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Being a Critical and Creative Thinker: A Balanced Thinking Mode

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Abstract

Our society, in fact, is always in a state of flux—conceptually, technologically, and socially. Thus, thinking critically and creatively is necessary for survival in our changing world. The main reason we need to nurture critical and creative thinking is because both abilities are beneficial for personal, educational, and economic development. This paper examines the literature on critical and creative thinking and suggests that both types of thinking play equal roles in fulfilling a better andragogy. First, the concepts of critical and creative thinking are reviewed. Then a protocol is proposed to implement a full cycle of learning experiences in adult classrooms. The proposed protocol is the five Es: (a) Expand the horizon, (b) Explore the possibilities, (c) Exchange the ideas, (d) Evaluate the assumptions, and (e) Enact the solutions. Finally, suggestions and implications are discussed.

Keywords: Thinking mode; Critical thinking; Creative thinking; Adult learners

1.Background

The main reason we need to nurture critical and creative thinking is because both abilities are beneficial for personal, educational, and economic development (Brookfield, 1987; Torrance, 1995). Our society, in fact, is always in a state of flux—conceptually, technologically, and socially. Thus, thinking critically and creatively is necessary for survival in our changing world. But do these thinking processes differ? To some extent it is quite true that critical and creative thinking require different cognitive processes. Nickerson (1999) observed the following:

Creative thinking and critical thinking are often contrasted. Creative thinking is expansive, innovative, inventive, unconstrained thinking. It is associated with exploration and idea generation . . . . Critical thinking is focused, disciplined, logical, constrained thinking. It is down to earth, realistic, practical, staid, dependable, and conservative. Sometimes creativity and criticalness are seen as polar opposites. (p. 397)

As the literature suggests, involving two thinking processes might lead to some difficulties. However, it is also believed that combining two thinking processes could contribute to being a better thinker. More specifically, it is argued that a thinker with critical and creative thinking abilities could possess a full cycle of thinking mode, which in turn attains momentum. The biggest challenge, however, for higher education to produce better thinkers is, as Halpern (2010) recognized, that "the enhancement of critical and creative thinking is still more of a desirable vision than an empirical outcome" (p. 381). This is probably due to a lack of institutional support.

This paper examines the literature on critical and creative thinking and suggests that both types of thinking play equal roles in fulfilling a better andragogy. First, the concepts of critical and creative thinking are reviewed.

Then a protocol is proposed to implement a full cycle of learning experiences in adult classrooms. Finally, suggestions and implications are discussed.

2.The Needs of Critical Thinking

The old Greek adage "Know yourself" reflects that critical thinking may be the first step in challenging the assumptions and recognizing biases within oneself. Kong (2007) argued that "critical thinking is a multifaceted and multi-dimensional cognitive ability" (p. 304) for the following reason:

> Critical thinking is a mental process that seeks to clarify as well as evaluate the action and activity that one encounters in life. The mental processes of clarification and evaluation are essential in the problem-solving and decision-making processes, which encompasses our entire daily activities. (p. 307)

Halpern (2010) believed:

> [Critical thinking is the use of cognitive skills and strategies that] increase the probability of a desirable outcome. It is used to describe thinking that is purposeful, reasoned, and goal directed--the kind of thinking involved in solving problems, formulating inferences, calculating likelihoods, and making decisions, when the thinker is using skills that are thoughtful and effective for the particular context and type of thinking task. (p. 382)

The major benefit of critical thinking is that, as Brookfield (1987) wrote, "when we think critically we become aware of the diversity of values, behaviors, social structures, and artistic forms in the word" (p. 5). Thus, critical thinkers are more involved in life and appreciate diverse aspects of values. Because of this attitude, they are innovators and praise creativity for the exploration of possibilities. Most importantly, "the ability to imagine alternatives . . . is one that often entails a deliberate break with rational modes of thought in order to prompt forward leaps in creativity" (Brookfield, 1987, p. 12).

Brookfield (1987) recognized five key characteristics of critical thinking: (a) it is a productive and positive activity, (b) it is an ongoing process not an outcome, (c) it varies according to the contexts, (d) it is triggered by positive and negative episodes, and (f) it is an emotive and rational activity (pp. 5-7). Brookfield (2012) also highlighted critical thinking because it serves not only as a survival tool but also as a map for living and loving well. He described the critical thinking process as encompassing the following four stages: (a) hunting assumptions, where we deliberately discover what assumptions we hold; (b) checking assumptions, where we evaluate the validity and reliability of these assumptions; (c) seeing things from different perspectives, where we reconsider the different roles we play and our subsequent actions; and (d) taking informed action, where evidence may justify our actions (pp. 10-13). Furthermore, he identified three different assumptions: (a) paradigmatic assumptions are ones that frame our worldview and are viewed as the most difficult to detect, (b) prescriptive assumptions are ones that are supposed to be happening, and (c) causal assumptions are ones that explain why things happen the way they do (pp. 17-19). Most importantly, he pointed out that the judgment of assumptions is not clear-cut; rather, they are contextually embedded.

Yet, Smith (1990) believed that "critical thinking does not demand a complex array of learned skills, but competence in whatever you are thinking about" (p. 103). In other words, having enough knowledge of something is the prerequisite of being a critical thinker. To be reasonable and judicious to doubt is the qualification of critical thinkers. However, it is not an easy task. As a result, the important role an educator plays is the facilitator and the enabler of developing this learning process.

3.The Characteristics of Creative Thinking

Change is the norm for the fabric of today's society. We face various complex issues and challenges that demand creative solutions. Creative thinking becomes a crucial skill as we contrive adaptive strategies to contend with these changes and search for answers. By identifying the fundamental principles of creative thinking, we could be able to hone our mental skills to cope with challenging problems and behave more creatively in a number of arenas (Ward, Finke, &Smith, 1995). Torrance (1995), for example, underscored the importance of creative thinking because it is imperative in "mental health, educational achievement, vocational success, and many other important areas in life" (p. 75). As a result, several scholars have argued that education should value creativity and try to include this ability in the curriculum and classrooms (Jeffrey & Craft, 2004; Mccormack, 1974; Shaheen, 2010). There is also a consensus that creativity can be strengthened by practice in creative thinking exercises (Fasko, 2001).

As a concept, creative thinking has been interpreted in various ways. It has been equated with divergent thinking (Dirkes, 1978; Torrance, 1977), psychic wholeness and integration (Hickson & Housley, 1997), the synthesis of knowledge, emotion, and experience (Sinnott, 1998), the formation of new neurons (Schmidt, 2006), open-mindedness (Fasko, 2006), the intentional production of novelty (Weisberg, 2006), the problem-solving ability (Ruscio & Amabile, 1999), a natural human process motivated by strong needs (Torrance, 1972), personal constructions and the requisite cognitive processes (Runco, 2003), and assimilation and imagination (Piaget, 1962). But, in general, the process of creative thinking is believed to occur in several stages: problem finding, incubation, illumination, verification, and dissemination (Allen & Thomas, 2011; Wallas, 1926). In addition, some scholars believe a whole process of creative thinking should involve divergent ideation and convergent evaluation (Guilford, 1957; Simonton, 1988). Problem finding, the first stage, is viewed as more important and difficult than problem solving (Dillon, 1982; Fontenot, 1993). It is a typical account of the incubation stage operatizing in the unconscious state, where it leaves a problem aside and in turn a useful insight will emerge during this detachment (Simonton, 1999). A meta-analytic review of incubation literature by Sio and Ormerod (2009) indicates that in comparison to high-demand tasks, low-demand tasks play a better role to facilitate creativity during the incubation period. Illumination is the period of "Aha" moment where individuals suddenly receive ideas. This inspiration is closely related to intuition and remote associated thinking (Boden, 1990; Mednick, 1962). From the perspective of practical implementation, researchers believe that convergent and critical thinking play a more important role in verification because new ideas or solutions are now proposed. This evaluation check is necessary to guarantee more appeal to public opinions. The first stage, dissemination, requires persuasion and social influence to reach an audience (Csikszentmihalyi, 1996). This effort is to make others aware of the creator's ideas and expand its popularity. As Sternberg and Lubart (1995) described, this special ability needs thinkers to "buy low and sell high."

Runco and Chand (1995) proposed a two-tier model of creative thinking. The three components in the primary tier are problem finding, ideation, and evaluation. The second tier is the relationships with knowledge and motivation. Boden (2001) differentiated three types of creative thinking: combinational, exploratory, and transformational creativity. Combinational creativity involves new ideas by combining old ideas, whereas exploratory creativity investigates new possibilities by relevant rules and produces unique ideas. In comparison to exploratory creativity, transformational creativity steps further and generates more significant alternations of the current concepts and leads to major breakthroughs. Davis (2006) proposed five components for teaching creative thinking: (a) fostering creativity consciousness and creative attitudes, (b) improving our (and other's)

understanding of creativity, (c) exercising creative abilities, (d) learning creative thinking techniques, and (e) becoming more involved in creative activities (p. 246). Kong (2007) pointed out that in relation to critical and creative thinking, problem solving serves a good example to bridge this connection. He described problem solving as the following:

A typical problem-solving process usually involves the following steps: (a) recognize the existence of a problem, (b) define the nature of the problem, (c) explore resources to solve the problem, (d) formulate strategies to solve the problem, (f) evaluate solution, and (g) choose the best solution. (Kong, 2007, pp. 317-318)

Although a number of variables have been identified to affect creativity (Hennessey & Amabile, 2010; Mumford, 2003), fundamentally from the cognitive perspective there is no different operation between creative thinking and noncreative cognition (Gardner, 1988). This assumption suggests that everyone has creative potential. The key is how you use and apply this ability in your daily life when facing any situations. For example, for Piaget, creative thinking lies in the interaction between assimilation and accommodation. This implies that imagination and a playful attitude are important attributes to facilitate creative thinking (as cited in Ayman-Nolley, 1999). As a result, an attempt to view from a different perspective and play with different possibilities could enhance creative thinking. Opening one's mind and exploring the world is sine qua non for unleashing one's creative seeds!

4.The Protocol of Creative and Critical Thinking

Smith (1990) stated that one key difference between creative and critical thinking is that "the generation of alternatives is a creative activity, and the selection among them must be critical" (p. 101). Brookfield (1987) explained that the important attitude toward critical teaching is rooted in the belief that "a willingness to risk experimentation in one's teaching is an important aspect of modeling change and promoting critical openness in learners" (p. 81). The protocol proposed here is adapted from critical thinking (Brookfield, 2012), creative problem solving (Treffinger, 1995; Treffinger & Isaksen, 2005), and Kolb's learning model (Kolb, 1984). The procedure is followed by the five Es: (a) Expand the horizon, (b) Explore the possibilities, (c)Exchange the ideas, (d) Evaluate the assumptions, and (e) Enact the solutions. The following is a further explanation of using this protocol as a teaching and learning tool in the classroom.

5.Expand the Horizon

The instructor could provide an inquiry-guided activity to investigate phenomena or problems and then provide possible solutions. In this first stage, a teacher should ask students to observe phenomena qualitatively and interpret what they perceive. For example, "How do you perceive adult learning?" could be a good prompt to teach the theory of adult learning.

Freewrites could be used as a warm-up exercise. Students should write down everything they know about this topic as fast as they can within three minutes. By doing so, they could activate their prior knowledge and experience and generate ideas by free association, disregarding grammar, spelling, punctuation, and the like.

6.Explore the Possibilities

After students finish this initial free-writing activity, mind mapping could be used to further extend their ideas from the previous activity. By drawing a mind map, students can transform their ideas into a visual diagram and provide a holistic picture of what they perceive about adult learning. When students practice this activity, the teacher should highly encourage them to discover more ideas and connect more related ideas about this topic. Apart from mind mapping, brainstorming is another possible strategy for this stage.

7.Exchange the Ideas

It could take 5 to 10 minutes to complete the mind mapping activity. In this next stage, the instructor should divide the class into groups, with a maximum of five students per group, to discuss and present the individual's diagram and ideas. At the same time, the group members are assigned two roles. When a person presents his or her ideas, that person is the presenter and the others are the detectives. The major role of the detectives is not only to be the passive audience but also to be active listeners. They need to think of "why" questions.

8.Evaluate the Assumptions

When the presenter shares his or her ideas to the other team members, the detectives should listen carefully and try to understand why these ideas are proposed. After the presenter completes his or her presentation, the detectives should check the assumptions behind these ideas by asking questions. For example, two possible questions are "Is this idea related to past episodes or knowledge?" or "How does this idea connect to the topic? Please explain" The main purpose of these questions is to ask the individual to think deeper and assess his or her assumptions that might affect his or her ideas. After the individuals recognize their hidden agendas or assumptions, it is important to think of other possible ideas in order to go beyond their personal assumptions. It is expected that this stage will take longer to complete because each person will receive challenges that question their assumptions, and it will take longer to uncover this mental block that prevents them from exploring other alternatives. This group interaction plays a dual role. On the one hand, by reflecting on their assumptions, they may realize that there are other possible outcomes. On the other hand, by listening to other people's ideas, they may experience an "aha" moment and come up with unexpected ideas. In other words, they can expand on their ideas by inward reflection and outward shifting in mental models.

9.Enact the Solutions

In this last stage, students can write down their intellectual and emotional reactions to the discussions by writing in their journals. There are several questions students need to address in their journal: (a) "What is new to you about this activity?," (b) "Does any point contradict what you already know or believed?," (c) "After this activity, what questions remain in your mind?," (d)"At what moment, did you feel lost or puzzled?," (e) "At what moment, did you obtain some insights?," and (f) "What lesson have you learned and how can you extend this to other scenarios in your life?" In summary, the last stage is about implementation. Teachers should assist students to take advantage of this learning experience and in turn transform their ideas into useful insights.

10.Conclusion

Guilford (1959) supported an idea of balance training in creative thinking (divergent production) and critical thinking (convergent production and evaluation). As Smith (1990) suggested, "critical and creative thinking may be viewed academically as unique mental activities . . . but the elements of thinking critically and

creatively are in everyone's behavioral and cognitive repertoire" (p. 102). According to the literature, critical and creative thinking have both a generic and a subject-specific component; it is the responsibility of educators to model these thinking processes and to create a supportive climate to develop, practice, and exhibit these capabilities.

The preceding protocol can be used and combined with other teaching approaches, such as the case study, problem-based learning, experiential learning, and the like. The researcher hopes that this proposed protocol helps students in active learning, self-regulated learning, and deep learning (Houtz & Krug, 1995). Clegg (2008) wrote, "Critical assault on confining ideas, structures and even modes of 'being' is fundamental to creativity. Creativity and critical faculties are intimately linked" (p. 221). From an assessment perspective, Young (2009) stated that,

Teachers who recognize the important role imagination and creativity play in the learning process want to include these high-level thought processes as part of authentic assessment. From creative problem solving to culminating performance events, curriculum design that includes assessment that captures critical thinking skills, problem solving abilities, and imaginative/creative capacities is promoted by educators at all levels. (p. 74)

As an educator, it is important to prize critical and creative thinking and, most importantly, both teaching and learning methods to enhance learning should be included in a teacher's toolbox. The design of this protocol prevents one thinking skill to outshine the other. As the argument suggests in this article, a balance-thinking mode should be considered.

The main purpose of this article was to advocate that adult learners should be encouraged to think critically and creatively. Kong (2007) contended that "critical and creative thinking are often seen as opposites or dichotomous; in which critical thinker is considered serious, analytical, and impersonal, whereas creative thinker is viewed as one who is wild, unstructured, and sometimes eccentric" (p. 319). Nevertheless, the image of critical and creative thinking should not be seen as dualistic. This paper attempted to bridge two thinking processes and proposed an alternative approach to include both types of thinking in the classroom. The researcher's belief is grounded in the fact that being equipped with both thinking skills should be viewed as a balance of thinking mode. Most importantly, students could benefit from both thinking modes in their academic as well as their personal lives. They can have a basis for understanding and check their assumptions and realize that their habitual thinking can block their chances of thinking outside the box. By exploring alternatives, it is possible for individuals to obtain useful insights to deal with the various challenges they may face during their life's journey.

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Perception of Teachers of Agriculture about Supervised Agricultural Experience Programmes (Saep) in Secondary Schools in Ekiti and Ondo States Nigeria

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Abstract

The study investigated the perception of teachers of agriculture about Supervised Agricultural Experience Programmes (SAEP) in secondary schools in Ekiti and Ondo States. The population used for the study consisted of 520 teachers of agricultural science in all the secondary schools in Ekiti and Ondo States. The sample used for this study was 136 teachers of agricultural science drawn through a proportionate stratified sampling technique to pick four(4) teachers from each of the 34 Local Government of the two states. The Instrument used was a structured questionnaire to investigate the extend to which the teachers agreed on disagree with statemenst regarding SAEP. The questionnaire were test and re-tested yielding a reliability co-efficient of 89. (Cronbach alpha). The data for the study were analyzed using mean, standard deviation t-test and two tailed probability statistics. The probability level was set at $P<0.05$. Thirty eight items were generated for the study. The study found out among others that the teaching of agriculture needs improvement; that though SEAP related contents are in the agricultural science curriculum the teaching and learning of agriculture are not vocationally oriented in Ekiti and Ondo States. It was recommended among others that agricultural programmes in all schools should include supervised agricultural experience programmes, while the State School Boards in collaboration with relevant Ministries should conduct informational workshop and orientation on SAEP for educational planners, administrator and teachers of agriculture in Nigeria.

Keywords: Perception of teachers; Experience programmes; Agricultural production; Secondary schools

1.Introduction

Nigerian government has been embarking on series of extensive programmes since independence in 1960 to increase agricultural production and get the youths involved in agriculture. In 1976, Operation Feed the Nation was launched, followed by the Green Revolution in 1980. The Young Farmers Club, Graduate Farm Scheme and the Back to Land Scheme, were some of the different programmes embarked upon to revitalize agriculture in Nigeria. Others include the National Directorate of Employment (NDE) of 1987, National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS), recently the (7) Seven Point Agenda (7PA) followed by Vision 20: 2020 and the Student Industrial Work Experience Scheme (SIWES) of the Industrial Training Fund (ITF).

Amimu (2008) observed that all the programmes and visions have more or less the same broad thrust for wealth creation, employment generation, poverty reduction and value re -orientation but not specifically engineered for agricultural production through youths in the school. He expressed that poor logistics have been a negative factor leading to programmes disruption and overall low performance of agricultural schemes in Nigeria, It has been observed that most of the Nigerian agricultural programmes are not directed towards secondary school youths who needed to be nurtured at their early malleable years.

Olaitan (2010) viewed that, for an effective implementation of agricultural education programmes in Nigeria, both the theory and practice of agriculture must go together. Agricultural programmes in Nigerian secondary schools must be more than in-class instructions. He stressed that attitude, knowledge, abilities and appreciation of agricultural facet are best taught and learnt through various experience acquired through learning by doing during the receptive and malleable years when the pupils are still in secondary schools.

The learning by doing principle should hold true for Nigerian student – farmers in secondary schools. This is because no matter how well a classroom instructions is presented, it is no enough unless applied. According to Oke (2010) vocational education programmes in agriculture are as effective as the instructors or teachers of agriculture make them. Olaitan emphasized that agricultural education programmes in secondary schools must charge with time because the scope of agriculture is getting wider. He opined that diversified methods, experiential activities and different approaches must be used to acquaint students with the wider scope of agriculture. Teachers of agriculture who wish to make a change must project their needs ahead by attending professional agriculture meetings, conventions and workshops. According to Phipps (1980) supervised agricultural experience programme (SAEP) is the strong tool placed in the hands of teachers to bridge the gap between the school, agricultural occupations, enterprise education, skill developments and employment.

2.Statement of the Problems

It has been observed that most of the agricultural programme in Nigeria had not been engineered towards skill development and agricultural production through youths in school. Most of the students are found roaming the streets in search of employment after graduation from schools and colleges. Olaitan (2010) opined that for an effective implementation of agricultural programmes in Nigerian schools, both the theory and practice of agriculture must go together so that the students can develop effective saleable skills needed for performance on job after leaving the school. Olaitan emphasized that the teaching and learning of agriculture in secondary schools must be more than in-class instructions, but should include learning by doing to gain the experience needed for establishment on a job or career after graduation. This had not been occurring in schools and colleges in Nigeria (Aderogba, 2011)

Richardson (1983) and Oke (2010) opined that it is the teachers of agriculture who holds a critical role in determining whether a total programme is offered or not. This study was designed to determine the teacher's perception of supervised agricultural experience programmes in secondary schools in Ekiti and Ondo States, Nigeria.

3.Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this study was to determine:

(a)The perception of teachers of agricultural science/education about supervised agricultural experience programmes in Ekiti and Ondo States.

(b)The difference that existed between the perception of teachers of agriculture that had practical agriculture or SAEP related programmes and teachers that had no practical agriculture or SAEP related programmes.

4.Hypothesis

There will be no significant difference in the mean rating of the perception of teachers who had SAEP related programmes or practical agriculture and those who had no SAEP-oriented programmes about supervised agricultural experience programme in Ekiti and Ondo States.

5.Methodology

The study was a survey research. The population for the study consisted of 520 teachers of agricultural science in secondary schools in Ekiti and Ondo States. The sample, used in this study was 136 drawn through a proportionate stratified sampling techniques consisted of four teachers of agricultural science selected from each of the 34 Local Government area of the two states. The instrument used was a structured questionnaire. One hundred and thirty six (136) questionnaire were distributed to the respondents out of which only 130 (95.5%) were completed and used for this study. The items in the questionnaire were face and content validated by five experts. The Likert scale was employed for obtaining teachers perception on Supervised Agricultural Experience Programme (SAEP) in secondary schools in Ekiti and Ondo State, Nigeria. The questionnaire were used to identify the degree to which the teachers agreed or disagreed with statements regarding SAEP; Sixteen (16) items were developed for the rating with five point scale of strongly Agree (5), Agree (4) Neutral (3), Disagree (2), Strongly Disagree (1). The final questionnaire for this study yielded reliability co-efficient of 89, using Cronbach's alpha procedures.

6.Data Analysis

The data for this study were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics. Mean standard deviation, t – test and two tailed probability analysis for the t-test statistics were used to analyze the data. The probability level was set at $P < 0.05$. The response scale was divided into two equal segments to facilitate interpretations. Mean of equal or greater (>) than 2.5 (2.5 to 5.0) were adjudged to indicate relative agreement with the underlying statements. Means of equal or less that (<) 2.4, (2.4 to 1.0) were categorized as relative disagreement with the associated statement. Standard deviation was also used to determine the variability of the response of each of the statements.

7.Results

From the analysis of data collected, results are presented in the tables below based on the research questions.

Research Questions 1

What are the teachers of agriculture perceptions of Supervised Agricultural Experience Programmes? Result presented in Table 1 shows that the two statements that received the most desireable rating; the teaching of agriculture needs improvement in Ekiti and Ondo States [means= 4.69. standard deviation =.21], evaluation is needed to appraise vocational agriculture effectiveness in Ekiti and Ondo State [mean = 4.54, standard deviation = 54].

The teachers disagreed most with the statement that SAEP or SAEP related contents are not in the vocational agriculture curriculum of Nigeria education [mean = 1.89, standard deviation = 93]. The teachers disagreed that agriculture is vocational oriented enough in Ekiti and Ondo State schools [mean = 2.01, standard deviation = 1.57].

Table 1. Rating Assigned To Statements About Teachers Perception Of Supervised Agricultural Experience Programme by Teachers of Agriculture in Ekiti and Ondo States

			Groups +++				
	A		B			GRAND	Results
Statement*	Mn+	SD++	MN	SD	Mn	SD	
Teachers perception of agricultural programmes were that:							
1. Practical agriculture and SEAP are the same	2.19	1.65	2.28	1.36	2.24	1.52	Disagreed
2. Vocational agriculture is complete without SAEP	1.69	1.31	2.74	1.49	2.22	1.40	Disagreed
3. all vocational agriculture students should be required to conduct SAEP	4.11	0.97	2.88	1.62	3.50	1.29	Agreed
4. It should provide students with exploratory and placement activities improvement projects and supplementary skills	3.86	1.32	3.18	1.91	3.52	1.62	Agreed
5. SAEP or SAEP related contents are not in Agriculture curriculum in the state.	1.56	0.85	2.22	1.01	1.89	0.99	Disagreed
6. Agricultural science is vocational oriented enough in Ekiti and Ondo State schools	2.14	1.72	1.86	1.31	2.01	1.52	Disagreed
7. The teaching of agriculture needs improvement in Ekiti and Ondo States	4.84	0.37	4.54	0.51	4.69	0.21	Agreed
8. Evaluation is needed to appraise vocational agriculture effectiveness, in helping students to develop the competencies needed to achieve their occupation objectives	4.63	0.15	4.44	0.56	4.54	0.54	Agreed

+++ Groups A = Teachers who had SAEP or related programmes;

B = Teachers who did not have SAEP or related programmes

Research Questions 2

What differences exist between the perception of teachers of agriculture that had practicals or SAEP related programmes; and teachers that had no practiced or SAEP related programmes, about SAEP?

Table 2. Mean, t-test and Probability level; Perception Values of Teachers of Agriculture in Ekiti and Ondo States

Statement*	GROUPS ++			2-tailed t-value	Results
	A MEAN	B MEAN	t TEST	Prob >t[4] At .05	
1. Practical agriculture and SAEP are the same	1.69	2.74	-3.89	0.0002* Significant	
2. vocational agriculture is complete without SAEP	2.19	2.28	-0.33	0.741	Not Significant
3. all vocational agricultural students should be required to conduct SAE programmes	4.11	2.88	4.74	0.0001* Significant	
4. It should provide students with exploratory and placement activities, improvement projects and supplementary / marketable skills	3.86	3.18	2.17	0.0329* Significant	
5. SAEP or SAEP related contents are not in agriculture curriculum in Ekiti and Ondo states.	1.56	2.22	-3.89	0.0002* Significant	
6. agricultural science is vocational oriented enough in Ekiti and Ondo State Schools	2.14	1.86	0.91	0.366	Not Significant
7. The teaching of agriculture needs improvement in Ekiti and Ondo State	4.84	4.54	3.62	0.0005* Significant	
8. evaluation is needed to appraise vocational agriculture effectiveness in helping students to develop the competencies needed to achieve their occupational objectives	4.64	4.44	2.16	0.032*	Significant

P < 0.05 alpha

++Groups: A were teachers that had SAEP related programs;

B were teachers that had no SAEP related programs.

Results presented in Table 2 showed the t-test statistics used to differentiate between the perception of teachers of agriculture that had practicals or SAEP related programmes (Grpup A) and teachers that has no practicals or SAEP related programmes while in secondary school. Out of the eight statements there were no

significant difference at P<0.05 in two statements; while there were significant difference in the opinion of the two categories of teachers in six (6) statements.

8.Findings and Discussion

The outcome of this study reveled that teachers agreed that all vocational agriculture students, should be required to conduct SAEP. They also agreed that the teaching of agriculture needs improvement in Ekiti and Ondo States. These findings are in consonant with that of Olaitan (2010) who was of the opinion that for an effective implementation of vocational agricultural programmes in Nigerian schools both the theory and practice of agriculture must go together so that the students can develop effective marketable and saleable skills that are needed to perform on the job after leaving the school.

The findings of the study also revealed that evaluation is needed to appraise the vocational agriculture effectiveness in helping students to develop the competencies needed to achieve their occupational objectives. This opinion is in agreement with, Olaitan (1996) and Reyahi et al 2007) that school agricultural programmes should henceforth be evaluated on a continuous basis to allow for appraisal, replanning and improvement purpose and to determine whether they contribute to the behavioural changes desired in the students.

