive the educator as the absolute holder of knowledge. The fact that they consider it as a mediator points to the importance of the educator to decentralize their actions, seeking alternatives that contemplate the role of students in their learning.

From the answers presented in the instrument that analyzes and discusses the proposal of an innovative practice, as an active methodology, it is noticed that the students yearn for changes in the teaching and learning process. They feel the will to work in a collaborative way, using information and communication technologies (ICT) as allies to reinforce this process. More than this, they realize that it is fundamental that they are actively brought to participate in the construction of their own knowledge, because in this way this learning becomes significant.

The student, in an interactive teaching approach, presents greater autonomy and a greater degree of responsibility. With tasks to be performed, it is easier to expose, since there will always be time and space for the presentation of your ideas, being requested by the teacher and his colleagues - to position themselves, to expose their thinking and to take sides. Teaching activities with this level of participation can be carried out in environments that foster the interaction, collaboration and evaluation of students and teachers.

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Learning Experiences in Higher and Further Education- An Innovative Socialentrepreneurship Project in a Public Mexican University

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Abstract

This innovative educational project is the result of the work of a group of academics, who met the challenges of the 21st century, added their specific visions and made contact with transdisciplinarity and the formation of a significant formation in their students of the Educational Administration Program with learning orientated to the transfer, that is to say new fields of application (Campirán et al, 2005); this transit was possible through the metacognition resulting from the synergy found at the Universidad Veracruzana (Mexico) and the HEC University Montreal (Canada) to generate spaces that transcend the classrooms and thus express this vision that would allow to refocus and redirect their educational goals (Campirán et al, 2005). Internationalization of social entrepreneurship is part of an educational bonding project led by the academic group CA-UV-367 "Entrepreneurship, Management and Internalization" from which academics articulate formally the critical and complex exercise for an object-relation of learning of different visions: academic formation (curricular design); accommodation (spiral organization); development of visions based on competencias (Campirán, 1999, in Morado, 1999) and integrative concepts (Campirán et al, 2005). The results obtained from the exercise and the use of the transdisciplinary vision approach greatly enriched the units of competence and the curricular contents of educational experiences: Strategic and economic planning over time promoted and strengthened in students their comprehensive and flexible training in addition to enhancing their resources and academic capabilities by projecting themselves as members of a global community.

Keywords: innovativeeducational project; social entrepreneurship; educational bonding.

Introduction

According to OECD (2016) reports, innovation will be essential to promote major qualitative changes in education, as opposed to the quantitative growth seen during last years. These changes are needed to enhance efficiency and improve the quality and equity of learning opportunities globally. To achieve these goals, new skills must be developed through academic programs, such as critical, creative and complex thinking, social innovation and communitary responsibility; all these could be promoted linking the academic framework with real professional practice. Therefore, topics such as entrepreneurship and social innovation take relevance into curriculum design.

Also, Falch & Mang (2015) state that educational innovation has an important effect on economic growth; then, the role of education is to develop the skills needed in labor market. Educational system must provide the conditions to prepare better trained workforce.

Based on the above, the relevance of the innovative educational project (IEP) Internationalizing Social Entrepreneurship is that it led the joint work among a group of students which participated in an international competition which aimed at the creation of a social enterprise to solve a real social problem using an online educational platform; during this process, students were coached by professors part of the CA-UV-367 and advisors of the General and Regional Coordination of Bonding.

This educational innovative project contributed to the achievement of two competence units from two educational experiences: Economics and Strategic Planning. The Economic Competence Unit was designed to distinguish and explain economic characteristics and theories that explain the economic behavior of the organization in the design and analysis of conceptual maps, synoptic charts, critical lectures, case studies and essays in order to allow students to develop analytical, reflexive and proactive attitudes about the importance of the economy in the business world. This is relevant because through the study of economic theory the student understands that the problems of poverty, inequality and environment have not been solved with the application of orthodox economic models with multiple failures.

The Strategic Planning Competency Unit was design to analyze and create an integrative project through bibliographic and field research applied to the fundamental knowledge of strategic planning, and to generate with a responsible and proactive attitude strategic plans that allow companies to position and remain in the market through the achievement of competitive advantages; with a sense of commitment, autonomy and social responsibility. These contents were relevant for the project because a strategic business plan contributes to all commercial and non-profit activities; also, it is an administrative tool and allows entrepreneurs to know where they are and where the company is headed; as well as allow the advance of the same and contribute to overcoming the obstacles, managing to clarify its vision and to take advantage of the opportunities and resources (Stutely, 2000).

Objectives

The main objective of this project consisted in the development of a proposal to solve the problem of single mothers who leave their children to the care of unqualified third parties, offering them a kindergarten and quality education service and, simultaneously, to support low-income students to obtain a part-time job that will help them finance their studies and thus avoid dropping out of school.

The proposed solution was designed from the transdisciplinarity (complex thinking) approach by intervening the theoretical, heuristic and axiological knowledge of educational experiences: Economics (economic theories) and Strategic planning (business plans and models); of the Line of Generation and Application of Knowledge, specifically Entrepreneurship and Social Companies; the development of mobile applications and a foreign language (English).

Thus, the collateral objective of the project was to show that the classroom is a dynamic space, integrated by several dimensions (simultaneity of processes, presence of certainty, uncertainty and genesis) where it is possible to carry out the exercise of complexity.

Methodology

For this work the model of a Social Project was chosen because it was sought to generate in the students a learning experience that invited them to discover a social problem in its near context, which was the main theme of the competition, work autonomously and collaborative; to construct the learning the characteristics of the method proposed by Blumenfeld et al (1991):

- 1..An approach that is based on a real problem and involves several areas: high rates of teenage pregnancies; high rate of single working mothers; female desertion; limited job offer with part-time hours; low quality education for the children of single mothers; insertion into society of individuals "educated by television" or unskilled personnel.
- 2..Opportunities for students to carry out research that allows them to learn new concepts, apply information and represent their knowledge in a variety of ways: social economy (Flores, 2009); on-line course on: social enterprises (Sanchis, Villajos, & Ribeiro, 2012), sustainable development, business models (Stutely, 2000), marketing strategies for social enterprises, strategies for financing social enterprises; technological applications.

3. Collaboration among students, academics and others involved in sharing and distributing knowledge and experiences among members of the "learning community": creativity and innovation, social impact, systemic thinking and the green environment; public relations and marketing; financing for entrepreneurs.

4. The use of cognitive tools and learning environments that motivate the student to represent their ideas: most of the competition and the training were developed through a platform designed for it.

Project stages

Pre competition stage: the project was considered to have an extension of one year, its complexity was reduced to the theme of social business; only the platforms of the Universidad Veracruzana and HEC Montreal University were used; to achieve the objectives various spaces were used: classroom, CA-UV-367 cubicle; facilities of the different faculties of the Veracruz University Veracruz region; the virtual university library and virtual seminars conducted by professors experts in the subject of Social Economy, strategic business plan; social business, business models; marketing strategies (social networks); sources of internal and external funding (crowdfunding). Regarding autonomy, it was agreed that academics and students could control the progress of the project and students had the responsibility to find the meaning of being social entrepreneurs and belonging to an autonomous university; the expected results were reflected in the accorded products (sustainable social business model) and the guiding questions that were raised were: What does it mean for me to be a social entrepreneur of the Universidad Veracruzana?, with the sub-questions: What and who is an entrepreneur? What is a social enterprise? What does it mean to manage a social enterprise in Mexico? What does it mean to manage a social enterprise in Veracruz? Likewise, the expected product was a business model aimed at solving the problem of single working mothers and low-income university students.

Competition stage: competition results in Montreal (Canada) were: in the 2016 edition, competition admitted 44 teams from 30 different universities around the world; only 27 teams completed round 1 which had to comply with the following requirements: business concept, stakeholder analysis, feasibility of social support; 21 teams which completed round 2 had to fulfill next requirements: a brief speech of business presentation and check the ability to raise funds for their business; round 3 only was completed by 15 teams who had to attend in person training in Montreal and conducted the formal presentation of the business idea in 15 minutes before investors.

Post competition: after returning from competition, students produced a report of their experience; the information was analyzed and processed using the qualitative methodology (content analysis) by the members of the CA-UV-367, which could contribute to develop new research products on Entrepreneurship, Management and Internationalization.

Conclusion

Beyond the impact on the two educational experiences mentioned at the beginning of the project, student participation in the SBC competition in Montreal (Canada) transcended to transdisciplinarity.

Adopt the exercise of complexizing the classroom represented a major challenge for academics which had to migrate in their educational exercise towards the ecological model that far exceeded the conventional university spaces; it was dealt with from the beginning of the competition with simultaneous spaces full of emergent situations during the 6 months of pre competition and during the training week. Likewise, a new relationship was developed among the university community to share the experience of faculty members, which generated 4 social business projects for the next edition of the competition.

Finally, there is no doubt that complexing the classroom is a major challenge and an experience-learning of life for students, but also for academics which are aware of the responsibility of dealing with humans and the possibility of forging and empowering socially responsible global individuals.

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Views of Classroom Teachers About Social Studies Courses in the Context of Political Literacy

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Abstract

The aim of the study is to reveal the views of classroom teachers about social studies courses in the context of political literacy. The data of the study were collected through an interview form with six open-ended items, which was developed by the author. The participants were 28 classroom teachers working at five different public schools in Afyon during the school year of 2015-2016 spring semester. The data were collected through face-to-face semi-structured interviews. The data were analysed using descriptive method. The findings showed that in each learning domain distinct dimensions of political literacy were delivered. There is a consistency between the characteristics of politically literate individuals and political literacy skills taught in social studies courses. The participants considered social studies education program to be an appropriate area to produce politically literate citizens.

Keywords: elementary teachers, interview, political literacy, social studies

Introduction

Public life though knowledge, skills and values, what can be called 'political literacy', seeking for a term that is wider than political knowledge alone. Public life is used in its broadest sense to encompass realistic knowledge of and preparation for conflict resolution and decision-making related to the main economic and social problems of daily life, including each individual's expectations and preparation for the world of employment, and discussion of the allocation of public resources and the rationale of taxation. Such preparations are needed whether these occur in locally, nationally or internationally concerned organizations or at any level of society from formal political institutions to informal groups, both at local or national level (Advisory Group on Citizenship, 1998, p. 13). Political knowledge is an important prerequisite of political participation. Such participation should not be considered to be just consisting of voting. Considering the fact that the political participation is a part of democracy, focusing the attention on the democracy education would enable the young people to evaluate the political participation on a large scale (Kuş and Tarhan, 2016).

Zaller (1992) defines the political literacy as individuals' comprehensions of a political event and their political awareness. Davies (2008) stated that political literacy has been characterized as "a compound of knowledge, skills and procedural values" (such as respect for truth, reasoning and tolerance) and that it is also closely related to political action and engagement.

Social studies course covers a field of topics that falls in the diverse realm of social sciences, from economy and political science to sociology and law. Hence it may be too much to ask that the social studies curriculum could closely reflect the form of knowledge of all those academic disciplines (Löfström et. al, 2010). And politics is just one of the disciplines which is directly related to social studies programme. In elementary education social studies course aims to train and produce effective citizens. Additionally, it covers a learning area which can be called as "groups, institutions and social organisations". So it is important to determine what the views of teachers are about political literacy and social studies programme's effectiveness in achieving students' political literacy.

The goal of this study is to reveal the views of classroom teachers about social studies course and the teaching and activities carried out in the study in relation to political literacy. Based on this aim the study attempts to answer the following

research questions:

- How do classroom teachers evaluate their competency in regard to political literacy? What is their justification for this evaluation?
- What do classroom teachers think about having sufficient political literacy for being a teacher in terms of its contributions to teaching profession?
- What do classroom teachers think about the characteristics of politically literate individuals?
- What do classroom teachers think about the contributions of social studies education program to political literacy?
- Which sources do classroom teachers use in teaching political literacy?
- Which learning activities do classroom teachers use in teaching political literacy?

II. Method

This section gives the research model, participants, data collection tool and process as well as data analysis.

Research model

The study was designed as a qualitative research in which semi-structured interviews were employed. Semi-structured interviews allow to focus on the reports by the participants and their views (Güler, Halıcıoğlu and Taşkın, 2015. p.116).

Participants

The participants of the study were twenty-eight classroom teachers who were working at five public schools serving for the children from lower, medium and higher socioeconomic levels in Afyon province during the school year of 2015-2016. The features of the participants are below in Table 1.

Data collection tool

The data of the study were collected through the use of an interview form with six items. Following the establishments of the content validity of the tool through the review by field specialists it was used in the pilot study in which the participants were the classroom teachers teaching the fourth graders. Based on the findings of the pilot study the items included in the interview form were finalized. Before the interviews the participants were informed about the study and their permission was granted. The interviews were recorded.

Data analysis

The data obtained were analysed using descriptive approach. In the analysis the data were grouped based on the predetermined themes and interpreted. The qualitative data were converted into quantitative ones and frequency and percentage were identified. In order to establish the reliability of the study the answers to the open-ended items were analysed by the author and two field specialists and the answers were grouped as mutually agreed ones and disagreed ones. The reliability was identified using the formula developed by Miles and Huberman (1994). The analysis produced the value of $P = 92$, indicating that the study is reliable.

III. Findings

This section gives the findings of the study with tables and direct quotations. Table 2 shows the frequency and percentage of the reports of the participants about their self-evaluations concerning being a person with political literacy.

As can be seen in Table 2, only 35.72% of the participants regarded themselves as sufficiently politically literate, while 17.86% of them reported that their political literacy level is moderate. Those who considered themselves as insufficiently politically literate were found to be 46.42% of the participants. The participants provided several justifications for their self-evaluation. Table 3 shows these statements as follows:

As can be seen in Table 3 the participants frequently stated the following reasons for being a sufficiently politically literate person: following the actual events, reading different newspapers for this purpose and listening what is said to them. The following statement exemplifies such views:

"I think I follow current affairs and I want the others to be conscious about these affairs. I think about the effects of current affairs on my country or on the relations between my country and other countries"

The following reasons for being an insufficiently politically literate person are given: Due to time limitations not managing to read books about politics, not making research about what they have heard and not having intensive interest in media outlets. The following statement exemplifies such views:

"While I was at high school I did not have enough time to read political books due to the fact that I had to prepare for university entrance exams. While I was at university I had to work hard. Now I could have time to read such books due to my professional and familial responsibility. In addition, in schools there is no room for it, but I think it should exist"

Table 4 shows the frequency of the views of the participants about the contributions of having political literacy to teaching profession.