This study also found out that there were no significant difference in the opinion of teachers that had SAEP related programmes and those that had no SAEP related programmes on such statement that the teaching of agriculture needs improvement in Ekiti and Ondo State, and Vocational agriculture is complete without SAEP According to Phipps(1980) and Olaitan(2010). Supervised Agricultural Experience Programmes should be recognized by all agricultural education teachers and educators as an inseparable component of vocational agricultural programmes. However, it appears apparent that most of the teachers are not fully aware of the ingredients and criterions of SAEP.

9.Summary, Conclusion and Recommendations

Teachers perception play important roles in students learning process and programme implementation in schools. The outcomes of this study have identified the salient perception of teachers about Supervised Agricultural Experience Programmes in Ekiti and Ondo States schools. This study noted that the teaching of agriculture needs improvement, which evaluation is needed to appraise vocational agriculture effectiveness. The teachers also confirmed that though. SAEP related contents are in the agricultural curriculum, the teaching and learning of agriculture has not been vocationally oriented in Ekiti and Ondo States. The teachers opined that vocational agriculture education is not completed without supervised agricultural experience programme. Therefore, there is the urgent need to quickly address these short comings in order to encourage learning by doing and skill development through the experiential activities of SAEP.

Based on the findings, and conclusion of this study, it was recommended among others that agriculture programmes in schools should include supervised agricultural experience programmes. Similarly the State School Boards in collaboration with relevant Ministries should conduct informational SAEP workshops and orientation for educational planners, administrators and teachers of agriculture in Ekiti and Ondo State in particular and Nigeria in general .

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An Experimental Study on Task-Based Language Teaching

in the Academic English for Humanities

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Abstract

To enliven the English class and improve student's involvement, there is an experiment on Task-based language teaching. Based on the ideas of student-oriented and learning by doing, the contents of the tasks are closely related with the text and the question-and-answer method is taken to put the tasks into practice. In this way, teacher and students go hand in hand to enjoy the class.

Keywords: Task-based language teaching; Student-oriented; Learning by doing

1. Background

Task-based language teaching (TBLT), with American educationist Dewey's pragmatism as theoretical base, first appeared in the 1980 and became very influential in the language teaching from 1990. Its striking feature is to trigger study motives by a series of tasks with clear purposes of pushing students to study and practice language actively. Its core idea is to disintegrate the life activities into concrete tasks by imitating all varieties of life activities with help of language. In this way the process of finishing tasks is the process of language acquisition. This teaching ideas like "students-oriented" and "learning by doing" develop from the base of language acquisition theory and social constructionism (Gong Yafu, Luo Shaoqian, 2003).

Constructionism is a branch of cognitive psychology which believes study is a process for students to construct knowledge actively and not to attain information easily and passively. Study means that learners choose, process and manage the external information actively with their past experiences as the base and then interpret the information to conclude personal meaning or understanding. With the past different experiences and different knowledge experiences, the interpretation and understanding are different. So, teaching must take the learner's past experiences into consideration and regard it as the new beginning to guide the learners to construct knew knowledge based on the past experiences. It is not wise to impart knowledge to learners easily and violently. Teaching is not to transfer knowledge but transform it.Teachers and students, students and students should explore some questions together and communicate and question each other during the process.

With this new value of teaching and learning as guidance, language study must have three conditions: language contact, language use and study motive. That is, enough input materials, attractive language practice, strong study motive, enthusiasm and teacher's guidance, early preparation and materials choice are all necessary. English teaching is a process for a teacher to give students real and natural tasks to experience, discover and create, which not only enlighten student's past knowledge structure but also stimulate passion to study new knowledge because of new tasks to achieve the re-association and reconstruction of the past and new knowledge. During this process, a teacher is only guide, not feeder; students cooperate each other to show the communicative feature that conforms to the instrumental quality of language.

In practice, Wills put forward three periods of Task-based language teaching: pre-task, task circle and language focus (Willis,1996). Pre-task includes three activities: introducing the content, meaning and importance of the task to motive student's involvement, supplying the real input language materials to help students to prepare the tasks and analyzing the materials to guide students to focus on certain forms and important points. Task circle is the practice of the task, also including three periods: performing the task, planning after-task activities and reporting. This is the whole process about how to finish the task and how to cooperate, study and present together. Language focus includes teacher's analysis and feedback about the process with emphasis on the accuracy of language form and practice or effectiveness of the tasks.

Skehan (1998) put forward three steps of task-based language teaching: pre-task, while-task and post-task.

Pre-task activities include teaching, conscious-improving activities and plans with the purpose as reconstruction, the decision of target language and relief of the cognitive burden. The teaching skills are to attract the student's attention, make the teaching plan and teach new language points.

While-task activities include three aspects: performance of the tasks, preparation of the report and report itself. The point is to design many mini-tasks and to form task chains.

Post-task include analysis and practice.The teaching object of the first period is not the fluency, but accuracy with the open show, analysis and test. The teaching object of the second period is the recycle of analysis and summary. The point is the order of the tasks, even the repeat of the certain tasks.

Based on the theory about task-based language teaching, there is an experiment of Academic English for Humanities in the class.

2. Design and Enforcement

2.1 Cause

There is a complete teaching reform of the public English courses in the School of Foreign Languages, CUPL. The result is a new course system of academic English in the grade one; liberal English in the first term of grade two and discipline English in the second term of grade two.

Academic English for Humanities is one of the discipline English courses. The textbook *Academic English for Humanities* published by the Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press is used for this course uses . It includes three parts: literature, history and philosophy.

At beginning, the author used the traditional teaching method, but some students didn't follow and did their own things in a distracted condition. For improving the student's involvement, the task-based teaching method is tried with a fact that the author is so familiar with the contents that she can extract the important parts and transform into tasks.

2.2 Target group

Undergraduates, the year of 2017, the second term of grade two.

2.3 Principle

For use of the task-based teaching method, the first thing is to know what is task? Wills argues the task is language activities, with which learners use target language to communicate and achieve something （Willis, 1996) . She underlines the aim of language teaching is to complete the communication task and the teaching activities should be based on this aim. These tasks should not focus on language but on communicative tasks in the real life, which require these teaching activities should be as much real and social as possible.

2.4 Details

The whole term has 16 weeks covering 6 units and accordingly, the whole class is divided into 6 groups. The group responsible for the specific unit is called Duty Group. The Duty Group must finish the tasks and get

ready for the questions from other students.To make the question-and-answer seems formal, the Duty Group will take the seats in the first two rows of middle class. The questions from other groups are about everything related with the text from the meaning of words, sentences to background information or other critical questions. The purpose is to enliven the class by asking and answering questions just like attack and defending. The tasks are of two kinds: one kind is for the Duty Group, the other kind is for other groups.

Take Text A of the Unit 3 for example: the title is: How to Write about Hemingway? This is a continuation of the previous two units, that is, how to write a critical article about Hemingway based on the literary theory of Unit 1 and literary criticism of Unit 2. The structure is clear: The first part is about the four challenges to write about Hemingway.The first one is how to distinguish the myth Hemingway, real Hemingway and his fictional characters. The second is Hemingway's economy of language and lack of narrative commentary. The third is Hemingway's careful use of symbols. The fourth is Hemingway's innovative form and intertextuality. The second part is how to deal with these challenges: thorough background research and careful, critical thinking.

The following is the tasks for the Duty Group responsible for Unit 3

1. New words, expressions and difficult sentences in Text A

2. Introducing Hemingway's Iceberg theory with examples from his works. (please find some help from relative academic articles.)

3. Interpreting *The Old Man and the Sea* with at least two schools of criticism. (please find some help from relative academic articles.)

4. What is the Lost Generation？

5. Telling the story of Jake Barnes in The Sun Also Rises.

Some tips: Task 4 about Lost Generation will be introduced when expatriate community in Paris in the 1920s in the first paragraph is told.

Task 5 about Jake Barnes story will be inserted during paragraph 3.

Task 2 about Iceberg theory will be told during paragraph 4.

Task 3 about interpretation of *The Old Man and the Sea* will be told after paragraph 5.

New words, expressions and sentences understanding will be questioned anytime.

This example shows that the tasks of Duty Group from text understanding (words, phrases, sentences) to background information or comprehensive knowledge are closely related with text contents. The way how to present tasks is free for the students -- oral presentation or other forms. The purpose is to achieve the fact that the teacher and students are together to finish the text study. For all the tasks, teacher are also ready to teach in case of student's insufficient presentation.

The following is the tasks for other groups except Duty Group

Paragraph 1：To write about Hemingway, we must distinguish the difference among three entities. What are the three entities?

Paragraph 2：What it the first pitfall to write about Hemingway?

Paragraph 3：What it the second pitfall to write about Hemingway?

Paragraph 4：How to understand "deceptively simple"

Paragraph 5：Have a try to interpret the meaning of symbols in The Old Man and the Sea

Paragraph 6：1.What is the final challenge faced by us to write about Hemingway?
2.What is intertextuality?

Paragraph 7：How to cope with/deal with these challenges to write about Hemingway?

The tasks for other groups are guidance to preview the text aiming to put forward high-quality questions.

2.5 Enforcement

Take Text A of Unit 3 for example, when the first paragraph is told, teacher will ask students to challenge the Duty Group by questions first---words, sentences, text understanding, background information etc. If they have no question, teacher will ask the students except Duty Group to check their preview. When the background information is necessary, the presentation by Duty Group will come, for example, to understand "expatriate community in Paris in the 1920s" the presentation about Lost Generation will be given (Task 4). In this way, presentation and text study will be connected closely. Another example is paragraph 4 about Hemingway's writing style, related with the presentation of Iceberg Theory (Task 2); Paragraph 5 is about the symbolic meaning of *The Old Man and the Sea,* related with the interpretation of *The Old Man and the Sea (*Task 5).

Besides the questions about text, students also ask some comprehensive questions, for instance: why *The Old Man and the Sea (*more or less 40 thousand words) help Hemingway win two awards--Nobel prize and Pulitzer prize? Why is Hemingway's writing style so deceptively simple?

3.Results and Improvements

Because of the clear tasks, all the students, whether they are Duty Group or not, have improved their involvement in the class. In order to meet the challenge from other students, most of them from the Duty Group are well-prepared.

There is a questionnaire at the end of the term. One question is asking students to rate their involvement in English Class, the average score is 3.68 (full score is 5). The other question is asking students to rate their achievements in English Class, the average score is 4.01 (full score is 5). Last question is asking students to rate the English Teacher's teaching, the average score is 4.77 (full score is 5). It shows that the task-based teaching method is suitable to improve student's involvement in the class.

The first attempt enlivens the class and triggers student's involvement and study interests. But, there are still some problems. The presentation about background information or comprehensive knowledge is too far from expectation. A teacher has to spend more time to give additional information. Sometimes, no student wants to give questions, or the question is too broad to give a definite answer. All the problems will become motives to continue the attempt.

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Critical Success Factors for Effective Institutional Collaboration

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Abstract

Collaboration is almost a buzzword in Higher Education institutions. Many Memoranda of Understanding (MOU's) and Memoranda Of Agreement (MOA's) have been signed between Higher Education institutions and other organisations in industry and among Higher Education institutions. The tangible and intangible benefits arising from these collaborations have not been as expected for many institutions. This study identifies the critical success factors for effective institutional collaboration. The study utilizes the qualitative research paradigm using the case study research design. The study surveyed four Higher Education institutions in Zimbabwe, which are Midlands State University (MSU), National University of Science and Technology (NUST), Harare Institute of Technology (HIT) and the Zimbabwe Open University (ZOU). Data were generated through document survey, direct and participant observation. Some of the key success factors in collaboration revealed in the study include skills in human relations and mediation, individual commitment, trust and commitment by all parties, System openness and transparency, reciprocity between parties and enabling organisational structures. The research concludes that collaboration by the institution has been well conceived but the tangible benefits have not been fully realised because of a lack of enduring commitment at all levels. The study recommends the establishment of concurrent monitoring and evaluation procedures and channels to correct problems, the cascading of agreements to departmental level and establishment of mechanisms for cooperation of departments between the subject institutions.

1.Introduction

Higher education institutions in Zimbabwe have signed several MOU's and MOA's among themselves, with other organisations in local industry and with international organisations. There is, therefore, a tremendous willingness within the higher education sector to forge long term mutually beneficial strategic alliances because of the potential benefits that arise with successful collaboration.

Though many higher education institutions have entered into these collaborative partnerships locally and internationally, there has not been significant sustained benefits realized from the strategic partnerships. Some of the agreements are never fully implemented and some are abandoned before completion of the intended results.

There has been broad research on collaboration in higher education institutions with most of the literature focusing on the drivers of collaboration and the benefits. A smaller component of collaboration research has sought to clarify the key success factors in research hence the lack of understanding in collaboration strategy.

Mayfield and Lucas (2000) suggested more broad general ideas on successful collaboration. They argued that successful collaborations typically require support from political leaders, opinion-makers and others who

control valuable resources and thus give legitimacy to the collaborative initiative. Other factors that influence successful performance relate to the collaborative process. Tapper, Kleinman and Nakashian, (1997) and Gray (1996) argued that members must develop clear roles and policy guidelines and provide a structure for the collaborative process. Reilly and Peterson (1997) suggested sharing of ownership and responsibility as key to successful collaboration. Though research has been carried out, there is still a significant information gap on key success factors in Higher education collaboration.

In addition to the general limited research on collaboration in higher education collaboration, much of the studies were carried out in the United States and Europe. Questions still arise, therefore, as to whether the same factors apply to the Zimbabwean setting. These questions provide the impetus for this research.

2. Statement of the Problem

Higher Education institutions in Zimbabwe have entered into several collaborative relationships locally and abroad. There is, however, very little to show with these institutions in terms of real benefits arising from such collaboration. It is not clear whether higher education institutions understand and appreciate the factors that are crucial for successful institutional collaboration. The study, therefore, identifies the key success factors for effective institutional collaboration.

3.Aims & Objectives of the Study

The study sought to identify key success factors for collaboration among higher education institutions in Zimbabwe.

The study aimed at:

identifying the key success factors for effective institutional collaboration.

identifying barriers to effective institutional collaboration.

recommending strategies to enhance institutional collaboration

4. Research Questions

The following sub-problems stood as research questions:

What are the key success factors for effective institutional collaboration?

What are the barriers to effective institutional collaboration in the H.E sector?

What strategies could H.E institutions employ to enhance the effectiveness of collaboration?

5.Justification

Institutional collaboration has not been as effective in the Zimbabwean H.E sector because of lack of a clear strategy and knowledge of key success factors by H.E institutions. Higher education institutions thus have committed time and resources to relationships that have not yielded the expected benefits.

It is hoped that this study will clarify key issues that enable effective collaboration for higher education institutions worldwide. The study closes the knowledge gap on institutional collaboration particularly in Zimbabwe. It considers the unique variables in Zimbabwean higher education institutions.

6.Review of Related Literature

Mattessich, Murray-Close and Monsey (2001) define collaboration as a mutually beneficial and well-defined relationship entered into by two or more organizations to achieve common goals.

Most research on collaboration of universities and industry have been carried out in Europe and the United States of America by individuals such as Powel (1996), Siegel, Waldman and Atwater (2003), Henderson and Jaffe (1998). The Euro-centric and American effectively creates a knowledge gap and questions of relevance for African institutions.

The research literature on collaboration success factors seems to indicate that there is no single success factor responsible for creating successful inter-institutional collaborations and that institutions need to align several factors to some degree to ensure effective collaboration (Mattessich and Monsey, 1992). Success in collaboration depends on industry, societies and the needs of the different parties and partners to the agreements. There is, therefore, need for the development of literature and knowledge which is specific to Higher Education collaboration in Zimbabwe which suit the conditions, variables and needs of the institutions in the country.

7. Methodology

This study falls within the qualitative research paradigm and employs the multiple case study design involving four institutions of higher learning in Zimbabwe, which are MSU, NUST, HIT and ZOU. The underlying philosophy to this study is the interpretivist philosophy. However, in some instances, data were presented quantitatively in tables and percentages were adopted to show intensity of an occurrence or lack of it. Data generation was through interviews, document survey, direct and participant observation.

8.Findings

8.1. Major reasons why Higher Education institutions seek collaboration

8.1.1. Pooling and sharing resources

The study revealed that higher education institutions are constrained from pursuing research and other socially beneficial projects because they lack adequate financing. 100% of respondents indicated that Higher Education institutions have sought collaboration to create synergies, share resources and avoid duplication of effort. Among the main resource areas of cooperation identified in the study include information, physical facilities such as buildings and other technical equipment.

8.1.2 Market Penetration

Respondents cited that new Universities and colleges have offered joint programmes with established Universities as a measure to gain reputation and penetrate the market. As an example, one respondent cited that 'conventional Universities who offer parallel programmes in the major cities of the country on distance education were provided with lecture rooms and accommodation by other Colleges'. The Zimbabwe Open University, the country's only distance learning University frequently used Belvedere Teachers' College for lectures and examinations in Harare. Higher education institutions therefore broaden their market reach and accessibility through engaging into strategic partnerships with other institutions.

8.1.3 Brand image

Eighty percent of respondents identified enhancement of brand image as a major reason to pursue collaboration. The research revealed that local universities pursue collaboration with internationally recognised

institutions to enhance their brand image. Association with internationally reputable universities enables local universities to leverage on brand association and the credibility of international universities.

8.2. Benefits of collaboration

8.2.1. Increased enrollment

Figure 1 shows that collaboration helps in improving enrollment. Respondents indicated that higher education institutions enter into collaborative agreements among themselves and with other organisations to increase enrollment. The Zimbabwe Open University has agreements with the Progressive Tobacco Farmers Union and Zimbabwe National Army which have helped to attract members from the said institutions. When asked if collaboration increased enrollment, 90% of respondents were in agreement, only 6% and 4% were not sure and disagreed respectively. Respondents argued that collaboration enhanced their organisations' market reach. Association with established organisations was also identified as an important factor which improved the credibility of higher education institutions.

Figure 1: Respondents' views on whether collaboration improves enrolment
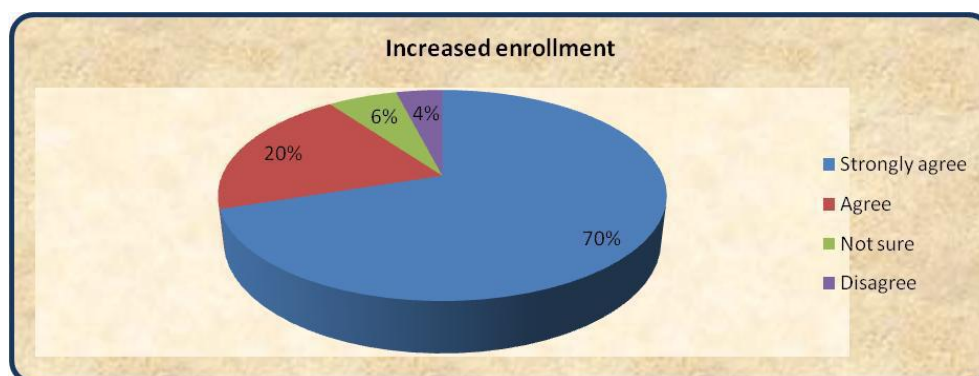
8.2.2 Enhance capacity to deploy in remote areas at affordable cost

Collaboration was found useful by respondents in enhancing the capacity of Higher Education institutions to deploy in distant and remote areas. Figure 2 shows that 80% of respondents strongly indicated that collaboration enhanced the capacity to deploy in remote areas, 15% agreed while 5% disagreed. One respondent indicated that most higher education institutions in Zimbabwe were introducing parallel programmes, due to financial constraints; they could not build accommodation and offices for staff and learners. Collaboration has been effective in enabling these institutions to provide services at convenient places for their stakeholders.

Figure 2: Respondents views on whether collaboration enhances the capacity of Higher Education institutions to deploy in distant and remote area
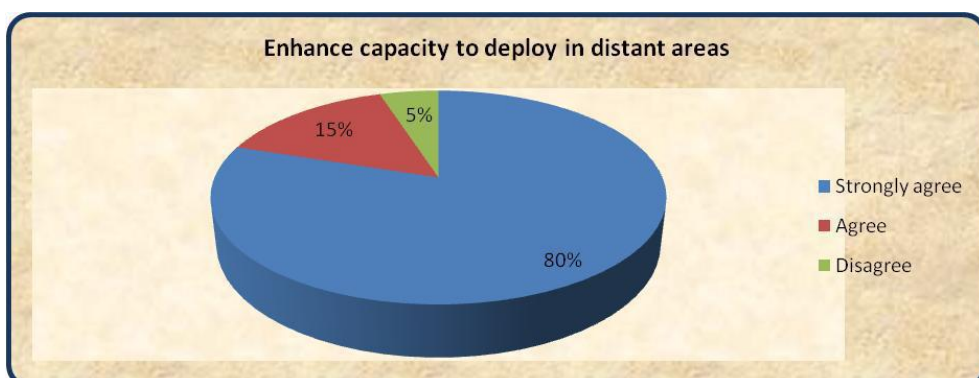
Access to improved learner support services – the Zimbabwe Open University has managed to provide world-class library facilities for its learners through collaboration with the City of Harare Library.

Development of technical expertise and sharing of knowledge – The study revealed that higher education institutions engage other local and international institutions to seek enhanced technical capabilities and world class operating models

Table 1 shows that there was general agreement as to the benefits of collaboration among all the respondents. Twenty percent of the respondents strongly agreed while 70% agreed to the view that collaboration was beneficial in that it helped enhanced support to reach out to students Only 4% were in disagreement while 6% were not sure. In as far it helped in bringing about access to improved learner support, a majority of 80% of the respondents strongly agreed to this while 15% agreed with the remaining 5% not sure. Some 30 % of the respondents strongly agreed while 60% agreed that collaboration also helped in the development and sharing of technical expertise. Ten percent of the respondents were not sure on this. Asked if collaboration enhanced credibility of programmes, overwhelmingly, 20% and 6% of the respondents strongly agreed and agreed respectively with only 10% disagreeing and the other 5% not sure. This is the observed phenomenon given that Higher education institutions enter into collaborations and launch joint programmes with advisory boards so as to enhance the credibility of their programmes. It also helps in the development of curriculum which is relevant for industry. Over and above this, respondents are of the conviction that collaboration helped in increasing enrollment in the institutions of higher learning as shown by 75% who strongly agreed to this view and 15% agreed while a paltry 10% of the respondents were not sure. This might be so in that those institutions involved become well known as they collaborate with different institutions. Collaboration therefore, becomes a marketing platform resulting in increased enrolments.

Table 1: Benefits of collaboration

Benefits of Collaboration	*Strongly agree*	*Agree*	*Not sure*	*Disagree*
1. Enhanced support to reach out to students	20	70	6	4
2. Access to improved learner support	80	15	5	0
3. Development and sharing of technical expertise	30	60	10	0
4. Enhanced credibility of programmes	20	65	5	10
5. Increased enrollment	75	15	10	0

8.3 Key success factors in institutional collaboration

Table 2: Key success factors in institutional collaboration

Key success factors in institutional collaboration	Strongly agree
1. Availability of a national framework governing collaboration	96
2. Commitment and support by the responsible ministry	96
3. An agreed strategy with a clear vision and objectives	90
4. Review as part of Senate agenda	80
5. Collaboration as part of Strategic plan	90
6. Budgetary support	100
7. Strategic alignment of the agreements with core business	70
8. Transparency by both parties	64
9. Reciprocity between parties	70
10. Commitment by top managers	100
11. Good communication skills	100
12. Similarities in culture (organisational or national)	60
13. Availability of expertise in both institutions	50

Data in Table 2 show that 96% of the respondents indicated availability of a national framework governing collaboration and commitment and support by the responsible ministry as key success factors in institutional collaboration. Ninety percent suggested an agreed strategy with a clear vision and objectives as key success factor whereas 80% thought review as part of Senate agenda to be critical. Collaboration as part of Strategic plan was advocated for by another 90% while an overwhelming 100% stated budgetary support as a key factor. Strategic alignment of the agreements with core business accounted for 70% of the respondents while transparency by both parties and reciprocity between parties had 64% and 70% respectively. Commitment by top managers and good communication skills had 100% each while similarities in culture (organisational or national) and availability of expertise in both institutions accounted for 60% and 50% respectively.

8.4 Barriers to effective collaboration

Respondents in the various higher education institutions identified the following barriers to effective collaboration as shown on the table below.

Table 3 shows that 95% and 90% of the respondents indicated lack of financial resources and lack of role appreciation and understanding, respectively as barriers to collaboration. Some 80% stated unavailability of a mechanism for review as well as lack of direct responsibility and commitment by individuals as barriers. Seventy percent stated that different cultural backgrounds as barriers to collaboration.

Table 3: Barriers to effective collaboration

Barriers to effective Collaboration	*Percentage*
1. Lack of financial resources	**95**
2. Lack of role appreciation and understanding	**90**
3. Unavailability of a mechanism for review	**80**
4. Lack of direct responsibility and commitment by individuals	**80**
5. Different cultural backgrounds	**70**
6. lack of appreciation and understanding of each other's roles, strengths, weaknesses	**65**
7. lack of recognition for successful collaborative work	**70**
8. Inconsistent communication and lack of consultation which affect coordination	**90**
9. lack of direct responsibility and committed individuals on either side	**100**
10. Different priorities and lack of commitment to the partnerships	**70**
11. lack of knowledge of the agreements in the middle and lower hierarchies of the participating organisations	**50**
12. External environment variables which affect effective planning.	**75**

There was a general feeling among 65% of the respondents that lack of appreciation and understanding of each other's roles, strengths and weaknesses was a barrier to effective collaboration. Some 70% cited lack of recognition for successful collaborative work while an overwhelming majority of 90% indicated inconsistent communication and lack of consultation which affect coordination as affecting collaboration in the institutions under review. All the respondents, 100%, felt that lack of direct responsibility and committed individuals on either side were barriers to collaboration. Different priorities and lack of commitment to the partnerships were cited as barriers by 70% while 50% indicated lack of knowledge of the agreements in the middle and lower hierarchies of the participating organisations as hindrances to collaboration. Lastly, some 75% felt that external environment variables which affect effective planning were barriers to collaboration.

9.Conclusion

Collaboration presents a unique development opportunity for higher education institutions through sharing knowledge and technical expertise. The research concludes that effective collaboration requires active participation of both parties of an agreement and the creation of mutual benefits. The agreements, their possible benefits and implementation strategies must be communicated in both organisations at department level and specific responsibilities allocated to relevant departments and individuals. Commitment is required at both organisational and individual level.

The effectiveness of collaborations in Zimbabwe has been hindered by inadequate financial support which constrained the availability of resources and the capacity to fulfill obligations as per the agreements. The study also established that the unavailability of a mechanism for review as well as lack of direct responsibility and commitment by individuals acted as barriers to effective collaboration. The different cultural backgrounds of individuals in different institutions also had a bearing on effective collaboration.

10.Recommendations

The following are some of the strategies to enhance collaboration:

Establish concurrent monitoring and evaluation procedures and channels to correct problems

Cascade agreements to departmental level and establish mechanisms for cooperation of departments between the two institutions

Familiarise the staff of the participating organizations with the agreements in the collaboration.

Accord recognition for collaborative work.