The participants reported that political literacy may contribute to teaching profession to produce global citizens, to allow for students to actively take part in social life and to employ democratic principles in classrooms. One of the related statements is given as follows:

"Today we need those citizens who are open to different perspectives and can take initiative. In short, what we need is global citizens. If a teacher is politically literate, then he could students who are also politically literate. If not, it is not possible."

Table 5 shows the characteristics of individuals who are politically literate according to the reports of the participants.

As can be seen in Table 5 the participants reported that an individual with political literacy has political knowledge, is aware of social organizations and of their rights.

The following statement exemplifies this view:

"An individual with political literacy should have political knowledge. They should have a world view. He must be aware of political parties which are consistent with their world views. However, it is also needed for them to observe the activities of these parties to make a correct decision"

Table 6 shows the views of the participants about the relationship between the units in social studies courses and acquisition of political literacy.

As can be seen from Table 7 above in regard to the learning domain of individual and society the participants argued that an individual who is politically literate should analyse different views, empathy and he should not be biased. The statement below exemplifies this position as follows:

"Most of the topics covered in the learning domain of individual and society are about respect for others' views, expressing his own views. It helps producing politically literate individuals who are free of bias."

The participants stated that the learning domain "culture and heritage" contributes to loving the country, communication with family members and other people. The following statement shows this view as follows:

"the learning domain of culture and heritage is one which is closely related to history. It is very effective in teaching relations with neighbor countries, patriotism, communication with family members and other people through oral history studies."

The participants stated that the learning domain People Places and Environments mostly emphasizes performing tasks as a citizen in emergencies. The following statement shows this position:

“Afyon is one of the high priority areas in terms of earthquake and in addition, there are many work accidents. Knowledge about these are given in this specific learning domain and it also emphasizes duties of citizens in regard to social organizations.”

The participants argued that the learning domain production, distribution and consumption focuses on being aware of and use the rights.

“The learning domain production, distribution and consumption focuses on being aware of and use the rights, but we also emphasize children’s rights and the rights of citizens. It is very important to emphasize the significance of being a citizen who is aware of and uses the rights. Such an approach helps teaching political literacy skills.”

The participants maintained that the learning domain science, technology and society contributes to political literacy in terms of being sensitive to environment, using technology efficiently and being open to use various source to get information. Regarding such contributions one of the participants stated the following view:

“A citizen who is politically literate should be sensitive to environment. We learn students to employ technology without any damage to others and environment in this learning domain. Students also learn about non-governmental organizations including environmentalist organizations. We also teach the use of communication technology to access information. We encourage students to employ such devices.”

The participants stated that in the learning domain groups, institutions and social organizations the focus is on having information about social organizations, using different sources in the decision-making process and being aware of tasks and duties in groups, institutions and social organizations. The following statement exemplifies this view:

“This learning domain covers the decision-making process in educational and social activities. We try to teach making decisions using different perspectives. We emphasize the fact that students should recognize the problems in the society in which they live and should attempt to solve these problems and that they should perform several duties in non-governmental organizations.”

In regard to the learning domain “power, management and society” the participants stated that it contributes to being aware of democracy, the duties and the effects of citizens on local administrations. The following statement exemplifies this view:

“In this learning domain students are taught local administrations, democracy, national councils, elections. We organize the elections of class heads as real elections. In these activities students are allowed to have experience of being a candidate, elections, vote counts.”

The participants argued that in the learning domain “global networks” the topics emphasized were being contemporary and tolerant and following current affairs. One of the participants expressed the following view:

“In the learning domain “global networks” students become familiar with other countries and different lifestyles. Therefore, this learning domain makes it possible for students to respect for different views, to have information about different countries and to recognize differences and similarities between their country and other countries.”

Table 7 shows the reports of the participants about the sources used in teaching political literacy.

As can be seen from Table above the participants reported that they mostly used media products, families and academic books in teaching the skills related to political literacy. One of the participants who used media products for this aim stated his views as follows:

“In producing students who are politically literate the most significant point is that they should correctly interpret messages of media products. Therefore, all types of media products should be employed. In class discussions students ask questions about the message of the news story, news video or advertisements.”

Table 8 shows the activities used by the participants in political literacy skills.

As can be seen from Table 8 class activities mostly used by the participants in political literacy skills was the practice of elections of class heads. In regard to out of school activities they mostly used visits for this purpose. The following statements :

"In the election of class head the process is realized as democratic election process and it is made up of several steps including candidacy, propaganda, preparation of ballot, election council, vote count among the others. In a sense students have an experience of democratic election process."

"Visits are organized to headman, municipality, governorship and even to grand national assembly. Students are given an opportunity to meet and to ask questions to politicians there. In addition, visits are organized to foundations, social organizations. Visits are very important activities for students to learn the position of these organizations in society."

IV. Conclusion and Discussion

Based on the findings of the study the major conclusions can be briefly given as follows:

In the study carried out by Demaine (2004) teachers stated about the activities which aims to introduce political literacy to the students relating matters to pupil's out of school context, especially national level such as their own street, their school, their city or country. Teachers also stated that they use classroom discussions about current events, economy and economy's effect on political relations". In this study the participants also reported that they mostly made use of discussion of immediate problems to find solutions, internet research about economy and politics in promoting political literacy of students.

According to the quantitative results of the study, the teachers frequently emphasized the importance of non-governmental organizations, universal values, indulgence for differences and the democratic process in the class. In this study elementary teachers stated the importance of non-governmental organizations too.

Madhok (2005) refers to features of political literacy such as political choice and opinion, knowledge of one's rights, knowledge of state institutions, hierarchies and procedures. In other words, knowledge is not only of institutions but also of the rules that govern their functioning. In this study elementary teachers stated about political literacy that are related to political choice, opinion, information, awareness about rights and responsibilities.

The findings of the study indicate that each participant has many different dimensions about the concept of political literacy. On the other hand, their reports about the characteristics of political literacy contributed by social studies course and the characteristics of individuals who are politically literate are found to be consistent. It indicates social studies courses are proper teaching field to promote political literacy among students.

However, the findings of the study show that the participants did not employ local administrations, institutions, non-governmental organizations as much as it is required in promoting political literacy of students. In order to promote political literacy of student's classroom teachers may employ project-based activities about social rights of citizens rather than delivery of theoretical knowledge. Classroom teachers' knowledge about political literacy can be expanded through in-service training activities. Similarly, student teachers may have much more knowledge of it during teacher training process. Research on political literacy can be carried out with primary school students and with student teachers. Several activities to emphasize political literacy can be covered in social studies course textbooks.