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Teaching Feminist Wellness and Health Education in the Critical Classroom: Understanding Embodiment Using the Work of Feminist Philosophers

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Abstract

This paper highlights the importance of focusing on feminist philosophers who embrace notions or corporeality and visceral experience when teaching in the fields of both Health Science and Women's Studies. Understanding that canonical feminism and critical theory view studies of personal health as problematic amidst current racialized, gendered, and ableist norms, a feminist health teacher must unpack philosophical paradigms before being able to deliver truly audience-centered health messaging. Elizabeth Grosz and Luce Irigaray are two useful feminist philosophers for such an endeavor; this article highlights their primary relevant points. The central truth of embodiment - that it is both individually and socially constructed and has served historically as a site for oppression, means that a feminist study of physicality will always be complicated. Rather than rejecting the body or "using the master's tools" to distance ourselves from the corporeal in order to establish intellectual credibility, a forward-thinking feminist must find holistic ways to look at embodiment, linking mind, body, and spirit equal in importance.

Keywords: Feminist wellness; Health education; Linking mind; Spirit equal

Do you remember the first time you ran onto the soccer field? Do you remember experiencing glorious chills after a hilly run on a cold day? What about the first time you fell down hard off your bicycle? I remember these physical experiences putting me in touch with my body and making me feel like I really knew myself, and was proud of that version of subjectivity. The feeling was visceral and childish – it was joy.

Physicality has become a dirty word among many feminist scholars and fitness is considered a problematic concept in the world of Women's Studies. The truth is that health promotion in contemporary society can often be accused of working in diametric opposition to visceral, celebratory expressions of physicality. In this world, the body is a construct, a site of oppression and mandated experiences, with aesthetic expression seen as obedience to patriarchy. It is into this quagmire that Elizabeth Grosz wades to disrupt feminist notions of the body. Her text is aptly titled, Volatile Bodies, because such pursuits in feminist circles have long been unpopular. "Feminists, like philosophers, have tended to ignore the body or to place it in the position of being somehow subordinate to and dependent for all that is interesting about it" (Grosz, p. 96, 1994).

A focus on the body as a lesser component of the self owes its erroneous assumption set to Descartes and humanist notions of mind/body duality. In this philosophy, the mind and intellect are elevated above the corporeal form. Traditionally, women were most closely associated with the natural and the physical, bound to their bodies and the physical realm by pregnancy and their natural cycles. Men endeavored to disconnect themselves from the base physical and pursue lofty inquiries; reason was characterized as a male attribute. In this triumph of dualistic thinking, men are masters of mind, culture, and masculinity. It is they who can use reason to master their passions, bodies, and objects of knowledge; unfortunately this positions women as mistresses of passion and emotion (Ramazanoglu, 2009).

This binary manifests itself in multiple arenas, but perhaps nowhere more noticeably than in the natural sciences, particularly the discourses of biology and medicine (Grosz, 1994). In the humanist-influenced natural sciences, the body becomes a target for essentialist thought. Feminists remain wary of discussions of subjectivity that attempt to link the body to socially-constituted experiences. In the face of this philosophy, Grosz argues that the body exerts influence even as it is influenced, and that being a body is something that we must come to accommodate psychically (Grosz, 1994). Grosz seems to advocate for embodied knowledge, even as she acknowledges the systems that corrupt notions of embodiment.

Grosz prefaces her analysis with a sincere acknowledgement of feminist theory's historical resistance to focus on the physical. "Women have been objectified and alienated as social subjects partly through the denigration and containment of the female body…patriarchal conceptions of the body have served to establish an identity for women in essentialist, ahistorical, or universalist terms" (Grosz, p. 121, 1994). Because of this historical reality, feminists often approach discussions of the body from a defensive standpoint.

Constantly feeling combative has held feminists back at times from embracing new critical theories or accepting feminism in all its forms. There is an acceptable, canonical type of feminist academic and there are unacceptable outsiders who refuse to stick to the script. In her chapter on feminist besiegement narratives in Rethinking Women's and Gender Studies, Allison Piepmeier cogently argues, "the besiegement mindset becomes a tool that not only differentiates between the discipline and the outside world but that is used within the discipline to police its boundaries and ultimately hold it back from certain kinds of academic change" (2012). For embattled feminists, the acceptable model of a card-carrying critical theorist is cerebral and not stereotypically-sexual; physical self care and celebration of the body are hardly emphasized.

In fact, physical-focus is considered a throwback, a concession to patriarchal beauty norms, and the province of the failed feminist. Feminist scholarship to date has been critical of discussions of bodily subjectivity in that those discussions are often used as a way of disciplining the body and conforming to hetero-normative notions of attractiveness and slimness. According to Verbrugge, the female body is more than simply a body, but is actually a site where social codes and relationships of gender, race, sexuality, and class are rehearsed, enforced, and contested (2002). Acknowledging this, many feminists seek to demonstrate resistance by disconnecting from that bodily site. Feminists have generally accepted the wisdom that dominant beauty ideals are destructive to women; in order to resist beauty myths, many feminists eschew self care through physical movement altogether, and call it political.

So often, a focus on the physical is linked to pursuit of an aesthetic, with no focus on empowerment and strength. The National Eating Disorder Association estimates that 10 million Americans suffer from some form of disordered eating. A typical feminist look at anorexia would label it as a pattern of dangerous, disordered behaviors due to internalized compliance desires with patriarchal slenderness standards. Grosz breaks from that pattern, and sees anorexia as a form of protest, a castigation of a social system that belittles female embodiment (Grosz, 1994). She sees Lacan's discussion of hysteric and organic paralyses and Freudian notions of cortical homunculus as buttresses to her argument. Lacan highlights the connection between mental comfort/harmony and physical distress, which Grosz takes a step farther, arguing that patriarchal social norms that disconnect women from their true physical selves are the source of mental disharmony, manifesting in physical distress like anorexic behaviors.

Grosz spends a great deal of time looking at phenomenological thinkers who engaged in a reassessment of the role of the physical in cognitive science and traditional psychoanalytic work. Merleau-Ponty's emphasis on the body as a primary site of knowing the world, a corrective to the long philosophical tradition of placing consciousness as the source of knowledge, was of particular interest. His central claim was that the body (the actual flesh) and that which it perceived (cognition and intellect) could not be disentangled from one another. He broke from humanist thought and this articulation of the primacy of embodiment led him away from phenomenology towards when he was to call the ontology of the flesh of the world.

The work of Luce Irigaray is particularly relevant in furthering Merleau-Ponty's direct ontological position. Physicality for women is a primary focus for Luce Irigaray's work. She argues that the historic association of women with matter and nature has been meant to keep them in a subordinate position. Irigaray critiques male phenomenological thinkers who may make contributions to a re-centering of the body, but adhere to old notions of the male representing the whole (Irigaray, 1974).

By associating the feminine with nature, philosophy has devalued the female subject position and sought to shore up nonexistent differences between the sexes. The rejection and exclusion of a female imaginary places women in a conundrum on the issue of physicality. She is in the position of experiencing herself only fragmentarily, confined to the liminal spaces of dominant ideology (Irigaray, 1981). In a sense, Irigaray strives to reclaim the physical as valuable and as gender-neutral. Irigaray encourages women to ironically mock the notion that their physicality is errant or insubstantial on some level. By speaking logically about notions that women are illogical, or embracing physicality when it is demeaned or degraded by others, women combat harmful norms and create new spaces for all persons.

Tamsin Lorraine expands on Irigaray's work in her text, Experiments in Visceral Philosophy. She uses Irigaray's notion of the feminine other to construct a notion of embodied subjectivity (Lorraine, 1999). This embodied subject is a unified project, a socially significant, conceptual, corporeal self whose dynamic process is always a result of the tension between soma and psyche (Lorraine, 1999). Lorraine joins the chorus of feminist challengers of the philosophical notion of a mind-body split, and reads Irigaray as calling for heightened awareness of this relationship.

The complex interaction between thought, emotion, and physicality has spawned a field of research known as psychoneuroimmunology, which works on empirically validating the interrelatedness of the human mind, body, and spirit. The power of emotion to affect the body's physiology is fascinating, and is no longer the sole province of esoteric Eastern medicine, as increased attention and emphasis is being placed on integrative medicine (Seaward, 2004). Grosz analyzes the work of neurologists who have delved into this arena, and applies their findings to larger notions of bodily understanding in the social and philosophical environment, citing the thoroughgoing community between psychical and organic processes (Grosz, 1994).

A person then, is keenly invested in the concept of their body as psychically and socially constructed, and this exerts physiological influence on that body. Cultivating awareness of social pressure and constructs is a key first step to expanding notions of embodiment. Grosz discusses the phenomenon of phantom limbs to highlight this point, which operate as a psychical attempt to reactivate a past body image in place of the present reality. She asks her readers to draw a corollary between patriarchal oppression and the body images held by women (Grosz, 1994).

The central truth of embodiment, that it is both individually and socially constructed, and has served historically as a site for oppression, means that a feminist study of physicality will always be complicated. Rather than rejecting the body or "using the master's tools" to distance ourselves from the corporeal in order to establish intellectual credibility, a forward-thinking feminist must find holistic ways to look at embodiment, linking mind, body, and spirit as of equal importance.

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Discussion Board Boredom? Creating an Engaging Online Course

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Abstract

Student engagement is a challenge in the traditional classroom setting but even more so in an online course. Outdated, passive learning strategies have to be replaced with active learning strategies. This paper focuses on three keys to increasing student engagement in an online course; creating an online community, providing a variety of assignments, and focusing on challenging the student.

Keywords: Student engagement; Learning strategies; Online course; Challenge

I.Introduction

The use of online instruction in higher education has taken off in the last decade. A survey found that 89% of four-year public colleges and universities and 60% of four-year private schools offer online classes (Parker, Lenhart, Moore, & Pew, 2011). Students are seeking and utilizing online courses for their convenience and access. But just because 46% of college graduates (Parker, et al., 2011) have taken an online course, it does not mean that they are adequately prepared to be successful in the online format. And guess what? Neither are their instructors! One study looked at self-reported efficacy of online instructors and 53% of participants reported low or medium computer skills and rated themselves the lowest in fostering online student engagement (Horvitz, Beach, Anderson, & Xia, 2015) . Another survey of online instructors found that 100% of respondents considered student engagement a challenge regardless of the number of years they have been teaching online (Khan, Egbue, Palkie, & Madden, 2017). Despite feelings that student engagement is a concern, a majority of online instructors do not pursue active learning strategies and admit to relying on a traditional lecture method for online courses (Khan et al., 2017). This means that most online instructors are recording lecture notes to accompany their slides and giving tests over the content. This is not an engaging online course! Neither is posting a discussion board assignment with the prompt: "Read chapter 4 and summarize the key concepts of the chapter." So why do instructors continue to use this format?

Instructors believe that their students are engaged in traditional lecture methods delivered online (Khan et al., 2017) and this is because instructors are making assumptions about their online students. Three major assumptions about online learners have been identified: learners have acquired the learning strategies to work through the online learning component, learners have acquired the knowledge to learn from the online learning component; and learners have acquired the attitudes that enable them to use these strategies and knowledge confidently, flexibly, appropriately and independently of the instructor (Lim, 2004).

Assuming that students have the skills to navigate the online "classroom" can cause the students considerable frustration and cognitive overload. Where do they find support when they have technical issues? How do they find tools on the learning platform? Do they know how to work through a module and submit their assignments? How do they contact the instructor if they have questions? All of these questions should be addressed by the instructor at the start of the class to reduce students' stress over navigating the online format. If too much effort is involved in seeking support or trying to submit assignments, students are less likely to be engaged in the course (Lim, 2004). Instructors should consider creating a brief video that shows students where all of the essential tools and support can be found on the learning platform and give clear information regarding contacting the instructor.

The second assumption, learners have acquired the knowledge to learn from the online learning component, is a dangerous assumption both in the traditional classroom setting and an online course (Lim, 2004). This assumes that the learner has all of the foundational knowledge that they need to successfully integrate new information into their education. Instructors can help online students draw a connection between old and new information by providing "warm-up" activities or assignments that review information from the previous week and show them how it will connect them to the next chapter or module. Drawing that connection may seem obvious to the instructor but without the face-to- face interaction it is harder to gauge if students have successfully mastered last week's materials and are ready to build upon that knowledge.

Lastly, online instructors assume that learners have acquired the attitudes that enable them to use these strategies and knowledge confidently, flexibly, appropriately and independently of the instructor (Lim, 2004). There is an expectation by students that they can watch a lecture once and retain all of the information needed to be successful. This attitude is unfortunately supported by instructors who only use the traditional lecture format in their online courses. It sends the message that watching a lecture, passively learning, is enough to pass the class but is that enough to actually learn? Probably not.

Now that we have an understanding of some of the assumptions made about online learners, how do we use that information to create a more engaging online course that promotes active learning and real retention of knowledge? Through my personal experience, I have found three key components for a successful, engaging, and beneficial online course; creating a community, providing a variety of assignments, and challenging the students.

II.Creating a Community Online

One of the most important strategies to help develop best practice in online learning courses is to develop a community (Khan et al., 2017). Apart from making a clear statement about expectations regarding interaction and contribution for both students and the instructor, it is vital that assignments are geared towards the creation of your online community. An example of an assignment that can help students feel more connected to one another is a welcome video. This is a great first assignment to follow up to the instructor's welcome video where they introduce themselves and show the students the basics of navigating the learning platform. Students can record a brief introduction video that includes who they are, what they want to learn from the class, and a fun fact or two about themselves. To even further this assignment, students can be required to respond to two of their classmates' videos just to engage a little bit and acknowledge each other. This helps students get a feel for who they are going to be interacting with in discussions and group assignments.

Another way instructors can help students feel more connected is to create a forum that is simply a "Q&A" area for students to ask questions about anything in the course. Sometimes students forget where to find a support tool, are having technical difficulties, they aren't understanding the assignment instructions and need clarification, they want to bounce an idea off of their peers. Whatever the case may be, this area allows for ungraded discussion and support and helps the students feel more connected to their peers and their instructor. This also doubles as a valuable tool for the instructor as it enables them to see what the students are asking each other, where instructions need clarification, and where students are having trouble so they can address these issues as they arise instead of waiting for midterm or end of course evaluations.Instructors need to provide multiple ways of interacting with students to create their own social presence which the literature confirms is an integral component to a successful online course.This can be accomplished by offering a live "Q&A" through an synchronous chat feature to provide a real-time review session (Kirk, 2019). Courses that have multiple ways of interacting with the instructor are proven to have higher student engagement (Dixson, 2010).

An instructor can establish their presence by providing weekly "check- in" announcement emails or videos. This can be a great way to start each week by reviewing last week's content and how it will link to this week's information. This is also a good time to acknowledge any recurring themes from the previous week whether it was everyone did a great job with the assignments or there was an area that several students struggled with. Acknowledging these trends show the students that you are spending time looking at their work and are invested in their understanding of the content and you are flexible to change content as needed based off of student results and feedback.

Lastly, be an active participant! It is recommended that instructors contribute at least 10% of discussion postings. Research studies have shown that in discussion boards where the instructors are more involved, learners respond with more enthusiasm and regular participation (Lim, 2004) . If you find your discussion boards lacking in quality or depth of responses, you will probably be surprised at how quickly that can be remedied once you insert yourself into the discussion. Student contributions dramatically increase in both quality and quantity when they know the instructor is actively participating and essentially monitoring the discussion post throughout the week rather than just grading the end product.

III.Variety of Assignments

I think this is where instructors are at a bit of a loss on how to design and implement authentic and engaging assignments that also meet their course objectives. It is certainly easier for the instructor to make lecture slides and assign an automatically graded quiz and call it a day. Being authentic takes time, trial and error, revamping, and an understanding that some of your ideas may end up being a flop. Aiming for less content that may send students into content-overload, try using a variety of methods to deliver course content, and an emphasis on projects, case studies, experiential learning and other forms of engaging assignments (Kirk 2019).

Authentic activities have the capability to motivate and encourage learner participation by facilitating learners' engagement with the instructional message (Lim, 2004). But what is an authentic assignment? This will vary by discipline, but authentic activities include activities that are based on real situations and simulation models that focus on applying new knowledge and skills (Lim, 2004). My background is in athletic training and health sciences

so for my students, designing assignments or tasks that center on patient care and interprofessional education with a variety of healthcare providers is the overall focus. These types of assignments can include virtual laboratories for anatomy, video case studies where students critique the assessing clinician's performance, or having students post videos of themselves demonstrating special tests for specific body regions. Reverse case studies are another great online assignment that get the students to engage with each other outside of a discussion board. I break students up into groups and present them with a concussion patient describing the mechanism of injury. It is the group's responsibility to invent realistic signs and symptoms the patient may exhibit and how they would proceed with an evaluation based on those signs and symptoms. The goal of these assignments is to make the task as real and applicable to their professional development as possible.

Other more generalized ideas for assignment variety include students receiving a topic and creating narrated slide presentations on their topic as if they are teaching the topic to the class. Students can be required to create a visual representation of a specific statistic. For my Intro to Healthcare Systems students this could be creating a pie chart that depicts a health disparity, perhaps rates of heart disease among different ethnic groups. This allows the students to take the general information presented in the chapter and do their own research on a topic that interests them or pertains to their field. Infographics are another way for students to link information presented and have the opportunity to put their own stamp on the assignment. Infographics are designed to be eye-catching and summarizing so it is a fantastic method for students to assess the key concepts of the chapter and present it in an interesting and concise format. Assignments that are personalized and based on the student's interests, hometowns, backgrounds, experiences, also limits the ability for students to cheat or copy since these factors cannot be duplicated (Kirk, 2019).

If you must do a discussion board, there are ways to make this process beneficial for the students. Discussion board forums can be engaging and meaningful if certain guidelines are followed. First, participation expectations must be clearly identified and stated. My basic discussion board requirements state that students must post their original post by Wednesday and they are required to respond to two classmates by Sunday. This gives ample time for discussion and follow-up posts. It is hard to have a discussion on meaningful concepts in a few short hours before the assignment is due. Participation requirements are absolutely vital to the success of discussion boards because it ensures that there is adequate discussion, feedback, alternate opinions, and learning taking place.

An important guideline for instructors is to have a very clearly stated prompt. What do you want students to discuss? What is the most important concept for them to grasp this week? Ask a specific question or two that students should focus on. Can you tie in one of your authentic assignments and ask them how they applied another group's information? And as stated before, instructor participation is critical to enhancing the quality and quantity of student engagement and participation in discussion boards. Just think how much more effort you would give in an online discussion board if you knew the instructor would comment and maybe even ask you a follow-up question throughout the week rather than just giving you a grade at the end of the discussion.

IV.Challenging the Student

This last truth about creating an online course may shock some instructors; but yes, your students want to be challenged! Students are investing time and money into their education and taking an online class should be worth

just as much of those two valuable resources as a traditional class. I was very surprised reading through my first midterm student feedback surveys that a number of students said they actually wanted more challenging assignments! This is when I realized that I needed to create those authentic assignments that translated to real-life experiences and prepare them for their future profession more than any automatically graded quiz ever could.

Put yourself in the student's shoes for a moment. If your online class was the same every week; a narrated lecture, a graded quiz, and a discussion board asking you to summarize the chapter for 15 weeks would you look forward to the class? Would you feel that it was a valuable use of your time and money? Would walk away feeling like that class adequately prepared you for the next step in your education? Probably not. Students who said they were highly challenged by their courses "were more likely to engage in a variety of effective educational practices," (Mathews 2015). When you aren't sure what the next week's module will include you are eager, (dare I say) excited, to log in and see what the new assignment will be. This is what keeps students engaged in an online class. We have to substitute variety and challenge to make up for the fact that we do not have face-to-face interactions, cannot play off of visual cues and student reactions, or display our passion for the subject in person.

There is increasing concern that online classes are not maintaining let alone increasing in academic rigor over the years. (Keating, 2015). Online instructors need to set the expectation with students that they will be asked to step outside their comfort zone and incentivize work that encourages them to do so (Bell & Murphy, 2019). Academic rigor can be maintained in an online classroom by creating assignments that target complex ideas and concepts and requiring students to reflect on their own understanding (Bell & Murphy, 2019). Rigor is that which leads a student to the understanding, knowledge, applications, skills, and competencies that are required for academic success, regardless of whether the student is sitting in a classroom or before a computer screen (Keating, 2015).

V.Conclusion

If you are an instructor for an online class and you feel unprepared or uncertain that you are structuring the course "correctly," take comfort in the fact that you are not alone. A majority of online instructors, even those with years of experience teaching online, are unsure of how to integrate new and active learning strategies to students they cannot see. The first step to gaining confidence in your online instructing is to identify and remediate any of the previously mentioned assumptions that you may have about online learners. Many instructors are unaware of these assumptions and the negative impact that they can have on their students' success in the course. The biggest assumption that you must overcome is that your online learners are engaged in the traditional lecture style delivery of content. This style is hard enough to successfully execute in the traditional classroom setting and nearly impossible to pull off in an online course, that is if you care about your students learning and retaining the information.

Doing away with traditional lectures and stale discussion board prompts and replacing them with authentic and engaging assignments that are catered towards your discipline is vital for student learning. It will take time, creativity, and even collaboration to design assignments that are intended to give the students an experience rather than just a grade. Start by thinking about what skills, activities, or qualities do professionals in your discipline utilize or possess and then design activities that would allow students to develop those components. Be prepared to

altar, revamp, or even toss out an assignment idea that didn't pan out. This process can be frustrating and time-consuming but once you get assignments and activities that are successful you will find that your students are much more engaged and enthusiastic in their participation.

Remember, challenge = engagement. Taking an online course should not be synonymous with being easier than taking a class in the traditional classroom setting. Every course a student takes should be a meaningful experience that gives them a new layer of knowledge to carry into the next step of their education or into their career.

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The Degree of Management by Wandering Around Practice and its Relation to Gender and Specialization at Private Schools in Amman

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Abstract

The study aimed at identifying the degree of management by wandering around practice and its relation to gender and specialization at private schools in Amman/ Jordan from the point of view of teachers. The sample of the study consisted of (604) of private schools teachers working at the university region directorate of education in Amman, Jordan. To achieve the aim of the study, a questionnaire to measures management by wandering around practice was used after its validity and reliability had been proven. The results of the study showed that the degree of management by wandering around practice was high, and that there were no statistically significant differences in the sample's responses to the items of the questionnaire that measures the degree of management by wandering around practice due to specialization, but, there were statistically private schools due to gender, in favor of females.

Keywords: Degree of management; Private schools; Significant differences; Specialization

1.Introduction

The success and failure of any institution depend mainly on its management style. Management can facilitate the achievement of schools objectives, or form an obstacle to their progress. Management by wandering around is an effective administrative style that removes barriers among managers and employees. It encourages the open door policy and opposes bureaucracy.

According to management by wandering around, managers:

- Spend much of their time away from their offices listening to employees, actively communicating with them, raising questions to them and seeking innovative and new ideas (Peters & Austin, 1985).
- Delegate power to assistants, and wander around to discover the needs of employees, participate in solving their problems, encourage them to express their opinions, concerns, joys, sorrows,and complaints (Alhawamdeh&&Alobaidi, 2012).

- Inspire employees, pay them much attention and enhance their enthusiasm and morale through direct contact and positive reinforcement (Almawadiya, 2014).

So, many successful school principals apply management by wandering around by staying close to the actual field of work, holding meetings with teachers and assistants to make educational work a success and seeing the real school work, needs, achievements and challenges (Sabah, 2012).

The essence of management by wandering around in education is managing work by roaming at schools, making visits to various schools sites, and observing employees' job performance in real situations, talking, interacting and making interviews in the work field with them, listening to their ideas and problems, giving constructive feedback to them regarding work planning and implementation, and involving them in dealing with work issues (Abu Hammour, 2012).

Alkasasbeh (1996), Alsaqi (2015), Judy &Abdul Rahman (2011), Alsarhan (2016), Reese (2009), Lorenzen (1997), Beil-Hildebrand (2006), Serrat (2009), Albanna, (2010) and Buckner (2008) pointed out that the major objectives of management by wandering around are:

- Getting rid of work routine and bureaucracy, and building up mental and intellectual renewal of individuals.
- Stimulating creativity and innovation, raising the level of job implementation and enhancing the quality of performance.
- Supporting desires, compatibility and excellence of workers.
- Eliminating or reducing the level of employees' stress, anxiety, tension, administrative despair and isolation.
- Providing employees with inspirations and ideas through active and interactive participation.
- Removing of the boundaries among administration and workers to strengthen interaction and direct contact, and enhancing the processes of persuading, motivating, developing employees.
- Acting as a driving force to achieve institutional aims through enabling managers to collect sufficient and accurate information related to the progress of work, deal with their staff in the light of it, make the appropriate decisions, and choose the best alternatives among the available ones.
- Improving performance in organizations.
- Boosting employees' efficiency and abilities, developing their knowledge to achieve their goals, and attempting to meet their needs and satisfy their demands.
- Addressing the employees' wrong behaviors and deficiencies in their performance, and helping them to find out solutions for their problems.
- Providing appropriate opportunities to establish continuous dialogues among employees and their leaders, upgrading institutional quality, and directly getting the proper information from its authentic sources.
- Decentralizing management.

The topic of management by wandering around practice at the Jordanian private schools has not yet received sufficient attention despite its great significance. That is why a number of researchers such as Qaddumi &

Khawaldeh (2014), Almawadiya (2014), and Alhawamdeh&&Alobaidi (2012) recommended conducting research on management by wandering around for the lack of studies in this field in Arabic.

Alsheikh (1999) argued that the administrative system at Jordanian schools is hierarchical and bureaucratic. That is, the power is monopolized by only the principals who spend most of their time in offices to perform daily routine school affairs, monitor the performance of teachers, deal with the behavioral problems of students, receive visitors and parents of students, and give little time for the teaching - learning process.

The study aimed at identifying the degree of management by wandering around practice and its relation to gender and specialization at private schools in Amman- Jordan from the point of view of teachers by answering the following questions:

1.What is the degree of management by wandering around practice among the principals of private schools in Amman?

2.Are there statistically significant differences in the sample's responses to the items of the questionnaire that measures the degree of management by wandering around practice among the principals of private schools in Amman, due to gender and specialization?

The study is significant because the number of studies conducted in its field in Jordan is limited. Also, Its findings may provide education policy makers in Jordan with a useful feedback that enables them to take developmental policies and practices concerning school management. In addition, it may draw the attention of educators to conduct more research on management by wandering around and encourage principals to apply its principles.

A number of studies were conducted on management by wandering around in Jordan. But, none of them dealt with measuring the degree of management by wandering around practice at private schools in Amman / Jordan. For example, Alhawamdeh, & Alobaidi (2012) investigated the impact of management by wandering around practice on the effectiveness of decision-making process at Jordanian public universities, and found out that the practice of management by wandering around positively affects the decision-making process. Khamash (2014) focused on management by wandering around practice in public schools in Amman, Jordan and revealed that the level of principals' practice of management by wandering around was moderate. Almawadiya (2014) concentrated on measuring the degree of management by wandering around practice among the principals of kindergartens in Karak / Jordan and pointed out that the degree of that practice was moderate.

2.Method

The descriptive method was used because it suited the study. The study population consisted of (6090) private schools teachers in the University District Directorate of Education in Amman. A stratified random sample that consisted of 604 teachers was chosen.

A questionnaire to measure the degree of management by wandering around practice consisting of (22) items was developed after benefiting from the studies of: AlKhudairi (2000), Peters & Austin (1985) Lorenzen (1997), Buckner (2008), Amsbary& Staples, (1991), Alajmi (2008), and Alqarni (2016). Each item required choosing one of the following responses based on Likert's scale: Full agreement (5), agreement (4), neutrality (3), disagreement (2)

full disagreement (1). The means of the evaluation of the study sample's responses to the questionnaire items were as follows: (1-2.33) = low, (2.34-3.67) = moderate and (3.68-5) = high.