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TABLES

Table 1. Characteristics of the participants

		f	%
Gender	Female	1	57.14
	Male	6	42.86
		1	
		2	
Professional experience	0-5 years	2	7.14
	6-9 years	4	14.28
	10-14 years	8	28.57
	15-19 years	9	32.14
	20-+ years	5	17.85
Educational background	Graduate	2	71.42
	Two-year higher education	0	10.71
	Undergraduate	3	17.85
		5	

Table 2. Self-evaluation of classroom teachers' about their political literacy

		f	%
Sufficient		10	35.72
Moderate		5	17.86
Insufficient		13	46.42

Table 3. Participants' justifications about their self-evaluation

		f	%	
Justification for having sufficient political literacy	I regularly follow the actual events	6	21.42	
	I follow the actual events reading different newspapers	4	14.28	
	I listen what is said to me	4	14.28	
	I follow social media	4	14.28	
	I read books	2	7.14	
	My students take part in decision-making process	2	7.14	
	Each month an election takes place in class	1	3.57	
	My students can express their view	1	3.57	
	Justification for having insufficient political literacy	Due to time limitations I could not read books about politics	2	7.14
		I could not make research about what I have heard	2	7.14
I do not have intensive interest in media outlets		2	7.14	
Civil servants cannot express their political views freely		1	3.57	
Politics is not a favorable field in our country		1	3.57	
I make use of local administration whenever it is possible		1	3.57	
I follow only social media				

Table 4. Views of the participants about the contributions of having political literacy to teaching profession

A politically literate teacher	f	%
Can produce global citizens	4	14.28
Can allow for students to actively participate in social life	3	10.71
Employ democratic principles in classroom	3	10.71
Can allow for students to make predictions about future	3	10.71
Can allow for students to develop multiple perspectives	3	10.71
Can allow for students to perceive and interpret events	3	10.71
Can allow for students to develop empathy	3	10.71
Can design activities based on reasoning	2	7.14
Tries to have strong bonds with parents	2	7.14
Encourages students to know and use their rights	2	7.14
Provides opportunities with the students to improve their communication skills	2	7.14
Is the model for students	2	7.14
Has knowledge about political processes which he uses in teaching activities	1	3.57
Makes students to be interested in current affairs	1	3.57
Can relate economy, underground sources and other countries to international affairs in social studies courses	1	3.57
Makes use of several institutions in the teaching and learning process	1	3.57
Encourages students to be sensitive to the problems in their immediate environment and to look for solutions	1	3.57

Table 5. Views of the participants about characteristics of individuals who are politically literate

A politically literate individual	f	%
Has political knowledge	8	28.57
Is familiar with social organizations	7	25.00
Is aware of his rights	5	17.85
Manages to perform his social duties	4	14.28
Makes neutral comments	3	10.71
Has information about economics	3	10.71
Respects for different views	3	10.71
Loves his country	3	10.71
Uses different sources in the decision-making process	2	7.14
Is fair	2	7.14
Employs technology	2	7.14
Is sensitive to environment	2	7.14
Can develop empathy	2	7.14
Knows democracy	2	7.14
Has communication skills	2	7.14
Is free of bias	1	3.57
Follows current affairs	1	3.57
Has a good communication with his family members	1	3.57
Is an useful citizen	1	3.57
Is contemporary	1	3.57
Has tolerance	1	3.57
Is open to learn	1	3.57
Has open senses	1	3.57

Table 6. Views of the participants about the relationship between the units in social studies courses and acquisition of political literacy

Learning field/unit	Statement	f	%
Individual and society/ I know myself	Making neutral comments	3	10.71
	Empathy	1	50.00
		4	
	Not being biased	1	39.28
		1	
	Respect for different views	1	35.71
		0	
	Being fair	3	10.71
	Analyzing different views	1	53.57
		5	
	Expressing views about the different assumptions seen in media outlets and society	7	25.00
Culture and heritage / I am learning my past	Loving the country	1	67.85
		9	
	Communication with family members	1	50.00
		4	
	Communication with other people	1	35.71
	0		
People Places and Environments / The place where we live	Performing duties as a citizen in emergencies	1	35.71
		0	
Production. Distribution and Consumption / from production to Consumption	Being aware of their rights	2	75.00
		1	
	Using their rights	1	42.85
	Having knowledge about economy	2	
		1	35.71
	0		
Science. Technology and Society/ Happily it exists	Being sensitive to environment	1	64.28
		8	
	Using technology	1	60.71
		7	
	Being open to use different sources to have information	4	14.28
Groups. Institutions and Social Organisations / Together	Being aware of social organizations	2	82.14
		3	
	Using different sources to have information	1	60.71
		7	
	Being aware of their duties in groups, institutions and social organizations	1	53.17
		5	
Power. Management and Society / People and Management	Being aware of democracy	1	57.14
		6	
	Being aware of duties	1	39.28
		1	
	Being aware of their effects as citizens on local administrations	5	17.85
Global Connections / Remote Friends	being contemporary	6	21.42
	Being tolerant	9	32.14
	Following current affairs	1	42.85
		2	
	Being interested in different life styles	2	78.57
		2	
	Having political knowledge in regard to international affairs	7	25.00

Table 7. Sources used by the participants in teaching political literacy

Sources used	f	%
Media products	11	39.28
Families	11	39.28
Academical books	4	14.28
News	4	14.28
Short movies	3	10.71
Documentaries	3	10.71
public spots	3	10.71
Public institutions	2	7.14
Non-governmental institutions	2	39.28
posters of various social organizations and groups	2	7.14
Smart boards	2	7.14
Biographies	2	7.14
TV programs	2	7.14
Internet sources	2	7.14
Seminars	1	3.57
Personal development seminars	1	3.57
Local administrations	1	3.57
Charities	1	3.57
Scientific journals	1	3.57

Table 8. Activities used by the participants in political literacy skills

Type of activities	Activities	f	%
In class activities	Head of class elections	1	64.28
	Student clubs	8	21.42
	School council activities	6	10.71
	News	3	10.71
	Videos and visuals taken from various websites (EBA)	2	7.14
	Smart board	2	7.14
	Internet search about economy and politics	1	3.57
	Drama	1	3.57
	Brain storming	1	3.57
	Activities in certain days and weeks	1	3.57
	Visits	1	39.28
	Museum visits	1	14.28
	Visits to institutions	4	10.71
Out of school activities	Visits to non-governmental organizations	3	7.14
	Visits to municipality	2	7.14
	Theatres	1	3.57
	Discussion of social problems observed in the immediate environment in classroom	1	3.57
	Fund raising activities	1	3.57
	Parent involvement	6	21.42
	Visit to the grand national assembly	1	3.57
	Visit to art galleries	1	3.57
	Movies	1	3.57
	Picnics	1	3.57
	Visits to nursing homes	1	3.57

Prospective Teachers' Perceived Competence in the Use of Instructional Techniques: Evidence from Turkey

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Abstract

Teachers are expected to use student-centred methods and techniques advised by the most widely-recognised approaches rather than the traditional ones with the ultimate aim of meaningful and permanent learning. The present study was intended to probe the perceived competence of teacher candidates in using these techniques in the learning environment. More specifically, it investigated whether prospective teachers attending five different teacher training programmes significantly differ in this sense regarding such variables as gender, the studied subject area and seniority. The data were gathered from 375 undergraduate students studying at two state universities in Turkey through a questionnaire comprising of 28 likert-type items, and the obtained responses were analysed through the chi-square test. The overall findings have demonstrated that the majority of the participants feel highly competent in using almost all instructional techniques, notably in the use of question-and-answer drills, modelling, lecturing, case study, individualized teaching, conceptual mapping and games, indicating that their perceived competence in using both modern and traditional techniques is quite high. In addition, the female prospective teachers' perceived competence was found statistically higher than the males in using such modern techniques as six thinking hats, conceptual mapping, modelling, aquarium, experiment, fishbone, individualized teaching, conversation circle, mental mapping and programmed instruction ($p < .05$). Another noteworthy finding of the study was that perceived competence levels of 3rd graders were measured significantly higher than 4th graders approximately in all techniques, which might be attributed to a few factors. Finally, the study has indicated that the prospective primary school teachers and science teachers feel significantly more competent in using most of the techniques than the prospective EFL, Turkish language and mathematics teachers. The study suggests a couple of practical implications within the framework of teacher education based on these findings, and concludes with some suggestions for further directions.

Keywords: Perceived competence, instructional technique, prospective teacher

Introduction

Instructional methods and techniques play an undeniable role in the attainment of the educational goals and objectives. The term instructional (teaching) method broadly refers to general principles, pedagogy and management strategies used for classroom instruction. The choice of teaching method depends on what fits the teacher, educational philosophy, classroom demographic, subject area(s) and school statement (Kucharcikova & Tokarcikova, 2016). According to Lurea et al. (2011), a good teaching method is expected to imply relevant and visible training values which shall motivate students, to make them aware of their understanding and reflection, and to help them make up their critical thinking which will guarantee their trust in their own forces, thus becoming capable of deep understanding of ideas and schemes, as well as the modalities of connecting these with the values and skills required by their future jobs. Instructional technique, on the other hand, refers to a series of related and progressive acts performed by a teacher and students to achieve the objectives of the lesson (e.g. Lecturing, discussion, case study, demonstration, problem solving, and etc.). More specifically, these

techniques are defined as the specific acts or strategies adopted by veteran teachers to eject variety in their teaching, stimulate it and maintain interest in it (Ukoha & Eneogwe, 1996). They are typically divided into three categories as (i) group work techniques (e.g. brainstorming, demonstration, question-and-answer drill, simulation, drama, micro-teaching), (ii) individual techniques (e.g. individualized teaching, programmed instruction, computer aided teaching), and (iii) out-of-class techniques (e.g. school tour/ field excursion, observation, exhibition, project, homework assignment, interview). Not surprisingly, each has its unique advantages and disadvantages depending on such variables as target mass of the teacher, nature of the subject matter to be taught, and course objectives to be attained. Furthermore, as indicated in the existing literature, students might largely differ from each other in terms of their cognitive, emotional and psychomotor competence (Dunn & Dunn, 1972; Piaget, 1977; (Vygotsky, 1978; Treiman, 1984; Snow, 1986; Fry, 1991; Huit, 1997). In such a case, Borich (2017) suggests teachers to appropriate their methods and techniques to the level of students and take their needs into consideration while teaching. In a similar vein, in order to make an informed choice of teaching method(s) in teaching and learning process, the teacher must know the available teaching methods, the strengths and weaknesses of each method, the purpose each can serve, and how each method can be used in practice (MIE, 2004). Factors that influence the choice of instructional methods and techniques could be listed as duration and physical facilities, teacher's tendency, cost, class size, characteristics of subject matter, learner achievements, and learner's developmental characteristics (Fidan & Erden, 1996; Temelli & Kurt, 2011; Küçükahmet, 2009; Jacobsen et al., 2009). Aykaç (2004) and Jacobsen et al. (2009) advocate that employing variety in instruction is needed for accomplishing the instructional goals and objectives in an efficient manner. The literature review has shown that a large number of studies were conducted on the use of instructional methods and techniques in various disciplines with the participation of learners from different cultures, and linguistic and socio-economic backgrounds. Not surprisingly, most of them revealed that lecturing is the most frequently used teaching technique followed by question-and-answer drills, discussion and demonstration (Alım & Girgin, 1993; Karamustafa & Kandaz, 2006; Yaşar & Şeremet, 2007; Taşkaya & Muşta, 2008; Aktepe & Aktepe, 2009; Temelli & Kurt, 2011; Güneş et al., 2011). Likewise, Qian (2004) reported that teachers tend to employ lectures, tutorials, duty tutors and laboratory classes in organic teaching in China, most of which involve teacher-centred teaching. In a subsequent study in Iceland, Lefever (2009) concluded that traditional methods of teaching and assessment are predominately used in Icelandic primary schools, that on the whole, instruction is teacher-directed and textbook bound, and that innovative approaches towards more holistic, learner-centred teaching do not seem to have gained ground. Dogra et al. (2004) and Borg et al. (2012), on the other hand, indicated that group discussion, lecturing, small-group research project, problem-based learning, community placements and interdisciplinary work are extensively used in teaching Sustainable Development course and medical schools. EU Commission (2009) released a report underlining that the most frequently used teaching methods are lectures, computer simulations and business games, student companies, project work and group work, company visits and work placements in teaching entrepreneurship in initial vocational education (in particular on upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education. On the contrary, Torfadóttir (2003) found that songs, games, workbook use and pair work were the most commonly used teaching methods and activities. To restrict the previous findings to the local setting, most of the recent studies conducted in Turkey revealed that certain techniques such as lecturing, question-and-answer drills and discussion are exclusively employed in all levels of education over decades (Binler, 2007; Demirezen, 2011; Güneş et al., 2011; Kılıç, 2010; Şimşek et al., 2012). As for the gender influence on the choice of teaching methods and techniques, the existing literature tends to indicate that the teachers/ teacher candidates do not significantly differ in their preference of using certain techniques regarding gender (Öztürk, 2004; Oğuzoğlu, 2009; Bulut, 2010; Ergani, 2012) while a few studies indicated the opposite (Saraç, 2015). Yet, most of these studies concluded that female teachers take such variables as course achievements, learner needs, and physical setting / physical facilities into account while choosing instructional methods and techniques slightly more frequently than their male colleagues (Oğuzoğlu, 2009). In a study conducted on the instructional tendency of science teachers, Binler (2007) found that the majority do not feel competent in teaching how to use scientific methods and processes. In a follow-up study, Taşkaya and Muşta (2008) reported that 25% of the primary school teachers evaluate themselves incompetent in teaching Turkish language mostly claiming that the universities they graduated from did not offer them satisfactory training. Soylu (2009), on the other hand, concluded that the prospective primary school teachers evaluate themselves competent/ partly competent in using such techniques as lecturing, and question-and-answer drills in mathematics classes.