To ensure the validity of the questionnaire, it was distributed it to twenty two educational sciences specialists in a number of Jordanian universities. In the light of their opinions and comments, (3)items were deleted, some items were rewritten, and some linguistic and typing corrections were made.

To test the extent of the internal consistency of the scale items, Chronbach's Alfa was used. The internal consistency coefficient was (81.6%).So, it was considered to be suitable.

3.Findings and Discussion

To measure the degree of management by wandering around practice among the principals of private schools in Amman, the means and standard deviations of the items of the study questionnaire were calculated as table (1) showed:

Table 1:   Means in a Descending Order and Standard Deviations of the Items of the Study Questionnaire

Rank	Items Numbers	Items	Means	Standard Deviations	Acceptance Level
1	1	The school principal makes unplanned tours at school.	4.18	.89	High
1	13	The school principal is closely aware of school problems	4.18	0.9	High
3	19	The school principal communicates with the parents of the students.	4.14	0.88	High
4	9	The school principal listens to teachers' opinions.	4.09	1.10	High
5	6	The school principal applies the open door policy.	4.06	0.93	High
6	8	The school principal directly listens to students about their complaints.	4.04	.92	High
7	21	The school principal observes students' discipline.	4.01	0.98	High
7	10	The school principal tries to meet teachers' needs.	4.01	1.01	High
9	15	The school principal verifies the information he receives regarding teachers.	3.99	1.03	High
10	11	The school Principal maintains close relations with teachers.	3.96	1.03	High
11	3	The school principal meets students at school.	3.93	.92	High
11	22	The school principal cares about teachers' problems.	3.93	1.06	High
13	12	The school principal attends teachers' meetings.	3.9	.99	High
13	18	The school principal visits teachers in classrooms.	3.9	0.91	High
15	20	The school principal supervises school maintenance.	3.89	.99	High
16	14	The school principal encourages teachers' participation in school decision-making.	3.84	1.07	High
16	16	The school principal provides teachers with feedback about their job performance.	3.84	1.1	High
18	7	The school principal informally visits teachers in their rooms.	3.77	1.03	High
19	17	The school principal spends much time roaming outside his/her office.	3.65	1.07	Moderate
20	2	The school principal conducts meetings in teachers' rooms.	3.61	1.16	Moderate
21	4	The school principal avoids isolating him/herself from teachers.	3.55	1.32	Moderate
22	5	The school principal does not rely on reports in his/her management.	3.29	1.3	Moderate
		Total	3.90	.65	High

Table (1) showed that the degree of management by wandering around practice among the principals of private schools in Amman, from the teachers' point of view, was high. The result means that the principals of those schools conduct continuous planned and unplanned school tours, use open door policies, do not isolate themselves from teachers, directly observe the implementation of tasks, identify the points of strength to boost them, and the points of weaknesses to avoid them, care about students' problems, discipline, and guidance, and pay attention to their

complaints, listen to teachers' views, meet their needs, involve them in decision-making, follow-up the implementation of their tasks, strengthen personal relations with them, and provide them with feedback.

This result may indicate that many of private schools in Amman:

- Are among the most prestigious schools in the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan.
- Have leaders who care for administrative efficiency, effectiveness, and creativity to achieve the best results, and build a good educational reputation.
- Are interested in providing courses, seminars and lectures to school principals about modern management styles such as management by wandering around.
- Appoint the most qualified school principals in order to succeed in attracting the largest number of students.
- Encourage school principals to avoid routine, centralization, bureaucracy and closed doors policies.

To find out whether there were statistically significant differences due to the gender, the means and standard deviations were calculated, and the t-test was used, as table (2) showed

Table 2: Means, Standard Deviations, and T-test Results for Significant Differences in Teachers' Responses Due to Gender

Gender	Number	Means	Standard Deviations	Freedom Degree	T- value	Statistical Significance
Male	165	3.76	0.72	602	-3.13	0.002
Female	439	3.95	0.62			

The results according to Table (2) indicated that there were statistically significant differences in the responses of teachers due to gender, in favor of females. The reason for that is probably that female principals,who face more social and professional challenges and restrictions than their male colleagues, try to demonstrate their leadership competence through the adoption and application of an effective management style, that is management by wandering around, to prove that they are not less competent in school management than men.

To find out if there were significant differences in teachers' responses due to specialization variable, means and standard deviations were calculated, and t -test was used, as shown in table 3:

Table 3: Means, Standard Deviations, and T-test Results for Differences in Teachers' Responses Due to Specialization

Specialization	Number	Means	Standard Deviations	Freedom Degree	T -value	Statistical Significance
Human	348	3.9	.67	602	0.125	0.900
Scientific	256	3.89	0.62			

The results indicated that there were no statistically significant differences in the teachers' responses due to specialization. This may be because teachers, regardless of their specialization, have similar judgment concerning

the level of their principals' practicality, openness, and avoidance of: Routine, closed door policy, bureaucracy and centralization.

4.Recommendations

The results showed that the degree of management by wandering around practice among the principals of private schools in Amman was high. So, rewards and incentives should be given to the principals who apply management by wandering around in their schools creatively and innovatively.

On the other hand, there were statistically significant differences in the responses of teachers regarding the degree of practice of private school principals in Amman due to gender, in favor of females. Therefore, the Ministry of Education should hold lectures, seminars, courses, conferences, and workshops on the importance, advantages principles and implementation methods of management by wandering around for male principals.

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Spelling-Sound Discrepancy and its Effect on Memory of New Words in L2

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to determine whether type of grapheme–phoneme discrepancy (having a silent letter vs. having a wrong letter) had differential effects on memory of the phonological forms of new words and their processing rate in a L2 with a different script from the L1. To this purpose, 20 Persian speaking learners of English participated in a two phased experiment. First participants were divided into two groups and received 17 pseudowords including 5 with a silent letter, 6 with a wrong letter, and 6 with congruent graphemes and phonemes. They saw a picture showing the concept the item expressed and the written form underneath, and they listened to the phonological forms of the items. Then they received an auditory matching memory test in which they had to match the auditory name of the item with the correct picture. The pseudowords were presented through the Microsoft Power point software (2013) and the memory test was presented through the DMDX software (Forster & Forster, 2003). The paired samples t test was used to compare the performances on silent and wrong letter items. The results showed no effect of item type on accuracy and processing time. In other words, no difference was found for retrieving the correct meaning of the two different types of grapheme-phoneme discrepancies. The findings indicate that when learners learn a new language with a different script they may not pay a lot of attention to the written form, especially when the retrieval task requires the leaners to focus on the meaning and not the spelling of the words. Therefore, presenting or depriving the learners from the writing form does not make a big difference for learners in the early stages of learning new words.

Keywords: Orthography; Phonology; L2 word learning; Accuracy; Processing time; DMDX software

1.Introduction

The relationship between the orthographic and phonological forms of words varies across languages. Languages like Serbo-Croatian (Katz & Feldman, 1981) allow transparent relationship between the two. It means that grapheme–phoneme relationship is consistent and invariant. Therefore, the pronunciation of a novel word can be predicted by a relatively small set of rules. In English, however, the correspondence between spelling and sound is not transparent and there is not a perfect relationship between phonemes and graphemes representing those sounds. A phoneme can be realized by many different graphemes (e.g., /aI/ in mine, pie, and my), and a grapheme can also be realized by many different phonemes (e.g., the letter a in fate, pat, and wash). Besides, some letters are not pronounced (e.g., knight, psychology) while others might have wrong pronunciations (e.g., pizza, Xerox).

Although identification of written or printed words begins with the visual processing of letter symbols, there is substantial evidence that the phonological information behind the orthographic representations plays a crucial role in the process. In early studies, it was revealed that recoding of orthography to phonology occurs

during or even before readers' access to the lexical entries of visually presented words. (Bernet & Perfetti, 1995; Brysbaert, 2001; Drieghe & Brysbaert, 2002).

Orthographically presented words have been shown to activate phonological information, which is then used in identifying words and hence their meanings. In semantic categorization tasks where participants are asked to decide whether a particular word is a member of a semantic category (e.g., FLOWER), participants are more likely to commit false positive errors for homophone controls (e.g., ROWS) and pseudo-homophones (e.g., ROWZ) than for a spelling-matched control (e.g., ROBS, in Van Orden, Pennington, & Stone, 1990). This indicates that words that share phonological representations are confusable because identification of visually presented words depends on the phonological information readers access in orthographic words.

In Ota, Hartsuiker and Haywood (2009), three groups of participants including native speakers of English, Japanese, and Arabic were asked to do a semantic-relatedness judgment task on some English words. Native speakers of English were less accurate and slower in rejecting pairs that contained a word with a homophone related to the other member of the pair (e.g., MOON-SON) in comparison to spelling controls (e.g., MOON-SIN). This was also the case with the nonnative speakers of English, demonstrating that the phonology of L2 words is being processed in L2 visual word recognition too. The nonnative participants also exhibited homophone-like effects in judging pairs that contained a word differed phonologically from a related word by a segmental contrast missing in their L1. The results of this study show that not only phonological mediation can take place in bilingual visual word recognition but also that the phonology of L1, in addition to that of the L2, is active in the silent reading of L2 words.

It is worth and vital that orthographic knowledge modifies the nature of the mentally stored phonological information, and that the influence of orthography on spoken word processing arises indirectly from this phonological representation (e.g., Peereman et al., 2009; Perre et al., 2009). A description of how orthography might be included in the phonological system is given by Taft (2006b), who proposes an abstract phonological level of representation directly reflecting the pronunciation of the spelling of the word (i.e., an orthographically influenced phonological representation or "OIP"). For example, the word corn is represented at the OIP level with a post-vocalic r (i.e., /korn/) even for non-rhotic speakers of English who do not pronounce the postvocalic r [kɔːn]. The evidence comes from the fact that non-rhotic English speakers find it hard to recognize the homophony of a pseudohomophone that conflicts with its base word in terms of a post-vocalic r (Taft, 2006). For example, many non-rhotic speakers do not realize cawn is homophonic with corn unless they read it aloud. This implies that the representation of or and aw do not match in the underlying phonological system, and only coincide at the surface phonetic level.

As mentioned before, most research studies show the mediation of phonological knowledge in orthographic knowledge in word recognition and meaning retrieval. However, when it comes to learning new words in L2, the nature of interaction between the two systems might be questioned. Do L2 learners pay attention to the orthographic representation and use it as a cue for learning new words and their meaning retrieval later, especially when there is no one to one relationship between the phonological and orthographic representation? The issue is worth studying as research shows the mediation of phonological knowledge in word recognition and meaning retrieval in many cases. In fact, the question would be if orthography can be an important factor in learning new words in L2 and if the discrepancy between the phonological and orthographic knowledge can make a difference. In a nutshell, this study will provide grounds for investigating whether it is better to teach the spelling of new words along with the phonological representation when there is a discrepancy between the two. The following research questions are addressed in this study.

1.Do differences in grapheme-phoneme representation of pseudowords, having a silent letter, help learners to recall the meaning of pseudowords better and faster?

2.Do differences in grapheme-phoneme representation of pseudowords, having a wrong letter, help learners to recall the meaning of pseudowords better and faster?

2. Methodology

2.1 Participants

Twenty pre-IELTS male and female students who were studying English at Danesh Pajouhan institute in Esfahan, Iran, were selected to take part in the study. Then they were divided into two groups respectively called Incongruent Silent-letter and Incongruent Wrong-letter. They were native speakers of Persian and their knowledge of English was limited to the courses they studied in language institutes and universities. Furthermore, they never had exposure to English in natural settings.

2.2 Materials

This experiment contained two phases: 1- studying phase and 2- testing phase.

2.2.1 Studying Phase

A list of 17 pseudowords with a bysillabic structure CVCV(C) containing phonemes that exist in English was selected. They were produced by Wuggy Generator Software. Each pseudoword was assigned a specific picture in order to make it meaningful. They were presented through the Power Point software (2013) such that each picture was displaying simultaneously with its written form and its pronunciation. Three kinds of items were used in the study phase (Table 1):

(A)6 congruent items with regular phoneme-grapheme correspondency (e.g. the spoken form [roudət], the written form <Rodat>, picture of panda), (B) 6 incongruent items with a silent-letter in written forms (e.g., the spoken word [bʌntIl], the written form <Butil>, picture of apple), and (C)6 incongruent items carrying a wrong phoneme or letter in their written form (e.g. the spoken word [fɑʃəm], the written form <Fɑzam>, picture of cabbage). The pseudowords were presented in three different orders to counterbalance the order of presentation: WSC (Wrong letter, Silent letter, and Congruent letters), SWC and CSW.

Table 1 Written Label Types for the Incongruent/congruent items

Written Label Type	Description	Examples
Congruent (n=6)	Congruent with English spelling conventions	<ramper>, /ræmpər/;
Incongruent-Silent-Letter	The written words contain a	<butil>,/bʌntIl/;
(n=5)	"silent" letter; the spelled sequence<nt>mapped to /t/ ,<lt> mapped to /t/; <db> mapped to /b/, and <sk> mapped to /k/	<cobeet>,/cʌdbi:t/; <pikil>, /pIskIl/
Incongruent-Wrong-Letter (n=6)	The written forms contain a mismatch between a letter and phoneme; the letter <ʃ> mapped to/z /,<v> mapped to/l/, <tʃ> mapped to /d/, and <ʃ> mapped to/f/, <p> mapped to /n/, <t> mapped to /z/	<fazam>, /faːʃəm/; <pooler>, /puːvər/; <bafel>, /bæʃəl/

2.2.2 Testing Phase

Two different tests were used 1- criterion test and 2- meaning recall test which are briefly discussed below:

2.2.2.1. Criterion test

In order to see whether the participants learned 90% of the words they received during the study phase, they got the criterion test. If they were not able to achieve 90% accuracy, they needed to go through the study phase again. Each Picture in this test was presented two times: once with a matched name and once with a different name.

2.2.2.2. Meaning recall test

Meaning recall test was given to the participants to see if they were able to recall the meaning of words taught to them in the study phase. The test was an auditory word-picture matching test that was like the criterion test previously mentioned in which participants judged a spoken word on the basis of its correct label in each picture. Seventeen pairs were mismatched, six of which were congruent spelling items where congruent words were paired with wrong pictures. New auditory stimuli were prepared for the remaining 12 mismatched items: there were auditory words representing the incongruent spelled forms presented during training in study phase (e.g., auditory [b^ntil] and [fazəm], see Table 2). They were paired with their corresponding pictures (e.g., auditory [b^ntil] with a picture of an apple) to form six mismatched incongruent-silent-letter items and six mismatched incongruent-extra-letter items.

Table 2 *Example of Mismatched and Mismatched Listening Test Items*

Stimulus condition	Auditory word at test	Picture	Trained auditory word written form(s)
MATCHED between picture and auditory label			
Congruent	[roudət]	Panda	[roudət] Rodat
Incongruent-Silent-letter	[b^ntil]	Apple	[b^ntil] buntil/butil
Incongruent-wrong-letter	[fɑʃəm]	Cabbage	[fɑʃəm] fasham/fazam
MISMATCHED between picture and auditory label			
Congruent	[roudət]	Panda	[roudət] Rodat
Incongruent-Silent-letter	[b^til]	Apple	[b^ntil] buntil/butil
Incongruent-wrong-letter	[fɑzəm]	Cabbage	[fɑʃəm] fasham/fazam

Incongruent-silent-letter pairs were predicted to be as difficult as the incongruent-wrong-letter pairs. As mentioned before, in both types of incongruent mismatched items, pictures were paired with labels that sounded similar to the written labels but different from the labels heard in the study phase.

2.3. Procedure

The participants received the study phase, criterion test and meaning recall test in the same order in a quiet room. The instructions appeared on the screen and participants heard the presented words through their headphones while the pictures indicating their meanings were being displayed on the computer screen. The Word Power point (2013) and the DMDX software were used for the presentation of materials in the study and testing phases respectively. In the testing phases, the participants were asked to determine if each picture matched the pseudoword they heard in the study phase by pressing the *Right Shift* button (if they totally matched) and the *Left Shift* botton (if they did not match) on the computer keyboard.

3. Results

The following issues were considered in data analysis. RTs were measured from target offset in millisecond. Missing data ranged from 0 to 9 (20.15% of data for each item). One of the participants made more than 20% errors. Therefore she was replaced with another one. Regarding the items, learners made about 34.8% errors on item 128 and 47.8% errors on item 134. Therefore, these two items were discarded from further analysis. The discarded items were *pooler* and *moler* and it seems that the similarity of phonemes in their place of articulation and number of phonemes might have confused the participants when processing these items.

First, the results of data analysis regarding accuracy of responses and then those related to reaction times are presented. All analyses (accuracy and reaction times) were based on correct responses while incorrect responses were ignored. The paired samples *t* test was used to compare the performance of the participants on each item type. The following table (3) shows the descriptive statistics related to the items.

Table 3: Descriptive Statistics of Wrong-Letter and Silent-Letter

Paired Samples Statistics

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1 mismatcched wrong letter	.7950	20	.18418	.04118
mismatched silent letter	.8200	20	.19358	.04329

As it is shown in table (3) Comparing the mean scores shows that participants were more accurate on silent letters. However, this difference is not statistically significant as the following table (4) shows.

Table 4: Paired Sample t Test Between Wrong-Letter and Silent-Letter Groups

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences							Sig. (2-tailed)
					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper	t	df	
Pair 1	mismatcched wrong letter - mismatched silent letter	-.025	.24198	.05411	-.13825	.08825	-.46	19	.649

From the table (4), it can be concluded that the mean difference is not significant, *t* (19) =.46, *p* >.649. In the next table (5) RTs were compared.

Table 5: Statistics Difference in RTs Between Wrong-Letter and Silent-Letter

Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	mismatched wrong letter	2552.6749	20	205.70483	45.99700
	mismatched silent letter	2542.2061	20	257.83000	57.65254

The table (5) shows that the mean scores are not very much different from each other. To see the means were statistically significant the paired sample t test was run as seen in table (6) below.

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences							
				Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
		Mean	Std. Deviation		Lower	Upper	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1	mismatched wrong letter - mismatched silent letter	10.46879	186.34233	41.66741	-76.74210	97.67969	.251	19	.804

The *t* test run on the mean scores shows no significant difference between the means, indicating that both item types were processed at the same speed, $t(19) = .251$, $p>.05$.

4. Discussion

The aim of this study was to determine whether different types of grapheme–phoneme correspondence mismatches (e.g., adding a "silent" letter, and having a wrong letter) influenced learners' memory of the phonological forms of words and their processing rates. To this end, 20 Persian speaking learners of English were given 17 pseudowords to study and learn. For each item, the spoken form, the written form, and a picture showing its meaning were presented simultaneously. The items were of three types: one type based on regular English phoneme-grapheme correspondency, another type having a silent letter, and the third type having a wrong letter. The participants were later tested on their memory of the meaning of pseudowords in an auditory picture-matched test. Paired samples *t* tests were used to analyze the data. The results showed no significant difference between the performances on each type, neither for accuracy nor for processing time.

The results of the study are in contrast to Hayes-Harbs et al (2010), who found that orthographic representations can be part of the memory of the phonological forms of the words when the discrepancy involves a mismatch in a letter's phonemic correspondent. This effect was observed only for wrong letter items and not silent letters. They attributed the lack of detrimental effect of silent letters to greater familiarity of native speakers with them. More research studies are required to shed light on this matter, as having a wrong letter is not unfamiliar to native speakers of English either. Hayes-Habs et al.'s study was conducted with native speakers of English, so the difference can be attributed to the participants. It seems that for Persian speakers learners of English both types are the same and neither can be different in any way from the other.

Attempting to show if the presentation of written form could affect the memory of the new words in L2 for speakers of Persian, a language with a different script from English, Masoumzadeh (2014) compared items with a silent letter and items with a wrong letter with congruent items separately. He found that performance on

memory test for the phonological labels of pseudowords was slowed down but no change was observed in terms of accuracy. He used the findings to conclude that second language learners whose first language has a different script do not use the written form accompanying the auditory label when learning new words.

On the basis of the findings, it seems that L2 learners do not pay a lot of attention to the spelling form of new words. One reason might be the limited capacity of working memory and the issue that simultaneous attention to both spoken and written forms is more demanding for L2 learners. Another reason can be lesser importance they give to spelling and priority they give to auditory labels as a clue to the meaning of new words.

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Assessment of Food Vendors' Status in Secondary Schools in Ondo State Nigeria

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Abstract

This study examined the food vendors' status in Ondo State Nigeria. A total of 11 food vendors in rural and 21 food vendors in urban areas were selected from secondary schools using accidental sampling technique. Descriptive research method was used for the study. A self structured questionnaire thoroughly validated by experts in the field was used for the study. The data collected were analyzed using simple percentages and inferential statistics. The results of the study revealed that majority of the respondents 16 (50.1%) and 8 (25%) had primary six certificates and illiterates respectively, majority of the respondents 17 (43.1%) and 12 (37.5%) respondents said seminar/workshop was sometimes and rarely organized for them, they rarely went for medical check up respectively, and foods were prepared in the food vendors' residence. The environmental health inspectors never visited the schools to see the quality of food. It was recommended that the food vendors should be educated to understand the risks in contaminated foods, medical check up and workshop/seminar to be organized, and the foods to be prepared in school premises.

Keywords: Assessment; Food vendors; Secondary Schools; Environmental Health Inspectors; Medical Check Up; Workshop/Seminar; Mid Day Meal; Educational Background

Introduction

The need for hygiene practice of food vendors in schools is predominantly important with particular reference to the health of the students. These students are the nation builders of tomorrow so their life should not be in jeopardy. Food safety is a corporate social responsibility as food is a product where consumption is not just a matter of choice, but is ultimately a matter of life and death (Peattie, 2006). Fidel (2005) defined food vendors as people who prepare food at home and are being consumed in the school without further preparation, food vended are the source of affordable food for student. But foods served in schools do not often meet proper hygienic standard, because of inadequate food safety laws, lack of financial resources to invest in safer equipment, and lack of education enlighten for food-handlers. Food handlers are very important people when considering food safety. Their hygiene practices affect a larger part of the population who depend on them for their meals (Addo, Mensah, Bonsu and Ayeh 2007).

According to Musa and Akande (2003) food vending business assures food security for students at school and provides a livelihood for a large number of people who would otherwise be unable to establish a business for want of capital. In a study carried out by Musa and Akande (2003) majority of the vendors (56.8%) had no formal education and less than 40% of the total respondents had any form of training on food hygiene, while the authors found a low level of involvement of under-aged food vendors in educational schools in Ilorin, Nigeria In a study conducted by Agyei, and Owusu (2013) it was observed that the (5%) food vendors had at

least primary school education, almost half of them (48.0%) attaining senior high school (SHS) education and (37.0%) attaining junior high school (JHS) education. According to Addo, et al (2007,) most food vendors have barely any formal education. Food vendors below 18 years were not found in the educational institutions since the school authorities regard it as a form of child labour (Monney, Agyei, and Owusu 2013).

Medical examination of food handlers according to FAO (2009) and WHO (1996), is necessary if causes or transmission or observation of diseases or medical treatment are indicated. This can help to ban people with infectious diseases from food handling. All the same, as a form of precaution, Section 286 of the Criminal Code, (Amendment) Act, 2003 (Act 646) of Ghana charges all food vendors to be examined to ensure they do not infect consumers with communicable diseases. In a study conducted by Monney, Agyei, and Owusu (2013), 68% of the vendors had been medically examined, out of which 95% showed their certificates as evidence during the study while the remaining 5% could not readily produce their certificate at the time of the interview. Odugbemi (1992) claimed that most authorities in developing countries still emphasize medical examination as a pre-requisite for people to be engaged in food trade.

Medical examinations of food handling personnel are valid only for the time at which they came out and therefore is valueless if it is not backed up with periodic medical examination or re-examination of vendors reporting ill (Abdul-Salam and Kaferstein 1993,WHO.1989, WHO.1980). In Nigeria, the National Agency for Food Drug Agency (NAFDAC) has done a lot in relation to drugs, yet, there exists a huge vacuum in monitoring food vendors. Demands for accurate data and monitoring and evaluation from national statistical agencies and food and drug regulators are also expected, and would help raise and maintain the standard (Agbanyim 2011).

Food and Agricultural Organization (2008) explained that people are often discouraged about eating school prepared foods due to uncleanness and non freshness of the food resulting from the food vendors. According to Asiedu (2000), the hygienic ways of promoting health through prevention of human contact with hazardous wastes is sanitation. Food handlers in schools need to be frankly supervised so as to handle food in hygienic ways. In a survey conducted in the Regional Capital of Ghana by Tomlins, Johnson, Aseidu, Myhara and Greenhalgh, (2002), it was reported that most consumers did not associate poor hygiene with illness. This showed the low level of awareness in term of enlightenment among consumers on potential diseases that one might contact when cleanliness is not practiced Ababio, and Adi,(2012).

Okuneye (2005), stressed that major stakeholders should draw public attention to the numerous issues that surround quality and safety of school vended food by carefully educating our school food vendors and environmental health workers on these issues. According to Akinbode (2005), school foods businesses have become common and important features of urban towns in many developing countries including Nigeria. Food can be said to be safe when it contains no hazardous substance that could be injurious to health (Wallace, 2006 and Codex Alimentarius, 2009). According to Osei and Duker, (2008), Africa alone accounts for 90% of cholera cases worldwide. The important factors contributing to food borne related diseases are considered to be very important, this can be attributed to no educational background they have and hence have low understanding of food safety issues (Mensah et al, 1999).

The lives of the students should be of vital significance to the society, because they are the builders of tomorrow. Therefore we can not afford to toil with their lives. It is therefore very important to identify and examine the food vendors' status in secondary schools in rural and urban areas of Ondo State.

Research Questions
1.What is the level of educational background of the food vendors in the secondary schools?
2.How often is the seminars/workshop organized for food vendors?
3.How often do the food vendors go for medical test or medical check up?

4.Where do the food vendors prepare the mid day meal for the student's consumption in the school premises?

5.How often do the environmental sanitary inspectors visit the school to inspect the quality of food prepared for the students' consumption in the school premises?

2.Research Hypothesis

Hypothesis1. There is no significant difference between where the food vendors prepare the mid day meal for the student's consumption in the rural and urban schools.

3. Methodology

This study utilized descriptive research method. The study was conducted using 14 food vendors from rural area and 18 food vendors from urban areas making a total number of 32 respondents from Ondo State using convenient sampling technique. A self developed questionnaire on hygiene status of food vendors in secondary schools tagged (HSFVSS) was used. The questionnaire was designed to elicit information on the areas of the research questions and one hypothesis. To ensure that the instrument was valid and good enough, three experts from the university validated the instrument. A test- retest reliability coefficient of 0.75 was recorded. The respondents were required to indicate whether they agreed or disagreed with the listed items. The researcher administered the questionnaire personally and collected them immediately. Data collected were analyzed using frequency count, simple percentages and t-test analysis at 0.05 level of significance using t-test statistics.

Table 1: **Frequency of age distribution by location**

School	No of Respondents %	AGES				
		21-25	26-30	31-35	36-40	40 Above
Urban	21(65.5)	01 (3.1)	07 (21.9)	10(31.2)	01(3.1)	02(6.3)
Rural	11(34.5)	0 (0)	04(12.5)	05(15.6)	01(3.1)	01(3.1)
Total	32 (100)	01 (3.1)	11(34.4)	15(46.9)	02 (6.3)	03(9.4)

Research Questions 1

What is the level of educational background of the food vendors in the secondary schools?

Table 2: Frequency and percentage analysis of educational background level of food vendors in the secondary schools

Educational background	Rural %	Urban %
No Education/illiterate	04 (12.5)	04(12.5)
Primary six certificate	06 (18.8)	10 (31.3)
Junior Secondary school certificate	01 (3.1)	06 (18.8)
Senior Secondary school certificate	0(0)	01(3.1)
School Certificate examination result	0 (0)	0 (0)
Higher Education certificate	0(0)	0(0)

Table 2 showed that a total of 6 (18.8%) respondents in rural and 10 (31.3%) respondents from urban areas signified that they had primary six certificate, 04 (12.5%) respondents from rural and 04 (12.5%) respondents from urban identified that they were illiterates, a total of 01 (3.1%) respondents from rural and 6 (18.8%) from urban areas had Junior Secondary school certificate, only 01 (3.1%) respondents from urban areas had Senior Secondary school certificate.

Research Questions 2

How often is the seminars/workshop organized for food vendors?

Table3: Frequency and Percentage analysis of how often is the seminar/workshop organize for food vendors.

No	How often is the seminars/workshop organized for food vendors?	Always	Sometimes	Rarely	Never %
1.	Rural (11)	0 (0)	04 (12.5 %)	05 (15.6%)	02 (6.3%)
2.	Urban (21)	0 (0)	13 (40.6%)	07 (21.9%)	01 (3.1%)

Table 3 showed that no respondent from both rural and urban areas signified that Seminar/workshop was always organized for the food vendors, a total of 04 (12.5%) respondents from the rural and 13 (40.6%) respondents from the urban signified that seminar/workshop was sometimes organized for the food vendors. A total of 05 (15.6 %) respondents from the rural and 07(21.9%) respondents from the urban identified that Seminar/workshop was rarely organized for food vendors, while 02(6.3%) respondents from the rural and 01(3.1%) respondent from the urban areas identified that Seminar/workshop was never organized for food vendors.

Research Question 3

How often do the food vendors go for medical test/ medical check up?

Table 4: Frequency and Percentage analysis of how often the food vendors go for medical test or medical check up by location

No	The food vendors do go for medical test/ check up	Always%	Sometimes%	Rarely%	Never%
1.	Rural (11)	0(0%)	2 (6.3%)	6(18.7%)	3(9.4%)
2.	Urban (21)	0(0%)	5(15.6%)	14(43.8%)	2(6.3%)

Table 4 showed that none of the respondents both from rural and urban areas indicated that the food vendors always go for medical test/ check up, a total of 02(6.3%) respondents from rural and 05(15.6%) respondents from the urban areas identified that the food vendors sometimes went for medical test/ check up, a total of 06(18.7%) respondents from the rural and 14(43.8%) respondents from the urban areas signified that the food vendors rarely went for medical test/ check up. While 03(9.4%) respondents from the rural and 02(6.3%) respondents from the urban areas indicated that the food vendors never went for medical test/ check up.

Research Question 4:

Where do the food vendors prepare the mid day meal for the student's consumption in the school?

Table 5: Frequency and percentage analysis of where the food vendors prepare the mid day meal for the student's consumption in the school.

Variable	Always	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
The mid day meal is prepared at home and bought to the school premises.				
Rural 11	**11 (34.4%)**	**0 0%**	**0 0%**	**0 0%**
Urban 12	**16 (50%)**	**0 0%**	**0 0%**	**5 15.6%**
The mid day meal is prepared in the school premises	**Always**	**Sometimes**	**Rarely**	**Never**
Rural 1 1	**0 0%**	**0 0%**	**0 0%**	**11 (34.4%)**
Urban 2 1	**5 (15.6%)**	**0 0%**	**0 0%**	**16 (50%)**

Table 5 showed that 11(34.4%) respondents from the rural and 16(50%) respondents from the urban areas indicated that the mid day meal was prepared at home and bought to the school premises, no respondent from both the rural and urban areas ever identified that the food vendors sometimes and rarely the mid day meal was prepared at home and bought to the school premises. while no respondent from the rural and 5 (15.6%) signified that the mid day meal was never prepared at home and brought to the school premises. It was further seen that 11(34.4%) respondents from rural and 16 (50%) respondents' areas said that the mid day meal was never prepared in the school premises, while 5 (15.6%) respondents from urban areas said the mid day meal was always prepared in the school premises

Research Questions 5:

How often do the environmental health officers/ inspectors visit the school to inspect the quality of food prepare for the students' consumption in the school premises?

Table 6; Frequency and percentage analysis of how often do the environmental health officers/ inspectors inspect the quality of Food prepare for the students' consumption in the school premises.

NO	The environmental health officers/ inspectors do inspect the quality of Food prepared for the students' consumption.	Always%	Sometimes%	Rarely %	Never %
1.	Rural (11)	**0 (0%)**	**03 (9.4%)**	**05(15.6%)**	**03 (9.4%)**
2.	Urban (21)	**0 (0%)**	**04(12.5%)**	**15 (46.9%)**	**2 (6.3%)**

Table 6 showed that none of the respondents in the rural and urban areas identified that environmental health officers/ inspector were always in the school to inspect the food prepared by the food vendors, 03 (9.4%) respondent in the rural and 04(12.5%) respondents in the urban areas said that environmental health officers/ inspectors sometimes come to school to inspect the food prepared by the food vendors, a total of 05(15.6%)

respondents in the rural and 15(46.9%) respondents in the urban areas identified that environmental health officers/ inspectors rarely come to the school to inspect the food prepared by the food vendors, while a total of 03(9.4%) respondents in the rural and 2 (6.3%) respondents indicated that health officers/ inspector never came to the school to inspect the food prepared by the food vendors.

Hypothesis1. This is no significant difference where the food vendors prepare the mid day meal for the student's consumption in the rural and urban schools.

Table 7: t-test analysis of where the food vendors prepare the mid day meal for the student's consumption in the school by location.

Location	mean	n	sd	df	cal-t	table-t	decision	
Rural	1.29	14	0.45	30	0.22		1.70	Not significant
Urban	1.47	18	0.31					

Table 7 showed that the calculated t-value at 0.05 level of significance and 30 df was 0.22, since 0.22 < 1.70 a and t 0.05 level of significance, hence the null hypothesis of no difference was accepted. This indicated that there was no significant difference of where the food vendors prepare the mid day meal for the student's consumption in the school by location.

4.Discussion of Findings

The study sought to find out the food vendors' status in secondary schools, their level of educational background, how often the seminars/workshop is organized for food vendors, the medical test or medical check up, inspection of the quality of food prepared for the students' consumption and where the mid day meal for the students' consumption is prepared.

The study revealed that the highest educational background level among these food vendors was 16 (50.1%) primary six school certificate, 8(25%) illiterates while only 7 (21.9%) respondents had junior secondary school certificate. This showed that their level of educational background was very low. This corroborates with the findings of Addo, et al (2007) which states that most food vendors have barely any formal education, and the study carried out by Musa and Akande (2003) which stated that majority of the vendors (56.8%) had no formal education and that the food vendors could be alleged to be a potential threat to food safety due to their low educational background.

It was revealed that 17 (43.1%) respondents said seminar/workshop was sometimes organized for the food vendors, while 12 (37.5%) respondents said seminar/workshop was rarely organized for the food vendors, which serves as a form of training for food vendors. This is in line with the study carried out by Musa and Akande (2003) which stated that less than 40% of the total respondents had any form of training on food hygiene.

The study also revealed that 20 (62.5%) respondents said they rarely went for medical test/ check up. It showed that the food vendors did not usually go medical test/check up. This finding disagreed with Odugbemi (1992) who claimed that most authorities in developing countries still emphasize medical examination as a pre-requisite for people to be engaged in food trade, it contradicts the study conducted by Monney, Agyei, and Owusu (2013), which stated that 68% of the vendors had been medically examined, out of which 95% showed their certificates as evidence during the study and Abdul-Salam M. and Kaferstein F. K. (1993),WHO.(1989), and WHO.(1980) which stated that Medical examinations of food handling

personnel are valid only for the time at which they came out and therefore is valueless if it is not backed up with periodic medical examination or re-examination of vendors reporting ill.

In the findings, it was revealed that the mid day meal was prepared at home and bought to the school premises. When food is prepared at home and brought to school premises for student's consumption, it is likely that the food is not prepared in a hygienically way and clean environment thereby contacting germs which are deleterious to human health. Therefore when food is prepared in the school environment there is the tendency for thorough supervision from the teachers or whosoever is in charge of health / sanitation or students welfare in the school. This is in line with the statement of Agbanyim (2011) who stated that in Nigeria, the National Agency for Food Drug Agency (NAFDAC) has done a lot in relation to drugs yet; there exists a huge vacuum in monitoring food vendors.

It was also observed that Health officers/ inspectors did not come to the school to inspect the food prepared by the food vendor. This is contrary to Asiedu (2000) who concluded the Food handlers in institutions such as schools need to be closely supervised to ensure that they handle food in most hygienic ways.

5.Conclusion

Based of the data analyses and findings, the following conclusions were drawn:

Many of the food vendors had primary six school leaving certificate, and illiterates, while some of them had junior secondary school certificate.

The seminars/workshop was sometimes organized for food vendors in other to train them

It was also seen that the food vendors rarely went for medical test/ check up.

The environmental health officers/ inspectors never came to school to inspect the food prepared by the food vendor, but few respondents said the environmental health officers/ inspectors sometimes came for the food inspection prepared by food vendors.

Finally, the mid day meal was prepared at home and bought to the school premises.

6. Recommendations

Based on the research findings of this study, the following recommendations were made:

1.The minimum qualification for the food vendors should be Junior Secondary School Certificate or West African Examination Council result, so that they can be able to read and write and to have understanding of the risks in contaminated foods.

2.The health officers/inspectors should always visit schools to inspect the quality of food served in the school for the students' consumption.

3.The food vendors should be mandated by the government and the school authority/ parent teachers association to:-

   a) Prepare the food in the school premises.

   b) Go for medical test/ medical check up.

4.Finally the 3tier of government should be involved in organizing workshop/seminar very often to train the food vendors on essential values of food safety.

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Trends in Examination Malpractice in Nigerian Educational System and its Effects on the Socio-Economic and Political Development of Nigeria

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Abstract

This paper examined the trends and effects of examination malpractice at various levels of Nigerian educational system. The methods, causes and strategies towards curbing examination malpractice were discussed. Factors such as moral decadence, emphasis on paper qualification, inadequate teaching/learning facilities encouraging examination malpractice were discussed. The effects of this vice such as dismissal, loss of position, self confidence and credibility were identified among others. Therefore the paper recommends intensified continuous assessment, severe penalties for culprits, counselling of moral values not only to students, but also to parents, supervisors, teachers, invigilators, computer operators and other stakeholders to minimize examination malpractice.

Keywords: Examination malpractice; Educational system; Causes; Strategies

1.Introduction

Examination malpractice is not a new phenomenon in Nigeria. Maduemezia (1998) reported that the first examination malpractice in Nigeria occurred in 1914 during the Senior Cambridge Local Examination papers which were leaked before the scheduled date of examination. Thus, examination malpractice which started at a low trend became more pronounced in 1970, involving persons other than the candidates. Since then examination malpractice became more advanced and sophisticated. However, 1977 marked a watershed in the history of examination malpractice as there was an outcry in Nigeria on the credibility of West African Examination Council (WAEC), which was the only organ saddled with the responsibility of conducting public examination in Nigeria. Consequently, a Judicial Commission of enquiry headed by Justice Sogbetun was set up to look into the affairs of the WAEC in relation to the problems of efficient conduct of examinations and prompt release of results. The report acknowledged the excessive workload of WAEC and recommended reduction of its workload by establishing other examination bodies to take over some of its examinations.

Examination is defined as a formal test of one's knowledge or ability in a particular subject especially by means of answering questions or practical exercises. Therefore, it is through examination that students are evaluated or tested to find out the quality of knowledge they have acquired within a specific period. Thus, examination could be either internal, external, oral, written or both. Continuous assessment scores, terminal,

semester, annual or promotion examinations are examples of internal examinations. (Benard,1988). The external (public) examinations include Common Entrance Examinations for admission into Secondary Schools, School Certificate Examinations which are conducted by West African Examination Council (WAEC), National Examination Council (NECO). The Joint Admission and Matriculation Board (JAMB) now conduct the Unified Tertiary Matriculation Examination (UTME). The National Teachers' Institute (NTI), National Business and Technical Examination Board (NABTEB) conduct examinations for teachers and technicians respectively.

Although students' performance in examination may not be the true reflection of their ability, till date however, examination still remains the best tool for an objective assessment and evaluation of what a learner has achieved after a period of schooling/training. In fact, it is one of the most reliable indicators used to determine the extent of students' performance in a given training.

Awanbor (2004) therefore, defined examination malpractice as an illegal act committed by a single student or in collaboration with others like fellow students, parents, teachers, supervisors, invigilators, computer operators or secretarial staff and anybody or group of people before, during, or after examination in order to obtain undeserved marks or grades.

2. Trends in Examination Malpractice

Over the years, the conduct of examinations by WAEC, NECO, and JAMB have been trailed with complaints of examination malpractices and various organizational, administrative and bureaucratic irregularities. These problems have become perennial and institutionalized and reflect a gradual decline on the quality of Nigeria's educational system. In fact examination malpractice has attained a frightening, sophisticated proportion and has become so widespread that there is virtually no examination anywhere at all levels within and outside the formal school system that has not experienced one form of malpractice or the other. The incidences of examination malpractice are common everywhere and every examination season witnesses the emergence of new ingenious way of cheating.

The former Minister of Education, Prof. Ruqqayatu Ahmed Rufa'i, at her keynote address delivered at the National Examination Summit held in Abuja on the 24th May, 2010 presented an increasing trend in cases of examination malpractice in WAEC SSCE between 2005-2009 (Table 1). In addition, she reported that NECO in its 2009 Nov./Dec. Examination recorded malpractice cases of over 263,000 and over one million cases in the 2009 June/July schools examination.

TABLE 1: Candidates involved in malpractice cases in WAEC SSCE (2005-2009) (Ruqqayatu, 2010)

YEAR	NO. OF CANDIDATES INVOLVED	%
2005	73,050	6.86
2006	82,941	7.19
2007	74,734	5.97
2008	100,428	7.88
2009	118,608	8.74

Furthermore, WAEC in 2011 withheld 39,066 results of candidates who wrote November/December West African Senior School Certificate Examination (WASSCE) while in 2012, 47,289 results were withheld as a result of malpractices.

In 2006, the Federal Ministry of Education (FME) blacklisted and derecognized 324 secondary schools across the nation as centres for conducting public examination from 2007 to 2010(Table 2).

Table 2: Examination Malpractice in Nigerian Secondary Schools (Weekend Times, 2007)

GEO-POLITICAL ZONE	NO. OF SCHOOLS INVOLVED	%
North-Central	54	16.6
North –East	08	2.5
North –West	12	3.6
South-East	48	14.8
South-South	116	36.0
South-West	86	26.5
Total	**324**	**100.00**

The statistics above revealed that those involved in examination malpractice have increased over the years compared to the record of previous years.

3. Methods of Examination Malpractice

In recent times, examination malpractice has gone from simple 'giraffing' where students occasionally stretch their necks to catch glimpse of what they want to copy from other students' scripts to a variety of sophisticated ones. These include; (a) use of 'Micro-chip'; writing very tiny summaries on pieces of paper, parts of the body, or on materials found within the venue. (b) sorting'; in which students negotiate with corrupt lecturers for scores by rewarding' the lecturers in cash or kind (c) ECOMOG/ECOWAS/OAU'; which is an alliance among classmates, to communicate via coded language (d)Handheld smart devices such as modern cell phones.

The West African Examination Council in over sixty years of her existence has been able to detect various forms of malpractice perpetrated by candidates and their accomplices in its examinations. They include (a) bringing foreign materials into the examination, (b) Irregular activities inside or outside examination hall, (c) Collusion, (d) Impersonation,(e) Fore-knowledge of examination questions, (f)Leakage of question papers traceable to the printing press or other persons associated with the custody of the papers, (g)mass cheating and (h) Insult/ Assault on supervisors/ invigilators /inspectors by candidates (Nwadiani,2005).

It is clear from the various forms of examination malpractice that it is not limited to the time and place of examination. In fact malpractices occur either before, during or after examination. One important example of pre-examination malpractice is in the process of registering candidates for examinations. Ojerinde (2004), reported that one of the commonest forms is the registration of non-school candidates for school examination by Principals in spite of very clear instructions against this practice. What they do is to register candidates who are

not in SS3 (the final years), often referred to as private candidates. Many of such candidates who are from the urban areas, prefer to register in less urban centres (aka miracle centres) where monitoring is not likely to be strict. These candidates do not have any record of continuous assessment which is a compulsory requirement for Secondary School Certificate Examination (SSCE). The Principals falsify continuous assessment results for the candidates depending on how much money the candidates they can afford.

Another aspect of pre-examination malpractice is that some Principals inflate the continuous assessment of their regular candidates which is likely to increase the number of passes in the school. They do this to present fantastic information about the school as one of the best schools in order to be in good book of the Ministry of Education (Gbenga, 2005).

The introduction of the Global System for Mobile communication (GSM) in the country has revolutionized examination malpractice in the school system. The emergence of these technological devices has provided the candidates new methods of cheating during examination. A lot of academic information is now stored in these electronic devices for direct use in examination halls or for onward transfer via Short Message Service(SMS) to other students anywhere in the country. This way, a candidate can smuggle out a question paper especially the objective test to the mercenary outside the examination hall who could text correct option to candidates inside. This could be done without attracting much attention. Post examination malpractices include such activities occurring after examination, for example, candidates tracing their paper to marking centres. In other cases a candidate could trace his paper, for e.g. from Enugu to Kano, and another from Kano to Ibadan. Some examiners also could trace the candidate if they know how influential the parents of such a candidate are. In extreme cases, some candidates especially girls enclose money and photographs describing how they could be traced in case their papers happen to be handled by men considered to be moral perverts. In higher institutions, post examination malpractice could take the form of lobbying the examiners for marks by begging and sending close friends and senior colleagues to the examiner to be lenient while marking, while on the other hand some lecturers go to the extent of changing marks for reasons best known to them.

4.Factors Encouraging Examination Malpractice

The root causes of examination malpractice in Nigeria include the following:

1.Nigeria has a deplorable value system, therefore immoral acts such as cheating, dishonesty including embezzlement and stealing of public funds and properties do not attract the condemnation and punishment they deserve.

2.The emphasis on paper qualification or certificate is another cause of examination malpractice. Nigeria's educational system places so much value and emphasis on certificate instead of knowledge, skills and competence. The effects of this cankerworm can be seen in many school leavers who cannot defend their certificates. This is why examination malpractices are increasing day after day for the rush to get paper qualification for jobs without the right skills to perform. The emphasis on certificates over skills and competence is so pronounced, prompting remarks by former President Obasanjo that students perceived education only as a means of getting a meal ticket and getting a job. The former President had argued that such

perception or orientation must change so that students would appreciate the intrinsic value of education, which is the total development of the individual to be able to make meaningful contribution to the society.

3.Another major cause of examination malpractice is inadequate teaching and learning facilities such as classrooms, libraries, laboratories and even teachers compared to the population of students. These inadequate resources affect effective teaching and learning.

4.Other students' vices such as cultism, drug abuse, sexual promiscuity and truancy are also encouraging examination malpractice on our campuses as students devote more time to them than their studies.

5.Moral upbringing of some of the youths by parents has been very poor. In most cases parents pay mercenaries to write exams for their wards, children. There are reports that parents sometimes influence WAEC, NECO to even relocate their children to new schools considered to be less strict in search of miracles during exams.

6.Lack of confidence as a result of inadequate preparation. These days, students are no longer hard working and dedicated towards their academic endeavours. No matter what, a student who is not well prepared would cheat in examination hall in order to pass.

7.Students nowadays are characterized by quick emphasis on success and wealth without a corresponding emphasis on legitimate means and avenues to be used positively in achieving such success.

8.Others include;

(a)low moral standard in schools (b) peer/ societal influence,

(c)incessant strikes, (d) admission of unqualified candidates

5.Strategies Towards Curbing Examination Malpractice

The Federal Military Government in its bid to curb examination malpractice promulgated Decree 20 of 1984 part of which reads thus:

Any person who fraudulently or with intent to cheat or secure any unfair advantage to himself or any other person or in abuse of his office, produces, sells or buys or otherwise deals with any question paper intended for the examination of persons at any examination or commits any of the offences specified in section 3 (27) (c) of this decree, shall be guilty of an offence and on conviction be sentenced to 21 years imprisonment·

However, Examination /Malpractice Act 33 of 1999 reversed the above decree but stipulates punishment ranging from a fine of N50, 000 to N100, 000 and imprisonment for a term of 3-4 years with or without option of fine. This development was due to the inability of appropriate authorities to enforce the old decree 20. Despite the provision of this law, examination malpractice has been on the increase and this is partly due to non-implementation of the law. Disturbed by increasing trend of this criminal act, the Federal Government at her Executive Council meeting held on 4/9/13 approved a proposal to amend the West African Examination Council(WAEC) Act for culprits to spend five(5) years in jail or pay a fine of N250,000

Besides Decree 20 of 1984 and later Act 33 of 1999 aimed at minimizing examination malpractice; WAEC has also embarked on public campaigns on effects of examination malpractice, the punishments attached to such offences using handbills, posters, jingles; seminars and workshops. NECO also conducted similar campaigns at

various times. A Non-Government Organization (NGO) known as Exam Ethics project has been working tirelessly in fighting examination malpractice.

All along Government and NGOs have taken measures to minimise examination malpractice and these include;

(a)To maintain standards and avoid collaboration, senior officials of Ministries of Education on inspection of examination centres are often redeployed.

(b)To ensure compliance with guidelines by WAEC, NECO, enrolment of candidates for these school examinations are monitored strictly.

(c)Sanctioning of erring schools, principals, supervisors and other examination officers.

In 2001, JAMB, worried by increased cases of malpractice introduced variation in the numeration of questions for candidates sitting for the same matriculation examination. That year, candidates' performance in JAMB examinations was very poor. But it did not take long for the syndicates to devise other means to beat JAMB's innovation and without gainsay was with the collaboration and connivance of some unscrupulous JAMB officials.

Further determined to minimize irregularities, JAMB and NECO introduced the Biometric Data Capturing Machines to verify authenticity of candidates. With the use of the machines, candidates, for example not registered at a particular centre could not be captured thus allowing only the right candidates to sit for the examination. No doubt, the benefit to be derived from this concept is huge only if the policy is sustained, sensitized and mobilized while the machines should be well maintained by skilled professionals. Otherwise, the idea would only be a waste of resources just like other notable innovations in the past.

6. Effects of Examination Malpractice

a)Examination malpractice has grave consequences on the individuals and institutions of learning, communities and the country as a whole. Dismissal, termination, loss of position and self- confidence are effects and have brought much embarrassment and suffering to individuals, families and communities. The guilty ones who are not caught and punished cannot defend their certificates issued to them not to talk of such people performing their duties effectively.

b)Examination malpractices lead to irreversible loss of credibility. A country that is ranked high in examination malpractices loses international credibility. The implication is that certificates/documents emanating from such country's educational system will be treated with suspicion and doubt. Since certificates are becoming valueless in Nigeria, our educational institutions are dead as far as international cooperation in education is concerned.

c)As long as Examination malpractices are prevailing, we will end up producing Doctors who will forget scissors and towel in the stomach after surgical operation. This vice will continue to produce students with distinctions in our examinations, without quality knowledge in any definite course or subject. In addition, we will continue to have teachers, who cannot impart knowledge to the students, as well as produce Lawyers who cannot differentiate between an accused person and the complainant.

d)Furthermore, production and indiscriminate sales of fake drugs by pharmacists and massive fraud in commercial banks are linked to examination malpractices.

7. Conclusion

Since examination malpractice sows seed of fraud and criminal values in our society, this vice cannot allow us to realize our future greatness because it renders our certificates useless and debases the foundation for assessing our skills and capacity. Examination malpractice not only promotes breakdown of moral and ethical standards in our society but it also prevents achievement of meaningful and sustainable development for example in our aspiration to become one of the top twenty economies in the world by the year 20:2020. Therefore, to resolve this perennial problem of cheating in examinations, the following recommendations could assist in stemming the tide:

a)The need for intensified continuous assessment and aptitude test at various stages of our educational system.

b)Ban the sale of handouts particularly in higher institutions to minimize incessant cases of examination malpractice as many students had been apprehended with handouts in examination halls.

c)There may be the need for new measurement and evaluation criteria that will reduce the burden on examination as the only yardstick for academic progress, ranking and ability.

d)While the students must be blamed for poor preparation of examination, the cases of examination malpractice may be reduced through intensive counselling.

e)Examination bodies, government, stakeholders, must confront this' challenge by reducing or eliminating the administrative, institutional, attitudinal and logistic problems encouraging examination malpractices.

f)There must be a major and comprehensive overhaul of the educational system in the country since education is the best legacy that any parent or nation' could bequeath to its younger generation. This is more so that no individual or country in this contemporary world would develop with a flawed educational system.

g)Adequate facilities such as classrooms or lecture halls and laboratories to make the environment conducive not only for teaching and learning but also to ensure effective check and control of candidates during examinations.

h)Candidates found guilty of the crime of examination malpractice should be punished severely to serve as deterrent to others.

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Private Participation in Education in Nigeria: Some Issues that Matter

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Abstract

This paper examined the challenges that hinder the effectiveness of private educational institutions in Nigeria in providing quality and functional education. In doing this, the paper discussed the structure of ownership of schools (Public and Private) in Nigeria and examined the reasons that could have brought private practitioners on board the educational ladder of the country. The paper further examined the common features that characterize Nigerian public schools such as low carrying capacity, dearth of infrastructures, incessant industrial disharmony, and examination malpractice among others. The paper in antitheses identified the roles of private educational institutions in attempting to ameliorate some of these problems thereby, restoring the lost confidence and hope of many Nigerians in the educational sector. As commendable as the efforts of private schools are in promoting learning, some challenges such as high tuition fees, creating unhealthy social class among students, use of unqualified professionals as well as aiding and abetting examination fraud were identified and discussed. Recommendations were that tuition fees should be reduced by legislation, class distinction should be discouraged by charging uniform hostel accommodation fees, illegal private institutions should be proscribed and the proprietors prosecuted as well as that private institution that aid and abet examination malpractice should be blacklisted and denied permission to serve as centers for national examinations.

Keywords: Public, Private, Institutions, Tuition fees, Class distinction, Illegal, examination malpractice

1.Background of Study

Ownership of educational institutions in Nigeria is between the public and private sectors. The public sector here refers to government at the three tiers-federal, states and local while the private sector speaks about an individual, or group of persons, organizations or mission bodies coming together to establish and run an educational institution at any level of the educational system namely, nursery, primary, secondary, and or universities, colleges of education and polytechnics among others. Schools that are established and run by governments are called public schools while those established by individuals, organizations and mission bodies are referred to as private schools. Consequently, private schools are those schools that have the following characteristics:

- Supported by private organization or individuals rather than by the state
- Independent schools that are supported wholly by the payment of fees

- Schools that are not administered by local, state or federal governments
- They are schools that retain the right to select their students
- They are schools that do not rely on mandatory taxation through public or government funding

The history of private ownership in educational administration in Nigeria could be traced to the period when western education was introduced to the country in the 19th century (Odeleye, Oyelami & Odeleye, 2012). Contrary to this position was the claim that CMS Grammar School in Lagos was established June 6, 1859 (Abati, 2009). According to Abati, when CMS Grammar School was established, Nigeria did not yet exist. The school according to him was established as part of the Church Missionary Society (CMS) plan to develop locally educated elites that could help promote the Christian faith. Between 1859 and now, statistics is not able to reveal the number of privately owned secondary schools in Nigeria. And if at all the list is released one can be sure that many of them will be omitted.