Even though separate definitions are offered for the concepts of *instructional method* and *instructional technique*, they seem to be used interchangeably in the related literature; namely, lecturing is viewed as an instructional method rather than a technique in certain studies (i.e., Verderber et al., 2011; Pearce, 2013; Bank & Bank, 2014) while the reverse is the case in others (i.e., McAleese, 1973; Brown and Manogue, 2001; Fink, 2003; Harrington & Zakrajsek, 2015). Hence, it is

significant to note that they are all accepted as instructional techniques as the researchers are of the opinion that they are individually specific ways used in teaching a particular subject matter, and that the instructional method is a relatively broader concept which requires using certain instructional techniques in the classroom.

Aim of the Study

The review of the existing literature has displayed that competences of prospective teachers of different subject areas in the use of instructional techniques were not previously investigated. So, one of the aims of this study was to reveal whether the type of undergraduate programs they are attending significantly influences their perceived competence in using instructional techniques. It is believed that the findings of the study could provide substantial insights into the efficacy of *Instructional Methods and Techniques* classes that are offered in higher education, and prospective teachers' competences in using them. In other words, they are considered to contribute to the related literature offering practical suggestions for both practitioners and decision makers in institutions of higher education (e.g. curriculum designers etc.). Hence, the current research specifically aimed to reveal whether prospective teachers significantly differ in their perceived competence in using these techniques regarding gender, seniority and the studied subject area. Accordingly, the following research questions were addressed:

1. What is the prospective teachers' perceived competence in using instructional techniques?
2. Do prospective teachers significantly differ in their perceived competence in using instructional techniques regarding *gender*?
3. Do prospective teachers significantly differ in their perceived competence in using instructional techniques regarding *seniority*?
4. Do prospective teachers significantly differ in their perceived competence in using instructional techniques regarding *subject area*?

The methodological framework of the study is outlined in the following section.

Methodology

375 prospective teachers studying five teacher training programmes at two state universities in Turkey took part in the current research: (i) Turkish language teaching, (ii) Mathematics teaching, (iii) EFL teaching, (iv) Science teaching, and (v) Primary school teaching. At the time of the study, they were in their 3rd and 4th year of training in 2016-17 academic year, and they were chosen using the purposive sampling method. It was not surprising to see that approximately 80% of them were female since faculties of education/ teacher training programmes are mostly attended by female students in Turkey as in most other countries in the world. It is essential to remind that all the participants took *Teaching Principles and Methods* class in their 2nd year of training. They were administered a questionnaire comprising of 28 close-ended items developed by the researchers and pointed from 1 (least competent) to 5 (highly competent). The data were analysed through the chi-square test in order to reveal whether the students significantly differ in their perceived competence in using instructional techniques with respect to the variables of gender, the studied subject area and seniority. Lastly, the significance value was set at $p < 0.05$. The following section is intended to offer the test results and related discussion on them.

Findings and Discussion

The first question of the research investigated the prospective teachers' perceived competence in using instructional techniques. The overall test results indicate that the majority feel highly competent in using almost all instructional techniques, as illustrated in Table 1.

Table 1. Prospective Teachers' Perceived Competence in Applying Instructional Techniques

<i>Ins. Technique</i>	\bar{x}	<i>Ins. Technique</i>	\bar{x}
<i>Question-and-answer</i>	4.23	<i>Mental mapping</i>	3.55
<i>Modelling</i>	4.10	<i>Drama</i>	3.54
<i>Lecturing</i>	4.05	<i>Experiment</i>	3.52
<i>Case Study</i>	3.95	<i>Programmed instruction</i>	3.52
<i>Individualized teaching</i>	3.88	<i>Station</i>	3.52
<i>Conceptual mapping</i>	3.87	<i>Conversation circle</i>	3.44
<i>Games</i>	3.83	<i>Project</i>	3.43
<i>Demonstration</i>	3.78	<i>Conceptual caricature</i>	3.43
<i>Problem solving</i>	3.77	<i>Simulation</i>	3.36
<i>Discussion</i>	3.70	<i>Brainstorming</i>	3.09
<i>Six thinking hats</i>	3.66	<i>Colloquium</i>	3.07
<i>Fishbone</i>	3.64	<i>Six shoes</i>	3.03
<i>Idea development</i>	3.61	<i>Power-field analysis</i>	2.98
<i>Individualized teaching</i>	3.60	<i>Aquarium</i>	2.96

Significant at the $p < .05$ level

As suggested in Table 1, aquarium revealed the technique with the lowest score (2.96/ 5.00). Nevertheless, it does not allow us to claim that the participants feel incompetent in using it. They, on the other hand, feel most competent in using question-and-answer drills, modelling, lecturing, case study, individualized teaching, conceptual mapping and games, indicating that their perceived competence in using both modern and traditional techniques is quite high. This particular finding seems to be in line with most of the previous research (e.g. Qian, 2004; Alım & Girgin, 2004; Lefever, 2009; Yaşar & Şeremet, 2010; Kılıç, 2010; Temelli & Kurt, 2011; Saraç, 2015), and contradicting with a few of them (e.g. Torfadóttir, 2003; Dogra et al., 2004; Oğuzoğlu, 2009).

That the participants' perceived competence in using certain techniques was found relatively lower than others might be attributed to such factors as duration, physical facilities, their tendency to use the given technique, cost, class size, and characteristics of subject matter as well as learner achievements identified in the related curriculum and the learner's developmental characteristics. To be more specific, teachers in Turkey, especially those working at state schools are primarily responsible for realizing the learning outcomes in the assigned curricula which are designed by the Ministry of National Education (MoNE), and for performing other duties assigned by the school administration throughout an academic year (e.g. hall monitoring, writing reports, organizing parental meetings, submitting exam results to the student information system, material development, attending in-service training programmes, and etc.). It would not be surprising under these circumstances to see they are unable to employ certain time-taking techniques or those that are hard to use with crowded groups.

The second research question was intended to reveal whether gender significantly influences the prospective teachers' perceived competence in using instructional techniques. The results of the analysis have shown that female and male participants significantly differ in their perceived competence in using over one-third of the instructional techniques, as provided in Table 2.

Table 2. Prospective teachers' perceived competence in using instructional techniques regarding gender

<i>Ins. Technique</i>	χ^2	<i>sd</i>	<i>p</i>
<i>Six thinking hats</i>	19.44	5	.002*
<i>Conceptual mapping</i>	14.09	4	.007*
<i>Modelling</i>	13.72	4	.008*
<i>Aquarium</i>	13.66	4	.008*
<i>Experiment</i>	13.16	4	.011*
<i>Fishbone</i>	12.57	4	.014*
<i>Conversation circle</i>	11.09	4	.026*

<i>Mental mapping</i>	10.45	4	.033*
<i>Programmed instruction</i>	9.54	4	.049*
<i>Games</i>	9.31	4	.054
<i>Six action shoes</i>	9.04	4	.06
<i>Brainstorming</i>	9.02	4	.061
<i>Demonstration</i>	8.88	4	.064
<i>Station</i>	8.12	4	.087
<i>Simulation</i>	8.11	4	.088
<i>Question-and-answer</i>	7.81	4	.99
<i>Conceptual caricature</i>	7.72	4	.102
<i>Individualized teaching</i>	7.20	4	.125
<i>Colloquium</i>	7.23	4	.127
<i>Project</i>	5.58	4	.232
<i>Drama</i>	4.47	4	.345
<i>Problem solving</i>	4.36	4	.359
<i>Idea development</i>	3.63	4	.458
<i>Power-field analysis</i>	2.78	4	.594
<i>Discussion</i>	2.68	4	.612
<i>Case study</i>	2.20	4	.698
<i>Lecturing</i>	1.73	4	.785

Significant at the $p < .05$ level

Female prospective teachers feel much more competent in using most of the techniques. Their perceived competence was found statistically higher than the males in using such modern techniques as six thinking hats, conceptual mapping, modelling, aquarium, experiment, fishbone, individualized teaching, conversation circle, mental mapping and programmed instruction ($p < .05$). This finding partly confirms Bulut (2010) and Saraç (2015), and partly contradicts with Oğuzoğlu (2009), Ergani (2010) and Şimşek et al. (2012). It might be attributed to that the female teacher candidates tend to internalize their future profession much more than their male colleagues, and that they are more committed to perform it mostly due to the fact that it is socially accepted as a feminine rather than masculine profession.