Private participation in University education in Nigeria was dated to 1999 with the establishments of Madonna University on 10th May, 1999 (Universities of Nigeria.com, 2011) and the licensing of Igbinedion University on 16th May, 1999 (Encomium, 2013). Between 1999 and now, a decade and half, the number of privately owned universities had risen beyond 50. In fact, statistics had it that the number of private universities in Nigeria almost equaled that of the federal and state governments put together. There are 36 federal universities, 37 state universities and 50 private universities (Just Naira, 2014). There is hardly any state in Nigeria that has no private university. Among such universities are Salem in Kogi state, Bingham in Nassarawa state, American University of Nigeria, Adamawa state, Caritas University, Enugu state, University of Mkar in Benue state, Oduduwa University, Osun state, Obong University, AkwaIbom, Achievers University, Akure, Babcock University in Ogun state, Covenant University,Ogun state, Joseph Ayo Babalola University, Osun state, Afe Babalola University, Ekiti state, Madonna University in Anambra state and etcetera. Registration of private schools in Nigeria is a continuum and the numbers of privately owned schools as well as patronage are fast outgrowing those of public schools.

2. Reasons for Private Establishment of Schools in Nigeria

The reasons for private participation in the establishment of school at whatever levels of the educational system in Nigeria are not farfetched. As pointed out before, the CMS Grammar School was established according to Abati (2009) as part of the missionary society's plan to develop locally educated elites that could help promote the Christian faith. The intention was to use education as a basis for facilitating the proselytization of the gospel of Jesus Christ. *That was the driving intention then but what about today?* I'm sure you know what the answer should be. Not even some of the missions' schools have this again as a driving force talk less of some private individuals and organizations. Most mission schools around us today have become so expensive, financially discriminatory and far from seeing provisions of education as a social service that it ought to be to the people. In Babcock University according to Encomium (2013) "your meal and hostel defines your money."The school fees in this university according to encomium ranges between six hundred and twenty thousand (620,000) and three million Naira (3000000). The Encomium gave the breakdown of the school fees thus: Medicine, 3 million naira; Law, 2 million naira; Accountancy, 1.5million naira; Nursing, 1million naira, other faculties pay between eight hundred and sixty

thousand naira (860,000) and six hundred and twenty thousand naira (620,000). In American University of Nigeria, the students pay as much as one million, three hundred and seventy thousand, five hundred naira (1,378,500) and this money is paid in Dollars (Encomium, 2013). To own a private school in Nigeria now is a very lucrative business (Toscany Academy, 2012). This is a trend that runs through almost all the private institutions particularly the universities.

Other private bodies that establish schools in Nigeria may be to memorialize their departed loved ones or immortalize their names, or as service to humanity, or as investment, social security against retirement and as means to provide employment to job seekers among others. No matter what the driving force may be, if the federal, states and local governments had not failed in their primary responsibility of providing qualitative education to the citizenry, the private sector wouldn't have taken the advantage. What are those things that are lacking or grossly inadequate with the public schools that brought private practitioners on board? This paper will soon provide the answer.

Qualitative education is too important to be compromised. Issues that affect the performance of education are issues of concern to families, communities, local, states and federal governments. Governments at all the levels in Nigeria are seen to be helplessly watching public structures and institutions collapsing and some in a dangerous state of coma with little or no hope of being revived. The public are fast losing confidence in government. Nothing seems to be working or moving forward. Security is fast running out of the control of government, poor, epileptic and very low voltage supply of electricity even now that is privatized, government hospitals are glorified monuments, health centers are without drugs leaving the health officers that are managing such centers and who are on government pay roll to use the centers as private clinics for commercialization of drugs. Pipe-borne water in most local government headquarters have now become stories of the past. The remains of rusted and broken pipes now only serve as reminders of those good old days. Many roads-intra and inter local governments, states and other countries-have become death traps to users. Nothing, absolutely nothing of public statuses seems to work again in Nigeria.

The educational institutions seem to be the worst hit. The standards and qualities of education have fallen so dangerously that remaining indifference to governments ineptitude to revitalization of this sector would mean waiting endlessly. The centrality of education to individual, community and national developments makes it imperative that alternative means of training our children be sought. The original intention of genuine private practitioners in education as I think should be to intervene and redeem the collapsing public institutions rather than for the economic benefits that seems to be the most driving force for many of them. The genuine private investors in educational institutions endure their investments as the proceeds or dividends are not in the short run unlike the fraudulent ones that milk the institutions dry and undermine quality and infrastructural provisions.

3.State of Public Schools in Nigeria

In order to appreciate private participation in education in Nigeria, it is good we examine cursorily the features or characteristics of our public schools.

- Low carrying capacity (Public schools are inadequate to absolve the teeming population of admission seekers on a yearly basis). This is one major area of private intervention. Even though this problem is not ameliorated, in all fairness, it is curtailed.

- Falling standards and qualities of education (standards in terms of administration, monitoring, supervision and discipline while quality is in the content of what students are taught and learned. The seriousness of teachers to teach and that of students to learn are fast coming down and no authority seem to bother to checkmate this downward trend.

- Examination malpractice (you hear of students putting money together to be assisted in examinations particularly the national examinations. Because the teachers have failed to do their jobs, they have no confidence in their products being able to withstand external competitions.)

- Poor planning and consistent lack of investment in the educational system. There is Tertiary Education Trust Fund (TETfund) intervention for the public educational institutions, but how spread? The laboratory built for ten (10) science students in the 70s is what is still available for the use of two hundred (200) science students in 2015. Conscious and significant efforts are not seen to be done to expand these lean and age-long facilities. The facilities are becoming otiose.

- Inadequate, obsolete and decaying infrastructures.Numerical growth without commensurate infrastructural developments.

- Inadequate manpower (quantity and quality) and sometimes lopsided distribution of staff as posting of staff is influenced by politics.

- Instability in academic calendar due to frequent strikes. Students only know when they are admitted to school but don't know when they will graduate. Academic Staff Union of Nigeria Universities (ASUU) embark on frequent and protracted industrial actions, the most recent lasted for more than 6 months. Academic Staff Union of Nigeria Polytechnics had a strike that lasted 10 months in 2014, while the Academic Staff of Colleges of Education (COEASU) stayed out of the classrooms also for more than 6 months in the same year 2014. The public Primary school teachers in both Benue and Kogi States left their classrooms for almost one year in 2014. Their resumption was just recent and academic activities had begun. Nobody can tell the end to industrial disharmonies in the nation's public educational sector.

- Poor remunerations and working conditions as well as delay in payments of salaries (capable of lowering teacher' (staff) morale and encouraging divided loyalties.)

- Poor monitoring and supervision.

- Lack of will power to enforce discipline, to correct and punish offenders. When an officer wants to correct a subordinate that erred, most times it is at the risk of the officer because of the interventions of the godfathers and the possibility of diabolism or physical assaults.

- Moral decadence that reflect in rape, cultism, immorality and gangsters or other shady behaviors are common features of most public schools.

4. The Intervention of Private Schools

The appearance of private practitioners in education in Nigeria has helped in no small measures to launder the battered image of schools in Nigeria. Private schools have helped to restore the confidence of Nigerians by:

- Providing admissions to many teeming applicants seeking admissions on a yearly basis (many Nigerians who can afford the fees they charge have been relieved in this area)

- Restoring and sustaining quality (not because they have qualified staff in the right proportions but that they ensure what is to be done be done rightly and at the right time)

- Restoring and sustaining discipline (among staff and students because they have they will power to do so added to the fact that they don't want their investment to collapse)

- Effective monitoring and supervision of academic activities (the presence of the proprietor is regularly felt)

- Running stable academic calendar. They rarely go on strike

- Demanding staff dedication and seriousness to duties.

- Discouraging examination malpractice

  Producing students that are globally competitive

The roles that private schools play in rescuing the battered image of the public schools in Nigeria are very highly commendable but there are some issues that are really retarding or staining these good efforts and these issues need to be addressed.

5. Issues That Need to be Addressed to Improve the Performance of Private Schools in Nigeria

These issues are:

- Exorbitant school fees and regular upward review of fees
- Proliferation of substandard institutions
- Promotion of class consciousness and distinctions
- Use of unqualified teachers and administrative staff
- Inadequate provision of infrastructural facilities
- Examination malpractice

5.1 Exorbitant school fees

One of the issues of utmost concern with private educational institutions in Nigeria is the fees they charge exorbitantly and the frequent upward review of these fees. Most private educational institutions have become profit driven and charge fees that are beyond the reach of many average Nigerians. The fees they charge are between N620, 000 and N3 million (Nigerian University Scholarships, 2014). With the declining academic activities of public institutions in Nigeria coupled with low or inadequate carrying capacity, many parents who could have taken solace in private schools are inhibited due to huge costs. It has become obvious with the fees they charge that private universities according to Nigerian University Scholarships (2014) can only accommodate the children of the affluent-except, of course, middle class parents that are willing to struggle and sacrifice other comforts of life. The incidence of the burdens of these huge fees parents pay is obvious on the standard of living of many families. Private

owners of schools in Nigeria should give this a re-think to encourage more patronage especially as there is sense in "economies of large scale production." Students Nigeria (2014) and Brimtime-Atom (2014) reported the fees charged by some secondary schools in Nigeria to range between one million and four million Naira (N1000000 and N4000000) annually. This, I think does not really make sense. It is simply a display of affluence. The amount paid by one student in these schools can be used to award scholarship to entire secondary schools in a Local Government (Brimtime-Atom, 2014).

5.2 Promotion of class consciousness and distinctions

There is an existing wide gap between the rich and the poor in Nigeria already. Therefore, conscious efforts to further widening this gap should be discouraged. But this is what most of this private educational institutions seem to promote. Only children of the affluence could access it. And what this means is that they will continue to be ahead of their counterparts from low or poor socio-economic background. They are likely to graduate earlier, obtain qualitative education more than their mates in public schools or those yet to go to school because they cannot afford the high fees payable in private schools and cannot be admitted to public schools because of competition and high demand. Again, in some private schools, the amount of money students pay vary from one course to another as well as the nature and type of accommodation they get. For instance, in a private university in Nigeria as reported by Nigerian University Scholarships (2014), accommodation depends on the student' choice, either it is Regular (7 in a room), Premium (4 in a room) or Classic (3 or 2 in a room).

This distinction is not healthy for the children that are being trained to be leaders tomorrow. The socio-economic status of students is not to be used as the basis for discrimination especially in the area of hostel accommodation and the number of meals to be eating per day.

5.3 Proliferation of substandard schools

There are black sheep among private owners of schools that are abusing the good intention of providing qualitative and comprehensive education to the citizenry. They take advantage of the desire of children for higher studies and without any structure on the ground, due process of registration, set-up universities, colleges of education and polytechnics under trees and uncompleted residential buildings. It is a further abuse of our educational system for two undergraduate applicants without any known financial base to come together to float universities, colleges of education or polytechnics. For such proprietors, money-making is their goal; money-making is their objective and so disregarded registration procedures, admissions or minimum entry requirements. This is bad! The association of private owners of schools should fight this illegality that is further destroying what the genuine private ones are in the process of building.

List of such illegal institutions particularly those that are degree awarding (about 46 of them) were published in 2013 (Daily Post, 2013) by National Universities Commission (NUC), the body that regulates university education in Nigeria. The Daily Post (2013) referred to these illegal degree awarding institutions as "Degree mills" and warned the general public not to patronize them as their certificates will not be considered for the purposes of National Youths Service Corps (NYSC), employment and further studies. Similarly, in 2014, lists of 36 unaccredited or illegal universities were again released by Universities of Nigeria.com (2014) with warnings to the general public that their certificates are not yet recognized in Nigeria. In spite of these efforts, these proscribed universities

continue regular academic programs with impunity. There are several others probably more than those identified that are illegally operating at full glares of government functionaries without their being bothered. The list of these illegal institutions of learning can never be exhaustive. There is no level of the nation's educational institution that can be absolved of this illegal private participation-the nursery, primary, secondary and tertiary.

5.4 Unqualified personnel

Most private institutions of learning lack qualified and adequate personnel. Since they are mostly out to make money, they lack the willingness to hire and retain qualified professionals because of high cost. This is why they employ and manage workers without due regard to quality and quantity. Many of their workers are transitory as they could leave for higher paid jobs anytime. The bulk of their workers are either retirees, fresh graduates who assuredly would leave later, or visiting teachers (teachers that are in employment with another institution) or those on sabbatical. This is not a healthy development as the students are those disadvantaged. Students need to be familiar with their subject teachers for effective learning to take place. Most annoyingly, is putting round pegs in square holes. A lecturer may be made to teach courses that are far outside his/her discipline. Why on earth should a holder of National Diploma (ND) be made to teach courses to National Diploma students? These are the illegalities that go on in most of the private schools and these are capable of destroying the nation's educational system. And governments seemed not to be seriously bothered. The future of this great country is at stake as these desperate money mongers are bent on destroying the youths that are to be the leaders of tomorrow.

5.5 Poor and inadequate infrastructures

Many private institutions of learning in Nigeria have problem with expansion. This is not necessarily that the finance is not there but the will powers to plough back proceeds generated to further improve the institution. You see proprietor of an institution that is gathering momentum for growth suddenly using the proceeds from this institution to establish a new one in another geographical location. Hence, one person could own two or three universities with none of the three being fully developed. Students in some such private institutions of learning particularly, the universities have had their programs extended by the National Universities Commission for not being able to meet accreditation requirements.

5.6 Examination Malpractice

This is another feature that is common with many private educational institutions in Nigeria particularly, those institutions below the tertiary level of the educational system. The proprietors or teachers in some of these schools that prepare their students for external examinations such as West African Schools Certificate Examinations (WASCE) and National Examinations Commission (NECO) encourage examination malpractice so that their schools could be distinguished and rated as excellent. They do this to win patronage, to attract more students to the college. Parents who are ignorant of these fraudulent practices will be willing to send their wards to such schools where their students are not doing very badly in external examinations. The "excellent" performance in this case is not a function of qualitative academic efforts of teachers and students but that of cheating and aiding the students in the examinations.

These shady practices have their immediate and long term consequences particularly on the students that pass through such institutions. They are morally devalued and those are the ones we are training as leaders for tomorrow.

The popular opinion in Nigeria is that "Nigerian police are corrupt."But is not all of them that are corrupt. There are some that are not corrupt among them. Similarly, not all the Nigerian politicians are thugs. Why? The answer is in their levels of moral foundations and later development.

6.Conclusion

The entrance of private practitioners in education in Nigeria is a good one. They rejuvenated confidence of Nigerians about the decadence that is prevalent with the public institutions particularly, the public educational sector that had suffered protracted industrial actions and dearth of infrastructures. The private owners of schools have helped tremendously by running stable academic calendars, monitor and supervise academic proceedings for quality delivery and to some great extent have reduced yearly admission problems.

But as commendable as are the roles that private educational institutions play in Nigeria, they are surrounded with some unhealthy practices such as charging of fees exorbitantly, widening of gaps between the rich and the poor, proliferations of illegal and substandard schools and employment of unqualified and inadequate personnel among others. These unhealthy practices need to be addressed to enhance the performance of private educational institutions that are undoubtedly beneficial to Nigeria and Nigerians.

7. Recommendations

The following recommendations are suggested to help private schools in Nigeria overcome some of the unhealthy practices identified so as to be able to enhance their performance. These recommendations are:

1.Reduction of tuition, accommodations and feeding fees that is highly exorbitant. This can be done through government legislation. Private institutions should be made to charge fifty percent (50%) fees above those of the federal and or state governments. This regulation is necessary yet that public educational institutions are not meeting the yearnings and aspirations of the citizenry in the meantime in terms of quality and quantity.

2.Private Institutions of learning particularly the tertiary institutions that have been licensed to operate and had operated successfully (meeting the minimum requirements of their regulatory bodies like NUC) for up to ten (10) years should be made to draw funds from the Tertiary Education Trust Fund (TETfund). About fifteen (15) percent of the funds giving to the states and federal tertiary institutions of learning by this body should be conceded to such private institutions.

3.All illegal Educational institutions operating in Nigeria are to be blacklisted, proscribed and their proprietors prosecuted by the bodies that regulate them. In addition, frequent jingles on the media particularly in the states where such proscribed institutions are should be carried out so that the masses in such states could have sufficient education about the illegality of their operations and the consequences of patronizing them. Until the government is seen to be serious on this matter, the "cows of Bashan" in this enterprise will continue their exploitation.

4.Hostel accommodations should not be defined by money and class. If it is ten thousand naira that is charged as flat rate for accommodation and students are able to pay, then they should be exposed to about the same hostel conditions. A situation where accommodation fees is graduated and the student that can afford the highest pay gets

the best or "exclusive" accommodation is not proper at all for students particularly, the undergraduates. What this is capable of doing is a further widening of the age-long existing gap between the rich and the poor.

5.Licensed private schools that are already in operation whose administrators aid and abet examination malpractice should be made to face the wrath of the law by the supervisory states or federal ministries or agencies. Such schools are to be blacklisted and their students relocated to other schools of their interest.

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Childhood Bullying of Males on the Basis of Sexual Orientation in Rural North America: A Longitudinal Examination of Victims' Perceptions

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Abstract

This research is the first (1960s) part of a three part longitudinal study that covers three decades (1960s, 70s, and 80s) of the lived experiences of school aged males who were bullied in rural areas of the North America on the basis of sexual orientation. The research draws on the urban-rural distinctions of Tonnies and Durkheim as well as the contrasting views regarding bullying of Social Skills Deficit verses Theory of Mind analyses. Particularly perceptive and articulate victims of bullying were selected. It was concluded that the following were central to the participant's perceptions of his bullying on the basis of sexual orientation experiences in the 1960s: 1. There was a pronounced cultural emphasis upon strength and athletics as the test of legitimate, socially approved masculinity, 2. There was a strong conservative religious and political condemnation of those who failed to achieve the socially determined standards of masculinity, and 3. An unsupportive family environment contributed to the participants being bullied.

Keywords: Sexual orientation; Bullying; Longitudinal bullying research; Qualitative research on bullying; Gender harassment; Sexual harassment; Bullying experiences

1. Introduction

Though this research is formally called qualitative research, it is essentially the carefully and methodically elicited "story" of a man in his 60s that experienced bullying on the basis of sexual orientation in a rural area of North America as a child. The story is a painful one both as he experienced it and as he now relates it. By careful examination of his subjective story as well as two future ones from similarly situated persons it is hoped that the voices of children in similar situations may be viewed from a longitudinal perspective and may give researchers greater ability to piece together patterns as the basis of future research that will provide greater understanding of their experience. Only in understanding their perceptions can policies then be devised that may aid them.

The participant in this research was asked his opinion of whether he thought qualitative research such as this (as contrasted to positivist, quantitative research) was valid. He said yes. When asked why, he responded: "Because it is a way to give life and texture to knowledge and human experience that would be dull, boring, uninspiring and probably ignored and overlooked if studied in the traditional methods of social science." I hope that the research achieves somewhat of what he so well described.

1.1 Research Question and Aim of Sturdy

This research seeks to know whether and, if so, how the perceptions of male victims of bullying on the basis of sexual orientation have changed in rural areas of North America during the decades of the 1960s, 1970s, and 1980s. The goal of the present research is to gain access to the voice and to the lived experiences of one such victim who experienced bullying on the basis of sexual orientation during the 1960s in a rural area. The future goal is to achieve a longitudinal examination of the lived experiences of similarly bullied victims that will also cover the 1970s and the 1980s. The immediate scholarly motivation is to identify patterns that can become the focus of future research that has the long term goal of improving social support systems victims of this bullying.

2. Perspectives and Theoretical Framework

The research implicitly draws upon the theoretical distinctions between rural (Gemeinschaft) and urban (Gessellschaft) made by Tonnies (1925) as well as the different kinds of human social bonds created by rural (mechanical) and urban (organic) noted by Durkheim (as cited in Tonnies, 1988) as well as the distinctions in the types of law and law enforcement that develop in each of these societies. The research further draws upon the theoretical distinction between viewing bullies as those who have deficient social skills (Social Skills Deficit View) and those who are in many cases perceptive and shrewd in social skills (Theory of Mind View) (Sutton, et al, 1999).

3. Literature Review

Both Canada and the United States have had major problems in the first decade of this century in preventing school bullying on the basis of sexual orientation. Smith (2000) reported "that 80 per cent of children of different sexual orientation (gay, lesbian) had experienced teasing about their sexual orientation, and over half had been physically assaulted or ridiculed by other pupils or teachers (p.298)." Stein (2007) described the United States by noting that "contemporary surveys attest to the ugly entrenchment of sexual and gender harassment in our schools" and that "(w)hat emerges from studies that do not hide sex and gender-based harassment under the euphemism of bullying is that such harassment is wide spread (p. 31)." Berlin et al. (2010) found that in a large sample of American youth that "(a)mong males, we found that mostly heterosexual and gay youth were at increased risk of victimization compared to heterosexual males (p. 367)."

Canadian education appears similarly plagued. In an extensive survey of Canadian education Taylor et al. (2008) reported that LGBTQ students experienced "ten times as much harassment about their sexual orientation" as non-LGBTQ students and that "the level of harassment was even higher for transgender students (pp. 40- 41)." According to Kosciw et al. (2010), students in rural/small towns in Canada reported higher levels of victimization in school based on sexual orientation.

So far as the research reveals, the specific topic of longitudinal changes in victim' perceptions of sexual orientation based bullying during the last half of the 20th Century has received little attention. Taylor et al. (2008) did find that "(c)urrent students were… more likely than past students to hear homophobic comments from other students every day" which would seem to suggest that the issue is worsening.

On the other hand, the same researchers found that "current students were significantly less likely than past students to report that staff never intervened (p. 27)."

It is suggested that the relative isolation and the emphasis upon religion and tradition often associated with rural environments might well be related to the issue of bullying on the basis of sexual orientation but, again,

other than as noted, the longitudinal aspect of it appears to have received little examination in the literature of bullying.

Tonnies' (1925) typology suggested that Gemeinschaft societies (rural societies) possessed a "closeness of holistic social relationships…imputed to the community as moral worth (p.69)", whereas Gesellschaft societies (urban societies) possessed a unity "based on common traits and activities and other external phenomena (p. 67)." Similarly, Durkheim (as cited in Tonnies, 1988) asserted that in societies with bonding patterns between individuals of mechanical solidarity (the bonding found in rural societies) that "beliefs and conduct are alike. People are homogeneous mentally and morally, hence communities are uniform and nonatomized… and that (o)ffense against the collective conscience is moral offense and is punishable by repressive law (p. 13)." Additionally, in contrasting urban and rural societies, Durkheim (as cited in Tonnies, 1988) noted that in urban societies with individual bonds of organic solidarity (as opposed to mechanical solidarity) that "(o)ffensive acts then lose their sacrilegious character and repressive law is replaced by restitutive law (p. 13)."

The distinction in the nature of morality as it is viewed in urban as compared to rural societies and, by implication, the harshness of social measures inflicted against violation of it may imply differences in enforcement of sexual related norms in rural and urban settings. Nevertheless, the literature of bullying offers virtually no previous research regarding studies addressing sexual orientation based bullying from both a rural as well as longitudinal perspective.

By examining the intersection of sexual orientation bullying, rural isolation and temporal (longitudinal) change in the lived experiences of its victims, educators and schools may be better prepared identify patterns for future research that could lead to provision of greater social support for such victims as learners in educational settings.

4.Methods, Data, and Participant Sample

Because this research is intended to be exploratory, it uses is the qualitative approach of grounded theory to distill the "thick descriptions" of the lived experiences of victims/participants and to then attempt to discover patterns or hear voices. The research seeks to focus on two general lines of inquiry; the lived experiences of the victims and how it (the experience) has changed over the selected time period. As the first part of the longitudinal research, the present research focuses only upon the first line of inquiry. Semi-structured interviews with open ended questions were used to initiate the participant's descriptions and the participant was then encouraged to be as expansive as desired in addressing the topic of the research.

Using the purposeful sampling methods of qualitative research, the present participant (as will be the case with future participants) was selected on the basis of his having been

1.male,

2.a childhood victim, of

3.bullying on the basis of sexual orientation in a defined geographically

4.rural area (no city greater than 5,000 population within 30 miles of his residence) in North America in the 1960s, who

5.was viewed as having unusually introspective and communicative capabilities and

6.who perceives the experience to have been memorably painful.

The present participant was a National Merit Scholar semi-finalist in high school, an honor roll student in sociology in college, a nationally recognized creator of a unique form of art, and his sexual orientation was

reported as homosexual. The participant in the present research (as well as those of later stages of the overall research) represents the process of "purposeful sampling" as explained by (Creswell 2012):

… in qualitative research, you select people or sites that can best help you understand the central phenomenon. This understanding emerges through a detailed understanding of the people or site. It can lead to information that allows individuals to "learn" about the phenomenon, or to an understanding that provides voice to individuals who may not be heard otherwise.

As noted in Creswell, in qualitative research participants may be as few as one and the test of adequacy is not, as in quantitative research, numbers but whether the participants are "information rich (p. 206)." In the present research the participant reported the perception of extreme pain that was associated with the bullying (making it memorable) and his generally introspective characteristics and the ability to articulate them would seem to qualify him for the status of what Creswell (2012) "a critical sample" where a participant is chosen because "Sometimes individuals or research sites represent the central phenomenon in dramatic terms" and "because it is an exceptional case and the researcher can learn much about the phenomenon (p. 208)."

5. Data Collection

Data for the present research consists of two interviews of the participant totaling three hours. The transcribed interview consisted of nine single space pages of typed information. The characteristics of the researcher (foreign, younger, female, neither confrontational nor supportive and possessing a strong, yet purposefully concealed, admiration of the participant for having survived the early years of his life with his humanity intact) were not thought to impact the participant's responses. Pseudonyms were used throughout the interview and the participant was informed of his right to terminate the interview numerous times. The initial interview was suspended by the interviewer for the reason that she feared that the participant might be nearing a point of emotional exhaustion and then the interview was recommenced two days later after the participant reported that he felt comfortable in doing so.

6. Data Analysis

Following transcription, major concepts of the interview were identified and then categorized into 58 conceptual nodules that were placed in coded brackets representing significant mental states, ideas, attitudes, feelings and interpretations of the participant with the goal being to discover the meanings behind the participant's words. Following identification of the conceptual nodules they were then subsumed into 16 analytically coded themes that were given definitions for purposes of the analysis and then traced to portions of the transcript from which they originated.

7. Results

The central research question of this research involves whether change has occurred in the lived experiences of male victims of bullying on the basis of sexual orientation in rural areas of North America during the decades of the 1960s, 1970s, and 1980s. Of course, the amount and form of any change requires the establishment of a baseline. The emergent themes of the "thick descriptions" of the participant in the present research are intended to establish the baseline against which change can be measured and evaluated in the remaining two parts (1970s and 1980s). Part one (1960s) of the research revealed three dominate themes in the perceptions of the participant regarding his experience of being bullied:

1.His perceptions of being bullied were frequently associated with athletics or physical education classes and the teachers who taught them;

2.His perceptions of being bullied were frequently associated with the ideologies of conservative religion and conservative politics; and

3.His perceptions of being bullied were frequently associated with a dysfunctional home environment. (All quotes are from the interview transcript.)

7.1 Athletics, Physical Education, and the Nature of Masculinity

The participant's recollection of bullying frequently involved mistreatment by his school aged peers and usually was based on his failing to meet their expectations of manly characteristics. He describes how it began to manifest early in the first grade:

I liked designing clothes. I would play with paper dolls and design clothes and I was stupid enough not to hide it. Uh, and another thing, I didn't know about sports…for Halloween we always had a parade downtown and the adults would come to watch and I wanted to be a witch and I was allowed to go as a witch. That was a big mistake. So …I began being called sissy a lot. Little boys and little girls didn't use the word "queer" then, they probably do now, and they used the word sissy.

Even if the participant adopted what he thought were "manly" methods of reacting and opposing his being bullied by fighting against his peer tormenters the term "sissy" was unavoidable: "Even that (fighting) got changed to, "Oh he fights like a girl." Well, I won sometimes but I still fought like a girl. I did not know I fought like a girl, I just thought I was fighting the little sons-of-bitches."

He described his perception of the futility of trying to fulfill manly cultural expectation of manliness in school as he grew older:

I have been tested and I have naturally very slow reflexes. As a matter of fact, the professional who tested me said they were nearly the slowest in any person he had seen that was not retarded. And a person like that cannot move like other people, cannot be an athlete, cannot be fast no matter how hard he tries and you know, you get into 7th and 8th grade and all of a sudden there is physical education and sports.

When asked about the degree of his bullying by his school peers and his perceptions of fear, he replied:

Times could be completely anytime… the feeling was, and it was realistic, anything could happen anytime for any reason, or for no reason whatsoever…

I was most of the time the most bullied that I saw. Not always, but most of the

time and sigh, "Sissy". Oh, I remember one thing why I was a sissy. I used to get terribly dizzy on stairs and in first grade, and this all did begin early, my classroom was on the second level it was in the public library because our school was too small and to go upstairs there was an open staircase with open railings and I could go upstairs alright but to go downstairs I would feel like I was falling. I just couldn't do it and I had to sit down to go down the stairs, so sissy, sissy, sissy. I do not know if I was more afraid of more things or just afraid of different things. I know as I got older I was afraid of many, many, many things.

The participant perceived physical education and athletics to have played an especially central role in his lived experiences. His recollection of sports, of physical education classes, and of the coaches associated with them was consistently negative and even now, many decades later, produced painful emotional winces as he related his memories. His perceived sports to be very important, saying: "Sports is a big thing in a little town. Oh that is maybe the main thing in a little town and it is not just the main thing to kids, it is the main thing to the adults."

He perceived his failures in physical related activities as especially painful to him and believed they were important in marking him off as unmanly. These failures led him to perceive gross and painful mistreatment by coaches and physical education teachers. His attempts to describe his perceptions were very emotional:

(T)here was a new coach who was a clod of clod. He was a popular coach in the town because was a "winner." Well, I don't call him a winner because boys won. I don't think coaches are very important. But anyway, when I was in school, I wasn't good in physical education. I did try. I tried very hard. I tried harder than a lot of kids⋯We were having, the polite word is calisthenics, and with this coach (pausing with emotion) it was torture and humiliation⋯ (Voice rising) and I do not want his name changed! I want it known. It is Mundane Jones! Don't change his name. Put in his name! It is not being changed. You don't change it (the name) to protect the guilty. The bastard is dead now. At least I outlived him. (Sigh)

When further asked to relate examples of mistreatment by this coach, he continued:

We were doing, we were on our backs on the floor and we were doing leg lifts and were having a contest to see how long we could keep our legs in the air and I was wobbling and panting and this and that and the other and most of the other guys were just doing fine and he said, "Look at "participant"! "Look at him. Look at him puff and pant and shake." And everybody started laughing. Everybody started laughing. You know in all my years in school, although I have seen teachers get mad at students, never, ever in any school or any grade I was in, encountered that in any other teacher other than a coach⋯(hesitating and unable to proceed)

Regarding a second coach his outburst was equally emotional:

I have looked back in my adult life and I have thought he was a limited, limited, limited man. He was not very smart. The only thing he could do was coach and discipline. He wasn't a loving man. He was just a hard man⋯I remember he just stank. He always stank. I sometimes wonder if one of the reasons he was so hard on me was that he taught or tried to teach Geography. Basically, he talked sports in Geography but occasionally he would get to the subject and if there was anything I was good at it was Geography. I think maybe I was a threat to him there. I don't know. I just don't know.

When asked to relate his present feelings toward his former coach he replied: "Well, I got to where I hardly ever remember him. Really except for his nastiness, he was an imminently forgettable person. He was as near to nothing as anybody I have ever met."

Though none of his coaches ever directly or expressly linked the participant's physical inadequacy to his sexuality or sexual legitimacy, it was clear that the two were linked in his mind. The following reflected his attempt to avoid contact with coaches and physical education:

I told a lie. I told the truth and a lie to get out of physical education that year at Capitalville High. There was a counselor at Capitalville high and I told the counselor that I was a homosexual and that I was afraid that I would get excited in the gym room etc. I have been in I don't know how many gym rooms around naked boys and naked men, I don't get excited but I figured he would believe it and think it would be a pretty awful thing. He did believe it and I was excused from physical education. I do not know about other people but gym rooms just are not aphriasidal to me.

7.2 Religions and Political Conservatism

Close behind athletics and physical education followed another two- headed torment that was reported as part of the lived experience of the participant; the dual institutions of conservative religion and conservative politics. Throughout the interview the participant expressed deeply held resentment toward both. His natural

father died in an accident before he was born and the participant was raised by a stepfather. In describing his stepfather, he also reveals his perceptions of both institutions:

He didn't seem to have a lot of dimensions but the dimensions he had were iterated and reiterated, ad infinitum, ad nausea: Church, church,

church! CHURCH, CHURCH, CHURCH! Of the most condemning fire and brimstone kind and of the most right wing Republicanism imaginable. There were no Democrats. They were all Communists… I just remember, fear, fear, fear, and finally, hatred of God and after that atheism for quite some time.

When asked whether religion provided support or refuge for him as a child as he attempted to define his own sexuality, he responded:

I couldn't talk to pastors or clergy. My church was a very ignorant church and the people were super, super conservative… They were very, very conservative and except for the minister who was a teacher, they were very ignorant and super conservative and I couldn't talk to them or get comfort from a pastor…they were the tormentors…the idea is ridiculous.

The participant frequently expressed ideas that suggested that he perceived the source of his bullying to lie in conservatism and unthinking traditionalism. His bullying experiences were frequently described in ways that linked or traced to conservatives or to conservative politics:

Uh, I will say something all sorts of people would love to argue with and, uh, it would anger them greatly. I think it is because it is right. Most bullies that I have known and that I have followed at all well…all them that I know of, are Republicans. Now a lot of whiners that I have known are Democrats but the bullies that I have known are all Republicans." (The participant reported that most of the people in his small town were Republicans and conservatives.)

7.3 Family and Home Life

An unexpected development appeared early in the interview. It was that the participant was not only the victim of bullying on the basis of sexual orientation, he was also the victim of family bullying by a mentally disturbed older sister. (In effect he was the victim of compound bullying.) Though his experience with his sister must have influenced him, since it was not the variety of bullying that was the focus of this research, it has not been analyzed here except to the extent that reinforces the theme that the participant's home life was disorganized and dysfunctional and that it failed to provide him with guidance, nurturance, and refuge.

The third theme of that emerged was the participant's perception that his bullying experiences were partly due to the fact that he received little guidance or protection from his weak and dysfunctional home. He described his family life as consisting of a dictatorial step-father, a loving but over-protective and weak mother, and a sadistic, psychotic and more powerful older sister. Numerous times the participant lamented the failure of his family structure to provide nurture, guidance and refuge for him. It was apparent that in retrospect, though he loved his mother very much, he felt that he had been almost betrayed by the little help he was given by his family to cope with his community environment and that he had been left almost wholly alone to suffer at its hands. He described them in the following terms:

I didn't feel like my stepfather hated me but he was a peculiar man. He would be called⋯ I think most people would call him a crank although that is kind of an old-fashioned word⋯ He was a very, very self-absorbed man and he bullied too but you can＇t exactly call it bullying because I know he did not mean to bully but I don＇t think he would have ever stopped if it were brought forward to him because he could not be criticized. He could not be. He would not take criticism from anybody, ever. He would have called what he did religious teaching and religious instruction.

Mom didn＇t have the choices that most people have. She had only a Sophie＇s choice with my sister and me. Mother was confronted with an impossible choice of keeping both children (himself and his mentally ill sister) or destroying one child (himself)…I got to where I would quit a lot of things…and that was a mistake on her part because she allowed me to…I think that if she could have talked to me and given me some cheerleading and some ideas that I had worthwhile character no matter what coaches said or the other people said and to hang in there, to go in there, don＇t let them get the best of you, that would have been better. Her other failure was if she knew I was going to fight somebody, she wouldn＇t let me.

I had an older sister who was psychotic, she was manic depressive and schizophrenic and she was a sadist and I was enough younger than she was that she could do basically what she wanted with me and she did…she could be pummeling me or scratching me or pinching me or kicking me or throwing firecrackers at me or anything she wanted and she would be smiling and laughing…I tell you, around Patroness (his sister) especially in the last year or so before she went to the State Hospital (Hospital for the Criminally Insane) I didn＇t feel like she was going to kill me, I felt like she was going to do something beyond that. If you can imagine, I felt like she was going to make it such that I never had any existence at all.＂

8. Conclusions and Discussion

The perceived bullies of the participant＇s 1960＇s environment were all very clearly in the category of the Social Skills Deficit view as described by Sutton, et al, (1999). The participant＇s father as well his coaches were described as "a crank," "self-absorbed, "peculiar," "clods," as "forgettable," as "unimportant," and "as near to nothing as anybody I have ever met." He further added that those "who bullied me weren＇t particularly intelligent and most of them were athletes." Only once did his descriptions of his bullies suggest any particular social skills and that was restricted to knowing who to pick out to safely bully: "There seem to be people who can just smell, as it were, someone who is safe to bully and I say safe to bully because I have also observed that a lot of bullies are really cowards."

Surprisingly, the participant focused very little upon specific childhood bullies in describing his perceptions of his bullying experience. He describes their painful taunts and teasing and how he fought back against them, yet in describing them, his perceptions were that, "I do not think the kids were sadists, I think they were just ordinary kids and I＇m not saying that I was devoid of friends."

Instead of perceiving individual children as the sources of his bullying, the perceptions of the participant focused upon strong institutional pressures from home, church, politics, and culture that shaped his lived experiences. A cultural value of emphasis of the physical in men, a negative reinforcement of this value by the institutions of conservative religion and conservative politics, together with the absence of a protective and guiding function family go far in providing an understanding of the participant's perceptions of the ethos of bullying on the basis of sexual orientation that appeared to exist in the relative isolation of the participant's environment of the 1960s.

There are a number of challenges in this research. First, the significance of the role of homogeneousness of members of rural communities and the type of bonds that exist between members of these communities was not established in the present research. Evidence of the significance of "ruralness" as a factor in this kind of bullying may become clearer as the research continues to the 1970s and 1980s. Secondly, the purposeful selection of participants for future installments of this research may be problematic. It may be difficult to find participants as introspective, thoughtful and articulate. A third challenge lies in developing methods of pursuing the open-ended questions required of qualitative research yet phrasing them in such a way as to insure that the

bench mark responses of the 1960s participant are offered for consideration without channeling or influencing those of participants representing the remaining decades of the research. The final challenge relates to how to use this participant's perceptions (as well as future participants from the 1970s and 1980s) in shaping policy to create better learning environments (as well as more humane treatment) for such bullying victims in the future.

What happens to the learning potential of young humanity when fed a steady diet of ridicule, ostracism, and fear, especially when the focus is on something as central to humans as sexuality? As this research moves to the last installments, will the environmental diet we provide for our children be similar to that perceived by the participant of the 1960s? Perhaps educational, religious, political, family and community changes will reveal his perceptions and experience to have become a painful artifact of the past; or perhaps not.

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The Changing Face of the Ghanaian Culture: A Case of Earring in Men

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Abstract

Parents, religious leaders, people in authority and the Ghanaian society are wondering why the emerging trends of earring in men. A survey was conducted in the Kumasi Metropolis using structured questionnaires to solicit the view of society on the issue. Results obtained indicated that the wearing of ear ring by men in Ghana was concentrated among the age group of 20 -30 years, most (76%) of who were unmarried. A number of reasons accounted for the wearing of ear ring with fashion emerging as the most important. Those who wear earing are of the view that if else where the practice is acceptable they see no problem copying and doing that in their own cultural setting too. There was varied response from the women who were interviewed concerning their acceptability of men who wear ear ring as their husbands. While majority (68%) detested men who wear earring, others were indifferent. The elderly were of the view that the desire to be like Westerners has suddenly made the youth promiscuous; doing things that were never imaginable several years ago.

Keywords: Culture; Fashion; Ghana; Jewellery; Modernization; Society.

1. Introduction

Culture, is the arts, customs, habits, beliefs, values, behaviour and material appreciation that constitutes a people's way of life" (Standage, 2005). Baffoe (2005) expressed culture as the totality of the way of life of a group of people that has been developed, shaped and practiced over the years. The development of these cultural norms and practices are shaped by the environment and the needs of the people. Culture is never static. It is dynamic, it is a continuous process of change but in spite of the change, culture continues to give a community a sense of identity, dignity, continuity, security and binds society together. The African society today is challenged from what is called cultural cringe, which is the belief that one's own country occupies a subordinate cultural place on the periphery, and that intellectual standards are set and innovations occur elsewhere. As a result of this mind-set, people who hold this belief are inclined to devalue their own cultural, academic and artistic life, and then venerate the seemingly decorated "superior" culture.

For example in Ghana today, the outfits that most people wear are western in style, but that does not make the society modern. People are moving away from the Ghanaian cultural values, life styles and pattern and the irony of the situation is the condemnation of our own great culture, patterns and resources.

No society can exist without a culture. Each culture carries its values, which influence the thoughts, feelings and actions of her members. Ghanaians emphasize communal values such as family, respect for the elderly, honouring traditional rulers, and the importance of dignity and proper social conduct. Individual conduct is seen as having impact on an entire family, social group and community; therefore, everyone is expected to be respectful, dignified and observant in public settings, and in most every aspect of life.

Ghanaians place great emphasis on politeness, hospitality, and formality. Upon meeting, acquaintances must shake hands and ask about each other's health and families. Visitors to a house must greet and shake hands with each family member. They are then seated and greeted in turn by all present. Hosts must normally provide their guests with something to eat and drink, even if the visit does not occur at a mealtime. If a person is returning from or undertaking a long journey, a libation to the ancestors is usually poured. If someone is eating, he or she must invite an unexpected visitor to join him or her. Normally, an invitation to eat cannot be refused (Berry, 1994).

Friends of the same age and gender hold hands while walking. Great respect is attached to age and social status. A younger person addresses a senior as father or mother and must show appropriate deference. It is rude to offer or take an object or wave with the left hand. It is also rude to stare or point at people in public (Berry, 1994).

The Ghanaian society has in recent times expressed worry over what they termed "the rapid decaying" of these traditions and cultural values especially on the part of the youth. This issue was the focus of discussion during the inauguration of the Central Regional Performers of Traditional Arts Union of Ghana (PETRAUGA), on April 2014. Other studies have also observed that the desire to be like Westerners by the youth in Africa has suddenly made them promiscuous; doing things that were never imaginable several years ago (Irele, 2010). There is need, therefore, for the flogging of the negative impact of Western civilisation and culture on Africa in all fora; so that society can begin to see the need to reappraise the principles of cultural revival. Cultural isolationism is not possible in the context of globalisation. Cultural ideas and values grow and flow across borders unimpeded, but that should not make us lose sight of our traditional cultural values. The main objective of this paper was therefore to solicit the view of society on the issue of wearing of earring by Ghanaian men.

1.1 Globalization and African Culture

Globalization is defined as a process of linking the regions and/or nations of the world which is facilitated by information flow (communication) inducing changes in the pre-existing socio-cultural, political, economic etc., structure and systems of nations and peoples Nsibambi (2001). Globalization may also be defined as the spread of worldwide practices, relations, consciousness, and organization of social life etc that transforms people around the world with some transformation being dramatic (Ritzer, 2008). This is a cultural transformation that also affects cultural identity of people that are being transformed.

Africa's contact with the rest of the world started through trade, including the trans-Atlantic slave trade. This was the period when western merchants bought from African slave traders Africa's most valuable resources (able-bodied men, women and children). The second was the era of colonialism, when Europeans at a conference in Berlin in 1884 divided up Africa among themselves and instituted direct control and rule over African countries. This division was done without regard to ethnic, cultural, linguistic and other considerations. The next stage of Africa interaction with the world particularly Europe was during the era of independence from colonial rule. Western norms and practices have therefore transported across the globe and gradually becoming the acceptable way of behaviour. In view of this, the rich and dynamic African culture has been diluted.

Globalization has its own set of cultural attendants which exercise a profound influence on the life of peoples everywhere (Guillen, 2001). Actually, there are only a few scholars who accept that a global culture is in the making. A "culture ideology of consumerism" driven by symbols, images, and anaesthetic of the lifestyles and self-image-has spread throughout the world and is having some momentous effects including standardization of tastes and desires, (Guillen, 2001, Sklair. 1991).

1.2 History of Ear Jewellery

Ear piercing is one of the oldest known forms of body modification, with artistic and written references from cultures around the world dating back to early history. Early evidence of earrings worn by men can be seen

in archaeological evidence from Persepolis in ancient Persia. The carved images of soldiers of the Persian Empire, displayed on some of the surviving walls of the palace, show them wearing an earring. Howard Carter writes in his description of Tutankhamen's tomb that the Pharaoh's earlobes were perforated, but no earrings were inside the wrappings, although the tomb contained some. The burial mask's ears were perforated as well, but the holes were covered with golden discs. That implies that at the time, earrings were only worn in Egypt by children, much like in Egypt of Howard's times (Demello, 2007).

Earrings became fashionable among courtiers and gentlemen in the 1590s during the English Renaissance. A document published in 1577 by clergyman William Harrison, indicated that some lusty courtiers and gentlemen of courage do wear either rings of gold, stones or pearls in their ears (Demello, 2007). Among sailors, a pierced earlobe was a symbol that the wearer had sailed around the world or had crossed the equator (Tarnya, 2006). In addition, it is commonly held that a gold earring was worn by sailors in payment for a proper burial in the event that they might drown at sea. Should their bodies have been washed up on shore, it was hoped that the earring would serve as payment for "a proper Christian burial". Regardless of this expression, the practice predates Christianity and can be traced back as far as ancient Greece where the gold paid the ferryman, Charon, to provide passage across the river Styx to Hades.

Earrings were emblematic of poets during the 1660s (Sherrow, 2001). The practice of wearing earrings was a tradition for Ainu men and women, but the Government of Meiji Japan forbade Ainu men to wear earrings in the late-19th century (Ito, Masami 2008). Earrings were also commonplace among nomadic Turkic tribes. In the late 1960s, ear piercing began to make inroads among men through the hippie and gay communities, although they had been popular among sailors for decades (or longer). Modern body modification has taken on a more literal sense of vanity. In the late 1960s and early 70s, hippies and homosexuals adopted the wearing of earrings and the taboo quickly turned into a fad, catching on in the celebrity community, with punk rocks bands and athletes beginning to pierce their ears as well. In the late 1970s, amateur piercings, sometimes with safety pins and/or multiple piercings, became popular in the punk rock community. By the 1980s, the trend for male popular music performers to have pierced ears helped establish a fashion trend for men. This was later adopted by many professional athletes. British men started piercing both ears in the 1980s; George Michael of Wham! was a prominent example. The heavily jewelled Mr. T was an early example of an American celebrity wearing earrings in both ears, although this trend did not become popular with mainstream American men until the 1990s.

1.3 Types of Earring

The first types of earrings worn by men were typically made from carved wood, stone and ivory. Primitive Indian tribes often wore jewellery in their ears that resembled hooks or large bars with a sharp end. The earliest American earrings, worn by sailors, were often made of sterling silver and gold, and were shaped like hoops or studs. Today, there are a number of different types of earrings for men, ranging from classic studs and hoops to more elaborate forms of ear and facial modification. Gaged earrings, which create large holes, and the piercing of other parts of the ear, have grown in popularity in the last decade. Flesh tunnels and plugs are the most popular of the gaged earrings and require a large-gauge needle and subsequent stretching to create. Flesh tunnels allow you to see through the ear, while plugs are similar in width, but have solid jewellery plugging the hole. Modern and popular ear piercing techniques include, but are not limited to, the upper cartilage, tragus and the conch piercing.

1.4 Potential Spread of Earring in Men

Physical appearance has historically been attributed as a value to women, whilst men have been valued for other aspects of their lives such as work and intelligence (Calado, 2011). Male body image disorders have been invisible and apparently non-existent until recently as they would have challenged sociocultural preconceptions

regarding gender roles (Spitzer et al. 1999). However, since the beginning of the present century this scenario has changed with increasing pressure on men to conform to ideal body images as well. The stereotypes of mass media for males have been revised from heroes and male celebrities to muscular athletes and actors. Television and magazines now offer new categories that describe the ideal physical appearances men should aspire to and which are associated with certain lifestyles. All these categories have in common the imitation of messages linked to the association of celebrities, their physical appearance and success. The most famous representative is perhaps the footballer David Beckham. In fact, socialising agents and other actors realise that they have tapped into a new market, that these new models are accepted and imitated as ideal images (Farquhar and Wasylkiw, 2007; Leit et al., 2001; McCreary and Sasse, 2000; Spitzer et al. 1999. As in the case of women, men are now faced with ideal stereotypes based solely on their physical appearance but which promise success and wider social acceptance if obtained.

While male ear piercings have been around for centuries, they did not reach the mainstream until the late 80s and early 90s. In 1982, Lou Gossett Jr., wore a diamond earring when he stepped on stage to accept his Academy Award for the movie "An Officer and a Gentleman." Since then, there has been a strict following in the celebrity community, with stars like George Michael, Will Smith and David Beckham donning pierced ears. The popularity of ear piercing for men will only grow as the world begins to see it as an acceptable form of expression for both casual and formal affairs. With the advancements in the safety of body modification, coupled with the increased popularity and increased public tolerance, the male earring revolution has only just begun, expanding into a new arena of body modification that extends far beyond a small and delicate hole in the ear.

The exact period to which the trend, fashion or tradition of ear piercing in men began in Ghana is unknown. Unlike for example the Hindu practice in India where the practice of piercing is done on male when they attain the age of three or five, there is no such a practice in any known Ghanaian culture. What then could probably be responsible for this somewhat drastic change in culture? Could western lifestyle and the import of fashion be a trigger? Is it for fun or as a form of advertising ones professional character? These questions among others necessitated this investigation into why some men in Ghana are wearing earring contrary to their culture.

2. Methodology

2.1 The Study Area

The study was conducted within the Kumasi metropolis. The Kumasi metropolis was founded in the 1680's by King Osei Tutu I to serve as the capital of the Asante State (Fynn, 1971). Given its strategic location and political dominance, Kumasi as a matter of course, developed into a major commercial centre with all major trade routes converging on it (Dickson, 1969). However, it came under the influence of the British rule in 1890 (Adu Boahen, 1965). With time the city began to expand and grow thereby making it second only to Accra the capital city of Ghana in terms of land area, population size, social life and economic activity.

Kumasi is approximately 480 km north of the Equator and 160 km north of the Gulf of Guinea. It is between latitude 6.35o – 6.40o and longitude 1.30o – 1.35o, an elevation which ranges between 250 – 300 metres above sea level with an area of about 254 square kilometres. The unique centrality of the city as a traversing point from all parts of the country makes it a special place for many to migrate to. The city is a rapidly growing one with an annual growth rate of 5.47 per cent (Regional Statistical Office, Kumasi). It encompasses about 90 suburbs, many of which were absorbed into it as a result of the process of growth and physical expansion. The 2000 Population Census kept the population at 1,170,270. Culture as the totality of the way of life evolved by a people through experience and a reflection in an attempt to fashion a harmonious

co-existence with the environment has made the city of Kumasi the citadel of Ghana's rich cultural heritage. Although the Kumasi metropolis is Asante dominated, almost all the other ethnic groups in Ghana are represented.

2.2 Data Collection

This study is an empirical qualitative one. The target population was the general public in the Kumasi metropolis. However a simple random sampling technique was adopted to select 200 males and 100 females. Fifty per cent (50%) of the male population were those who wear earrings. In addition some religious opinion leaders and traditional rulers were also interviewed. The main instrument adopted for the collection of data was a structured Questionnaire. The questionnaire was pilot tested on 50 respondents and it yielded a Cronbach Alpha coefficient of 0.83. This coefficient signified high internal consistency and reliability (Pallant, 2001). The data collection exercise was done between July and August 2014. Ten (10) enumerators were appointed, trained for the exercise and provided with the questionnaires. The questionnaires were orally administered to respondents using the local language where necessary to ensure more accurate information gathering. The survey sought information on age, educational background, profession, marital status, residence status, factors that influence wearing of earring by men, societal acceptance, cultural values and implications of wearing of earring by men and the perception by women. Data analyses were both qualitative and quantitative. Percentages and ratios were calculated, and tables and figures constructed and drawn respectively.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1 Men Who Wear Earrings

3.1.1 Age

The profile of respondents who wear earring as shown in Figure 1 indicates that majority (68%) came from the age group 20 -30 years. This represents the youthful age group who are active in every sphere of life, particularly fashion. There was a very small segment of the middle age group (42 -52 years) representing 12 % of the sampled population who wear earrings. The fact that none of the respondents sampled was above the age of 55 implies that wearing of earring among men in Ghana is an activity that is prevalent among the youth. This observation is in variance to what is normally observed in other cultures such as the Hindu practices where children and the elderly are found wearing earrings. Halliwell and Dittmar (2003) in their study of a male sample reported significant differences regarding ages. Younger males, who were more effected by sociocultural body image pressures, exhibited behaviours aimed at changing parts of their bodies they were dissatisfied with.
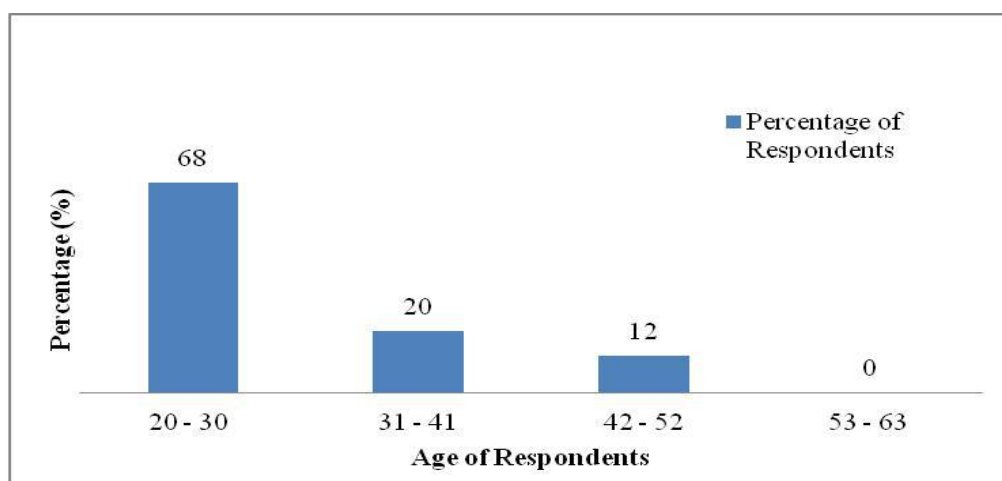

Fig. 1. Age of Men who wear earrings

3.1.2 Educational Background

Education has always been looked upon as a means for improving the socio-economic and cultural values of individuals in a society. The most striking revelation of this study was that all the respondents had some form of formal education. This is not surprising because the 2010 population census classified about 67% of the total population of Ghanaians as being literate (GSS, 2010). Interestingly 10% of the sampled population were students at tertiary institutions. This implies that the wearing of ear ring had no bearing on someone's educational background. The greater percentage of the respondents (72%) was people who had attained secondary education.
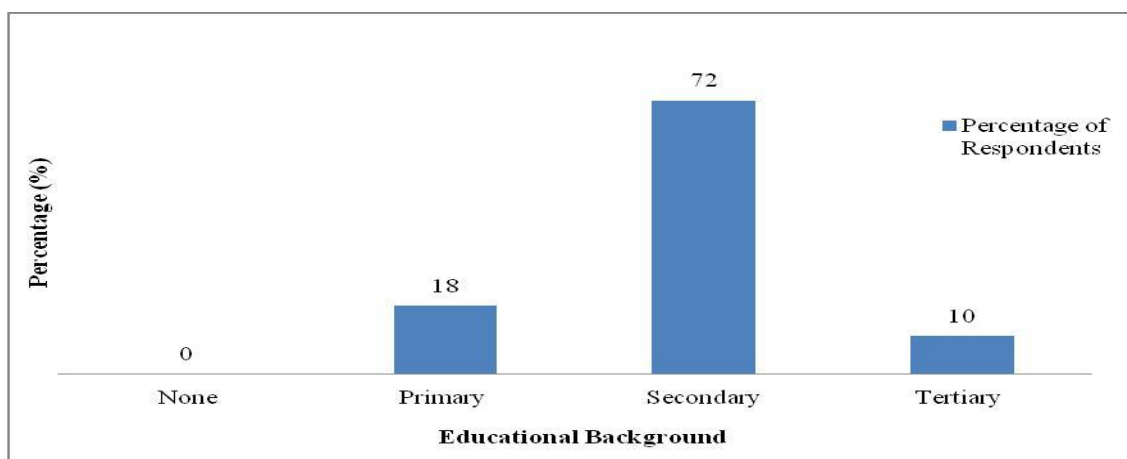

Fig. 2. Educational background of Men who wear earrings

3.1.3 Profession

The survey revealed that the respondents had varied occupation. Some were students (10%), others were self-employed (48%), sportsmen (12%), artistes (26%), pressmen (2%). The results showed that none of the respondents worked in the formal sector. This may probably be due to the work ethics of the formal sector.