In an attempt to answer the 3rd research question of the study, the participants were compared in terms of seniority in their higher education in order to reveal whether they significantly differ in their perceived competence in using instructional techniques. The related results are given in Table 3.

Table 3. Prospective teachers' perceived competence in using instructional techniques regarding seniority (3rd Graders* vs. 4th Graders)

<i>Ins. Technique</i>	<i>x2</i>	<i>sd</i>	<i>p</i>
<i>Problem solving</i>	21.08	4	.000*
<i>Simulation</i>	25.26	4	.000*
<i>Six thinking hats</i>	23.10	5	.000*
<i>Aquarium</i>	40.12	4	.000*
<i>Colloquium</i>	28.56	4	.000*
<i>Idea development</i>	25.86	4	.000*
<i>Six action shoes</i>	37.47	4	.000*
<i>Programmed instruction</i>	24.30	4	.000*
<i>Conceptual caricature</i>	28.49	4	.000*
<i>Power-field analysis</i>	36.79	4	.000*

<i>Conceptual mapping</i>	23.27	4	.000*
<i>Mental mapping</i>	37.75	4	.000*
<i>Case Study</i>	19.09	4	.001*
<i>Modelling</i>	17.73	4	.001*
<i>Conversation circle</i>	18.10	4	.001*
<i>Question-and-answer</i>	18.49	4	.001*
<i>Station</i>	16.96	4	.002*
<i>Project</i>	15.40	4	.004*
<i>Individualized teaching</i>	15.04	4	.005*
<i>Experiment</i>	14.33	4	.006*
<i>Fishbone</i>	14.17	4	.007*
<i>Individualized teaching</i>	13.54	4	.009*
<i>Demonstration</i>	12.52	4	.014*
<i>Games</i>	12.13	4	.016*
<i>Lecturing</i>	10.82	4	.029*
<i>Brainstorming</i>	8.09	4	.088
<i>Discussion</i>	3.21	4	.522
<i>Drama</i>	2.56	4	.633

Significant at the $p < .05$ level

As displayed in Table 3, perceived competence levels of 3rd graders were measured significantly higher than 4th graders approximately in 95% of the instructional techniques, which might be attributed to a few factors. First, 4th graders might be focusing mostly on the Teacher Nomination Exam, a high-stake exam comprised of challenging multiple-choice questions designed to assess their general world knowledge and professional knowledge. The exam in concern is likely to increase their level of anxiety and fear of not being nominated as teachers, and to decrease their self-confidence. Alternatively, it might be attributed to the fact that they get the opportunity to observe real classrooms and to experience teaching in real settings via their School Experience course which does not appear on the curriculum for 3rd grade. Thereby, 4th graders might have realised that the internship schools are mostly deprived of fundamental facilities needed for effective teaching, or they might have had to deal with classroom management concerns trying to eliminate students' misbehaviours which did not allow them to use a broad range of techniques, or they might have failed to motivate students to engage in class activities.

The last research question was intended to explore whether prospective teachers significantly differ in their perceived competence in using instructional techniques regarding the studied subject area. The chi-square test results have indicated certain significant differences across the type of undergraduate programme they were attending, as illustrated in Table 4.

Table 4. Prospective teachers' perceived competence in using instructional techniques regarding subject area

<i>Ins. Technique</i>	<i>x²</i>	<i>sd</i>	<i>p</i>
<i>Problem solving</i>	73.33	16	.000*
<i>Project</i>	58.04	16	.000*
<i>Experiment</i>	109.15	16	.000*
<i>Brainstorming</i>	56.0	16	.000*
<i>Demonstration</i>	53.11	16	.000*
<i>Simulation</i>	68.41	16	.000*
<i>Six thinking hats</i>	119.37	16	.000*
<i>Conversation circle</i>	82.22	16	.000*

<i>Aquarium</i>	76.55	16	.000*
<i>Colloquium</i>	91.94	16	.000*
<i>Idea development</i>	47.54	16	.000*
<i>Six action shoes</i>	50.12	16	.000*
<i>Fishbone</i>	105.64	16	.000*
<i>Programmed instruction</i>	71.77	16	.000*
<i>Individualized teaching</i>	56.74	16	.000*
<i>Station</i>	146.33	16	.000*
<i>Conceptual caricature</i>	86.85	16	.000*
<i>Power-field analysis</i>	84.46	16	.000*
<i>Question-and-answer</i>	42.59	16	.000*
<i>Conceptual mapping</i>	106.98	16	.000*
<i>Mental mapping</i>	100.48	16	.000*
<i>Games</i>	38.46	16	.001*
<i>Individualized teaching</i>	37.40	16	.002*
<i>Drama</i>	36.38	16	.003*
<i>Case Study</i>	29.05	16	.024*
<i>Discussion</i>	21.83	16	.148
<i>Modelling</i>	20.74	16	.189
<i>Lecturing</i>	18.05	16	.319

Significant at the $p < .05$ level

As is seen in Table 4, the participants significantly do not significantly differ in their perceived competence in using a very limited number of techniques ($p > 0.05$): (i) discussion, (ii) modelling, and (iii) lecturing. Overall, it could be claimed that the prospective primary school teachers and science teachers feel significantly more competent in using approximately all instructional techniques than the prospective EFL, Turkish language and mathematics teachers. To be more specific, the prospective Turkish language, EFL and Mathematics teachers feel less competent in using the techniques of aquarium, colloquium, experimentation, power-field analysis, project, simulation, six action shoes, six thinking hats and station than the other two groups of teachers, which fairly coincides with the findings previously reported in Aktepe and Aktepe (2009), and Saracaloğlu and Karasakaloğlu (2014). This finding might be justified by the characteristics of subject matters and/ or the multidisciplinary state of the classes in concern. Namely, primary school teachers are expected to teach a large spectrum of subjects including science, mathematics, social sciences, physical education, art and religious studies, which require them to employ various instructional techniques especially while working with young and very young learners. Likewise, science teachers received training to teach three core disciplines during their higher education: (i) biology, (ii) chemistry, and (iii) physics. Teaching the subjects identified in the scope of these disciplines require them to use different types of instructional techniques ranging from traditional (e.g. lecturing, question-and-answer drills, and discussion) to modern ones (e.g. simulation, fishbone, and individualized teaching). However, it could not be so wise to expect mathematics teachers to use such techniques as conversation circle and six thinking hats as frequently as primary school teachers do, which partly approves previous findings reported in Altun (1998) and Soyly (2009). In this vein, it was no surprise to see that the prospective mathematics teachers feel much less competent in using drama in their teaching when compared to other groups. Turkish language and EFL teachers, on the other hand, tend to feel less competent in employing such techniques as problem solving, conversation circle, fishbone, programmed instruction, conceptual caricature, conceptual mapping, and cognitive mapping. This could be attributed to the fact that the techniques in concern fail to attain learning outcomes within the scheduled period due to such factors as oversize classes or the overloaded curriculum that are beyond the teachers' control. The following section offers practical implications in the light of the aforementioned findings.