3.1.4 Marital Status

It is unclear whether there is any relationship between marriage and wearing of earring in men. This is because it was observed that the majority (72%) of the respondents were unmarried. This is however unexpected and can be explained by the fact that most males in Ghana usually marry at or after the age of 30 years. The conception of the elderly interviewed is that men who wear earrings are suspected to be homosexuals. Though there might be no aorta of truth in this assertion, the elderly believe that could also influence the marriage pattern observed.

3.1.5 Ethnicity

No specific trend was observed in the wearing of earring by men in relation to ethnicity. Since the study was conducted in an Akan dominated population one would have expected that to manifest in the results obtained but that was to the contrary. The practice therefore cut across all cultures and traditions.

3.2 Reasons for Wearing Earring

Clothes and appearance are the most powerful nonverbal communicators not only of our socioeconomic status, but also of our moral values. We are what we wear. This means that the outward appearance is an important index of a person's character.

Body image research has argued that body gender stereotypes change from one culture to another and over time. Thus, ideal beauty would be different for every culture as every culture establishes standards that are adopted by varying expressions according to the historic period of the society (Frith et al., 2006). These beauty standards generate anomalous concerns and behaviours linked to body image and directed at obtaining these

ideals. However, because of globalising dynamics and global access to Western socialising agents' messages, there appears to be an increasing trend in ideal body image homogenisation regarding gender.

The results obtained for reasons accounting for the wearing of earrings by the respondents indicated that a sizeable number (52%) of the sampled population wear earrings as a fashion trend (Figure 3).
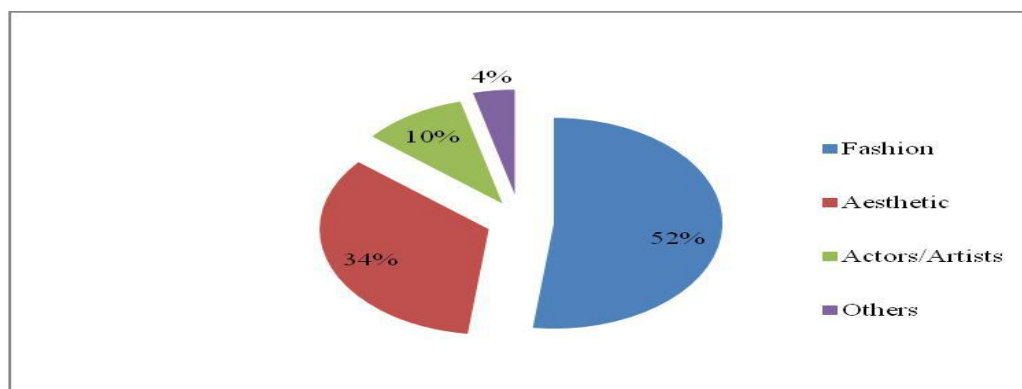

Fig. 3. Reasons for wearing earrings

Studies have shown that reading fashion magazines, exposure to television music videos and access to specific content through internet or social network websites, such as Facebook or Twitter (Cusumano and Thompson, 1997; Hatoum and Belle, 2004; Hogan and Strasburger, 2008), were associated with fashion amongst adolescents due to reiterative exposure to idealised beauty images and, in turn, triggered the desire for particular body adornment including the wearing of earring among men. Images that are represented by the media tend to transmit and reinforce dominant cultural ideologies as well as reject representations that question these stereotypes. Calado (2011) shows that these stereotyped body messages generate discrimination dynamics regarding gender roles and convey false ideas of reaching this ideal through processes of body transformation and of social success associated with specific body images, as well as possibly trigger unhealthy behaviours. The association between a certain type of personality traits and success is also reinforced by the mass media through the portrayal and glorification of celebrities.

However, the majority of society is exposed to reinforcing messages by the mass media that may cause body image dissatisfaction and does not develop unhealthy attitudes and/or behaviours. The question, therefore, would be to ask what psychological processes are triggered in a person by which he or she becomes more vulnerable to the group of beliefs, values and attitudes received by socialising agents.

Plain aesthetic value was cited as the second most important reasons for the wearing of earring by the respondents (32%). For the actors and artistes earring is worn so that they could fit into their respective professional roles and that accounted for 10%.

The number of years by which respondents have been wearing earring varied between 2 and 12 years with the majority having worn it for over 5 years. It can thus be deduced that the ascendancy of the culture began in the late 1990s or early 2000. During the survey it was interesting to examine the link between the residence statuses of the respondents. Analysis of the results showed that 24% of the sampled population have been to abroad (Holland ,Italy, London, USA), where all styles and fashion are permissible (Haralabos and Holborn, 2008).

Also staying abroad usually changes the work culture and life style of people and that probably could be responsible for this observation.

Asked whether those who wear earrings have had any negative comments from society, majority were quick to say yes. Some of these negative comments include verbal insults, disgusted looks, muttered comments, and job discrimination.

3.3 Perception of Women and Men Who Do Not Wear Earring

Table 1 provides the age composition of women and men who were interviewed.

Age	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women
				%	
20 - 30	18	28	46	39.13	60.87
31 - 41	54	48	102	52.94	47.06
51 - 61	23	18	41	56.1	43.9
71 - 81	5	6	11	45.45	54.55

The table showed that the largest number were in the 31-41 years age group. This represents the active and working age group of the population most of who are married (Ware, 1983). This age group also represent those who have the tendency to be influenced by global culture change and way of life. The age group between 71 -81 was the smallest segment of the population sampled. This is because the group represents those who are no more in active service and usually at home. Similar to the results obtained on the educational level for those who wear earrings, it was observed that the minimum educational level of these two categories of the strata of the study was secondary education. The sampled population were both public and private sector employers with the majority (58%) being private sector workers. When asked whether any of their male family members/friends/colleagues wear earrings, 96% responded no. Both the women and men interviewed indicated that the male age group between 15 – 30 are those who usually put on earrings which, favourably agrees with the results obtained in the survey of men who put on earrings. The majority of the women interviewed indicated that the putting on of earring by men did not in any way attract them. Rather they considered such men as rascals, gays or irresponsible. To them the wearing of earring is not masculine. They agreed that cultures do change, however changes such as wearing of earring in men are not right emphasizing the fact that the wearing of earring is traditionally a feminine thing in Ghana. All the strata of population interviewed indicated that the wearing of earring in men is not a cultural practice in Ghana and did not also know of any tribe in Ghana that practices the wearing of earring in men.

4.Conclusion

The central point of this paper was to examine whether it is appropriate culturally for Ghanaian males to wear an earring. Results obtained have indicated that the wearing of earring among Ghanaian males is a borrowed culture and that the trend of western culture has become very pervasive and prevalent, taken precedence over our values and culture with the latter regarded as inferior to the former.

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Factors Influencing the Process of Developing Quality Culture at the University of Social Sciences and Humanities, Vietnam National University-Ho Chi Minh City

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Abstract

The research paper identifies some key factors that influence the process of developing quality culture (QC) at the University of Social Sciences and Humanities, Vietnam National University-Ho Chi Minh City (USSH, VNU-HCM) from the result of the study carried out at this institution in 2012-2013. It firstly presents the process of developing QC at USSH, VNU-HCM, secondly analyzes some factors affecting this process positively and negatively, and finally makes some recommendations to the teaching and management staff, the university and its units in order to develop QC by taking advantage of the positive factors and trying to overcome the negative ones.

Keywords: Quality culture; Vietnamese higher education; Recommendations

1.Background

One of the goals of *Vietnam Higher Education Reform Agenda* in accordance with the Decree No. 14 promulgated by the Government is to set up Quality Assurance (QA) mechanism in higher education. To enhance quality, there should be strong commitment from leaders at all levels together with the synergy of teaching and management staff as well as students in the whole higher education institution. In other words, everyone should be imbued with QC. One of the key factors for an effective Internal Quality Assurance (IQA) system is successful QC. Therefore, it is necessary to study the factors influencing the process of building QC in order to make use of the positive factors and to overcome the obstacles in this process.

2.Quality Culture and Quality Culture in Higher Education

2.1 Quality culture

Among many definitions of QC, the following definition from European University Association is quite complete and easy to understand: "Quality culture refers to an organisational culture that intends to enhance quality permanently and it is characterised by two distinct elements: on the one hand, a cultural/psychological element of shared values, beliefs, expectations and commitment towards quality and, on the other hand, a structural/managerial element with defined processes that enhance quality and aim at coordinating individual

efforts." (EUA 2006:10)

The first element is quite intangible, but for sustainable development, quality should be a well-defined value that everyone in the same organization believes, understands, shares and makes commitment for continuous improvement to obtain its quality aims on the basis of specific procedures. QC focuses on the quality value which is one of the values of an institution. If we define the quality of an organization as the fulfillment of its aims/objectives and we want to create the quality value, clear objectives need to be specified in all activities and then activities are carried out to reach the objectives; the efficiency or degree of this attainment must be assessed as well as improvements must be made and new objectives at higher level will be set up in a new PLAN-DO-CHECK-ACT cycle (Deming cycle).

2.2 Quality culture in higher education

QC at a higher education institution (HEI) can be shown at several levels: *desire* for quality or *awareness*/*belief* (cultural/psychological element) in the importance of quality*, understanding* of tools/processes to measure and enhance quality and performing *action* towards quality improvement to satisfy different stakeholders, including learners, employers and meet the demands of the society.

At the first level, QC represents everyone's *belief* in the continuous improvement and adjustment to meet the minimum and higher requirements/expectations of stakeholders, their good *awareness* of the importance of making contributions to the shared improvement objectives, and as a result the long-term benefits for each individual and the organization.

At the level of understanding, everyone *has a good understanding* of their duties/obligations, the objectives and requirements of their tasks and of how to apply the tools/procedures to fulfill their tasks effectively and meet increasingly higher requirements. That means, they understand their responsibilities towards the society and the accountability to satisfy the stakeholders as well as the common objectives of their HEIs.

The level of *operation/action* can be manifested in the case when everyone not only knows how to make and implement plans, but they also voluntarily and really *participate in the continuous improvement* in all daily tasks and activities (action with appropriate procedures/initiatives/skills). More specifically, they must be able to make *assessment* and get feedback from the stakeholders related to their current jobs to define the real situation and measure their success in their task, to learn from the best practices to make corrections.

At the higher level, everyone will be willing to *share* the results and benefits of improvements, can *learn* from each other's best practices, make contributions or give initiatives/recommendations/ suggestions to their colleagues or other units to make improvements together.

Therefore, we can find that the factors necessary for the development of QC include: (1) The *specification* of criteria, quality indicators and requirements for each task, other tools/procedures to fulfill the tasks including QA policies, guidelines, data system, quality handbook; (2) *Informing, giving instructions or training* to enhance everyone's understanding of these criteria, requirements and tools; (3) Creation of *mechanism* to develop the habit of monitoring, making self-assessment, peer review, getting feedback from external evaluation; (4) Creation of *mechanism and measures for rewarding, recognizing* and *encouraging* people to make improvements and share best practices; and (5) Regular *support/consultancy* from experts and adequate resources.

3.The Factors Influencing the Development of Quality Culture at USSH, VNU-HCM

The study was based on 642 respondents, including 437 students at 9 faculties and 111 faculty members at 15 faculties/departments as well as 94 management staff members at 11 typical administrative units (offices/departments/centers) at USSH, VNU-HCM.

3.1 General awareness of importance of quality culture

The respondents' awareness of QC can be represented through their desire to fulfil their duties successfully to get stakeholders' satisfaction. The result of the survey to get the staff and students' opinions on the importance of QC with 5 degrees of importance is shown in the table below:

Table 3.1. Awareness of the importance of QC

The importance of QC	Teaching staff (%)	Managing staff (%)	Students (%)
Very important	56.9	53.0	52.5
Important	41.1	38.6	37.9
Quite important	2.0	8.4	6.8
Not important	0	0	0.2
Totally unimportant	0	0	0.2
No opinions	0	0	2.4

The result from *Table 3.1* shows that, in general, all the respondents value highly the importance of QC in HEI, in which the teaching staff value its importance more highly than the other 2 groups, managing staff and students (98% faculty members find it *important* and *very important* compared with 91.6% in managing staff and 90.4% in students)

In reality, there may be various viewpoints about quality, but there should be certain common quality values that everyone shares. The result of the study into the attitude of working towards quality of the respondents in the survey is reflected through their opinion on the necessity/importance of the following values: *Continuous improvement* (98.2% by faculty, 97.7% by managing staff), *Creativity* (94.6% by faculty members, 94.0% by managing staff), *Discipline* (89.1% by faculty, 92.0% by managing staff), *Responsibility* (98.2% by faculty, 97.7% by managing staff), *Enthusiasm* (92.7% by faculty, 94.1% by managing staff), *Respect* (94.6% by faculty, 93.1% by managing staff), *Democracy* (91,8% by faculty, 90.7% by managing staff), *Cooperation* (93.5% by faculty, 90.7% by managing staff), *Transparency* (97.2% by faculty, 96.6% by managing staff), *Academic freedom* (92.6 by faculty, 74.2% by managing staff), *Sustainability* (89.1% by faculty, 86.9% by managing staff), *High quality* (91.6% by faculty, 86.1% by managing staff), *Excellence* (70.2% by faculty, 70.2% by managing staff),…

In general, both teaching and managing staff value highly the following values: *Improvement, Creativity, Responsibility, Enthusiasm, Cooperation* and *Transparency*; in which *Responsibility* and *Transparency* are the values which receive the highest level of evaluation by both groups. This is a good signal to show that the staff of USSH, VNU-HCM have quite a good sense of responsibility in their tasks/assignments and value the publicity, transparency of information.

3.2. Opinions on the importance of QA activities

The opinions of the staff members of USSH, VNU-HCM about the importance of the quality of all QA

activities currently carried out at each unit of USSH, VNU-HCM or in the whole institution have been shown in the following table:

Table 3.2. Opinion on the importance of QA activities

The necessity/importance of the QA activities	Totally agree (%)		Agree (%)	
	Teaching staff	Managing staff	Teaching staff	Managing staff
Periodical surveys to get feedback from stakeholders	40.6	36.2	41.5	48.9
Periodical self-assessment at institutional level by MOET requirements/criteria	26.9	20.4	44.4	59.1
Periodical self-assessment at program level by AUN-QA criteria	24.1	19.6	50.0	56.5
Periodical review of the programs according to the faculty's plan or in compliance with the HEI's requirements	33.6	21.7	43.0	51.1
Periodical training for QA officers and regular meetings of QA units to share best practices.	25.0	24.5	47.2	54.3
Efficient running and updating QA data system	35.5	36.3	52.3	46.2
Formulation, review and adjustment of procedures for core activities	27.4	27.2	54.7	51.1
Periodical evaluation/preliminary review and making QA plans for each individual, each unit and the whole HEI	19.4	21.7	54.6	56.5
Developing recognition and reward system for QA activities	36.1	34.0	44.4	44.7
Organizing seminars, conferences about QA	23.1	16.3	53.7	57.6

The table 3.2 above shows that, in general, the teaching and managing staff recognize the importance of quality in all QA activities in their units and in the whole institution. The high degree of agreement of both groups (more than 80% choose the option from agreement and above) including: (1) Periodical surveys to get feedback from stakeholders, (2) Efficient running and updating QA data system and especially (3) Developing recognition and reward system for QA activities. These activities should be maintained and developed further as they are positive factors influencing QC in the whole institution at the level of understanding and operation.

However, some activities which are not highly appreciated by both groups include: Periodical evaluation/preliminary review, making specific QA plans for individuals, units and the whole HEI (only 19.4% faculty and 21.7% non-academic/managing staff find it very necessary); Organizing training courses, seminars, conferences about QA, accreditation (only 23.1% faculty and 16.3% non-academic staff find this activity very necessary). These are new activities at the HEI which have not been popular and they are not in the habit of carrying out these activities.

The students are well aware of their active participation in personal development, making contributions by giving feedback on the courses and teaching activities, giving feedback during the *survey or program review* (80% students choose the option of *importance* or *great importance*). The lowest level of importance can be found in *Participation in the self-assessment at institutional and program level* (only 12.3% and 13.5% students find it *very necessary*). These activities have not been communicated widely to students; therefore, they have not seen the benefits from these activities.、

3.3. Staff's understanding of quality requirements

3.3.1 Teaching staff's understanding of quality requirements

Good understanding of quality indicators/requirements or competence in complying with the

requirements is very important in developing QC at a HEI. The result of the survey on the teaching staff's understanding of quality requirements for each activity is shown in the following table:

Table 3.3.1. Teachers' understanding of the task requirements

Teaching staff's understanding of quality requirements	Very good understand-ing	Good understand-ing	Fairly good understand-ing	No understand-ing
Curricula	24.1%	58.3%	15.7%	1.9%
Course syllabi	39.8%	50.9%	8.3%	0.9%
Teaching activities	35.2%	53.7%	10.2%	0.9%
Learning assessment	29.6%	54.6%	15.7%	0.1%
Scientific research	28.0%	55.1%	15.0%	1.9%
Academic advising	17.9%	56.6%	21.7%	3.8%

Table 3.3.1 shows that, the teaching staff admit that they have the best knowledge *of the quality requirements for the course syllabi* (more than 90% faculty choose the level from good understanding and higher) and the lowest level of understanding is found in *Academic advising,* only about 70% faculty members choose the options of good and very good understanding, in which the level of *very good understanding* account for only 17.9%. *Academic advising* should be taken into more serious consideration especially in the credit-based system. Due to the lack of good understanding of the specific quality requirements for the activities mentioned above, the teaching staff cannot know what their real weaknesses are and what should be done to overcome the weaknesses or how, not mentioning that their self-evaluation without considering feedback from stakeholders is usually subjective since they have no basis for comparison with the requirements/criteria in the set of requirements.

3.3.2 Managing staff's and students' understanding of the quality requirements

The following table shows the understanding of the quality requirements by the managing staff for their tasks:

Table 3.3.2. Managing staff's knowledge of QA requirements

Managing staff's understanding of the quality requirements	Very good knowledge	Good knowledge	Fairly good knowledge	No knowledge
Supporting students	16.1%	50.5%	31.2%	2.2%
Supporting colleagues	14.3%	50.5%	30.8%	4.4%
Professional knowledge	23.3%	50.0%	25.6%	1.1%
Coordination with other units in the HEI	9.0%	51.7%	37.1%	2.2%

Table 3.3.2 shows that the non-academic staff themselves consider their understanding of the quality requirements for their tasks not quite high in all the activities of Supporting students, colleagues; Professional knowledge and Coordination with other units in the HEI. About 50% of these non-academic staff choose the level of good understanding; very few respondents choose the level of very good understanding. Especially the Coordination with other units in the HEI get the lowest level of understanding, only about 60% of the staff know about it (only 9% staff know very well). The institution has not set the specific requirements of coordination among the units and faculties/departments and they do not get into the habit of getting feedback from stakeholders, listening to colleagues for efficient coordination.

As for the students, the result shows that they are in the need of getting information related to student

support/services as well as the information/feedback from alumni/employers on the job requirements and training quality, strategic plans of the institution on the solutions for quality improvement (in average, about 80% of students find these pieces of information of great importance to them). Many students do not understand well the learning outcomes and the requirements for their study (nearly 30%).

3.4. Participation of staff in QA activities

Not only the strong commitment but also the real active participation in QA activities will lead to the success of developing QC in the HEI, especially in the improvement activities, continuous quality enhancement, which is the highest and most specific level of QC. The result of the survey on the participation of all staff in QA activities is as follows:

In short, the level of participation of all staff in QA activities is not quite high, only at average level (about 50% of the respondents admit that they sometimes take part in these activities or even at lower frequency). Except for the compulsory activities required by the HEI at the end of each academic year for the final evaluation and for rewarding (such as Periodical review of the QA activities in the unit; Updating adequate individual QA data…), other voluntary QA activities receive very low level of participation of the staff (only sometimes or rarely), especially lower by the non-academic staff. For instance, only 50.3% faculty staff often and very often formulate the objectives, development plans and quality improvements for their individual tasks compared with 43.5% non-academic staff; 45.8% faculty staff make contributions/give suggestions to QA objectives and improvement plans at their units (compared with 39.1% non-academic staff); 24.5 % faculty staff make contributions to QA objectives and improvement plans at the institution level (compared with 19.6% non-academic staff); 42% make contributions or give initiatives to curricula/training programs, training activities, student and colleague support (compared with 28.1% non-academic staff)…

Especially, only 25% faculty members regularly consider their students' feedback on their teaching courses to improve their teaching content and activities; only 3.6% non-academic staff regularly consider the senior students' and alumni's feedback on all the training activities of HEI to make improvements for their units or give suggestions of improvement to their units.

3.5. Advantages and disadvantages in QA activities

The staff of both groups focus on the following advantages in developing QC at the HEI: (1) The determination and concern for QA of the Party Committee and the managing board of the HEI, (2)The determination and concern for QA of the managing board of the faculties/departments, (3) Love for career, good sense of responsibility of the whole staff at USSH, VNU-HCM… (nearly 80% of all the staff agree with these factors as positive factors). The establishment and activities of QA teams at all units at the institution, which is another positive factor, is agreed on by nearly 80% of the staff of both groups). The lower level of agreement by the staff of both groups is found in: (1) Chances for learning best practices from other HEIs, (2) The concern and support from VNU-HCM, (3)History, culture/tradition and national reputation of USSH, VNU-HCM, (4) Support, instructions, guidance from the Office of Educational Testing & QA (over 70% choose agree and totally agree).

The difficulties, obstacles or factors negatively influencing the development the QC or QA activities are shown in the following (both through questionnaires and interview) result (around between 70% and 80% of the staff in the survey agree): (1) Constraints in financial support and facilities/infrastructure for QA activities while salaries are too low (2) Shortage in human resources for QA, (3) Time limit due to holding 2 or more positions concurrently or various obligations, part-time jobs,··· (4) Limit in the knowledge and experience of QA and quality assessment, indicators for measurement and (5) Limits in consultants and experts who support QA activities. There are sometimes differences in the opinions of the 2 groups in: Lack of habit in sharing and coordinating between the units in the HEI (71.3% faculty staff see it as a kind of difficulty compared with 64.2% non-academic staff). The faculty staff also express higher expectation on the policies for recognition and rewarding for QA achievements than non-academic staff (71.3% faculty staff, 59.4% non-academic agree and totally agree).

4.Conclusion and Recommendations

4.1 Conclusion on the development of QC and influencing factors

QC has initially been formed at the USSH-HCM, VNU-HCM in recent years, which is relatively well-developed at the level of awareness/belief. In spite of some good chances and favorable conditions for its further development, the process of building and developing QC is still quite slow and faced with many difficulties, not only due to a variety of conceptions about the quality of education and methods of performing QA activities, but also due to limited understanding related to quality requirements/indicators, tools for measurement/revision and other factors. There are advantages and disadvantages reflecting various main positive and negative factors influencing the process of building and improving QC at the University. External factors include the objective factors (such as the competitive context/environment, regional integration, culture/traditions, autonomy, working pressure, life-necessity...) and the subjective ones (such as senior authority, human resources, material resources, financial resources, policies, guidelines, working /coordination methods of units...). The internal factors of intrinsic motivation of the individuals include the subjective and objective factors such as the working habits, sense of responsibility, knowledge of QA, awareness of the long-term benefits, perspectives/viewpoints, the eagerness to learn, enthusiasm, determination, concern... A good understanding of these factors as well as their roots/causes will lead to the solutions for overcoming the disadvantages and making use of the positive factors in order to develop QC effectively.

4.2 Recommendations

The HEI needs to promote rewarding and recognition/encouragement measures to attract more contributions/participation of all the staff and students in quality improvement, pay due attention to the incomes and life circumstances of the staff and try to give them appropriate support, create a friendly environment for sharing quality value, organizational values in the institution such as *improvement, responsibility* and *creativity*, making stronger commitment in QA together with real actions. The QA unit of the institution needs to play a better role in consulting, coordinating and monitoring the development of QC, creating the habit of periodical

review/evaluation, developing a good information or database system, guidelines with clear quality indicators.

The faculties/departments need to improve their knowledge in curriculum development, syllabus design and development, active and modern teaching activities/strategies, accrediation/evaluation criteria of the training programs…, voluntarily and regularly enhance the teaching quality, getting feedback from stakeholders, formulating the quality objectives, strategies for quality improvement and enhancement at their faculties/departments. Deans and department heads should have leadership and change management competence in addition to their QA knowledge. The administrative offices need to improve their attitude, enthusiasm in supporting students, colleagues, contribute initiatives, teamwork habit and skills…

Students nowadays play an increasingly important role in the improvement of training quality in the HEI with their constructive feedback on different channels. They need to be well aware of their responsibility and benefits in giving feedback in the survey at their faculties or in the HEI.

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