Practical Implications

The present study has yielded findings that should be carefully interpreted. First, the prospective teachers display high perceived competence in using instructional techniques, which might be considered positive; nevertheless, it needs to be confirmed through observation of the real practices of these teachers during their traineeship. Second, lecturing emerged among the top three instructional techniques they feel most confident in use, which indicates that they are likely to use this technique very often in their teaching. In order to overcome this threat, they should be carefully observed during their

traineeship, and encouraged to employ various instructional techniques rather than sticking to traditional methods. They should be provided regular and immediate feedback on this concern at the end of each class hour they teach. Third, lower perceived competence of the prospective mathematics teachers in using most of the instructional techniques might have stemmed from their insufficient pedagogical knowledge. So, mathematics teacher training programmes should be revised to empower these teachers' competence in using a variety of instructional techniques in their teaching. It is significant to note that, to the best of the researchers' knowledge, research is not conducted on teaching mathematics or qualifications of mathematics teachers especially in Turkey at the desired level. Hence, it might be suggested that the number of these studies should be increased, and in-service teacher training programmes should be held on regular basis and periodically in order to contribute to professional development of these teachers. Lastly, 4th graders' perceived competence in using the techniques in concern were found statistically lower than 3rd graders most probably due to the fact that they encounter real management problems and students with learning difficulties during their traineeship. They might have also been negatively influenced by the high-stake exam they are supposed to take and get a relatively higher score than the other teacher candidates in order to be nominated as teachers the following year. Therefore, the courses they take in higher education should be revised to provide them sufficient pedagogical knowledge, and to increase their self-confidence. Overall, the use of active learning techniques should be encouraged especially in primary classrooms in order to overcome the pitfalls of the test-based educational system.

Limitations and Suggestions for Further Research

The current study was limited to the analysis of data obtained from a limited number of prospective teachers studying five undergraduate programs at two state universities in Turkey (N. 375). Thus, it might be furthered with the participation of a larger number of prospective teachers studying other teacher training programmes (e.g. music education, physical education, social sciences education and etc.). It might also be extended to compare prospective teachers' perceived competence and in-service teachers' perceived competence in using instructional techniques. Alternatively, the quantitative findings of the present study might be supported with qualitative findings to be elicited in future studies. Another study might explore the factors that trigger the difference between male and female prospective teachers' perceived competence in using instructional techniques. Namely, the reasons why female teacher candidates feel more competent particularly in using modern techniques than their male colleagues might be scrutinized in a follow-up multidisciplinary research. Finally, the study was confined to data instrumentation; that is, the data were obtained through a questionnaire developed by the researchers. Hence, more data might be gathered through different kinds of data collection instruments such as interview and in-class observation in order to attain more reliable and precise conclusions.

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Autogestive Education in Rural Mexico

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Abstract

To talk about education is to talk about the future of a country or even the entire world. But what happens when the education of a country is obsolete and instead of helping the population, it sinks more and more. What happens when, despite the government's "efforts" to solve this situation, the population is in need of creating its own educational system, an alternative system, we are talking about "AUTOGESTIVE SCHOOLS". Schools can be defined as institutions dedicated to student learning; However, the most vertical and centralized way of the educational systems have historically controlled their schools, this prevents paradoxically the learning not only of students but also of their own professionals (teachers and managers) as well as centers and organizations. It is an irony that schools are seldom learning institutions. Instead, they repeat year after year the same routines, which over time have less effect and are more expensive. Despite the fact that there have been several educational reforms, in order to "improve" education in Mexico, one has to have the quality of it occupies the 102nd place in the list of 124 countries in primary education and in secondary education, Mexico is located in place 107. According to the report of the World Economic Forum. However, different proposals have been made in Mexico to combat this inequality, not against the other countries, or against the government itself; But against that monster called "Capitalism." By this I refer to those schools where they are not specifically governed by the system, call SEP, CONAFE, etc. But they are governed primarily by the needs of the community, of their community. I'm talking about self-managed schools. Self-managed schools are those that take cooperation and the common good as a fundamental principle.

Keywords: Autogestive Education in Rural Mexico

Learning Communities as a New Way to Learn

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Abstract

A Learning Community (CA) for its acronym in Spanish, is an organized human community that builds and engages in its own educational and cultural project to educate itself, its children, its youth and its adults, within the framework of an endogenous, cooperative and supportive effort, based on a diagnosis not only of their shortcomings but, above all, of their strengths to overcome such weaknesses (Elboj et al., 2006). The only way to ensuring education for all and quality lifelong learning is to make education a necessity and a task for all, developing and synchronizing the resources and efforts of the local community in order to ensure more sustainable conditions. We are then, confronted with one of the most difficult and complex contemporary challenges: to think twice and to rebuild the bonds that the human develops, through society, in conjunction with the environment.

Keywords: Learning Communities as a New Way to Learn

Globalization and Lifelong Learning

Dr. Mukadder Güneri

Abstract

As we know, the new dimension of relations between societies and developed underdeveloped countries in today's world is expressed by the word "globalization". I think it is not wrong to say that this word covers all the economic, administrative, cultural, social, political words. This multidimensional word is expressed from another point of view, that is, the globalization of the world in terms of economic, administrative, cultural, social and communication, that is, another word of globalization. It began to develop at about the beginning of the 1800s, revived in the 1960s, and developed in parallel with the rapid development of communication technology after 1980, and its development continued rapidly in the last decade. Parallel to the development of communication technology, our world has shrunk, public, local and individual values become shared without boundaries. This has influenced information exchange and learning. For this reason, lifelong learning has become a lifestyle. This lifestyle has brought vitality to the economy, communication, education and transportation in recent years. The number of scientific, economic, administrative, cultural and social activities among the countries has increased. For example, when we look at the recent researches of the travel agencies of Turkey in 2016, people from nearly everywhere in the world entered our country (total 25,352,213) and in the same way our country went to all corners of the world (total 8.062.065). This numerical data belonging only to my country, if we think about the whole world, the result will come out spontaneously. The reality of today's world is not static, but an active life. The reality of today's world is not static, but an active life that always renews itself. In this work, the relevance of globalization to lifelong learning has been examined in a classical way.

Keywords: Globalization, lifelong learning, World,

