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Alfabetizaçâo De Jovens E Adultos: "Ainda Não" Como Potencialização Do Saber Na Prática Pedagógica

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Resumo - Com a intenção de compreender com mais profundidade a alfabetização de jovens e adultos, este artigo faz uma reflexão sobre as práticas pedagógicas dos professores bem como de alunos estagiários do Curso de Pedagogia de um Centro Universitário Municipal que atuam nessa modalidade. Trabalhou-se com os seguintes referenciais: Boaventura Santos (2006); Freire (2001); Maturana (2001); Vieira Pinto (2001); Moran (2002); Arroyo (2005); e Massagão (2010). Como metodologia, escolheu-se a observação participante, que envolve três etapas: aproximação da instituição e estabelecimento de vínculos; realização da observação no contexto dos sujeitos para a coleta de dados; registro posterior de comportamentos, ações e diálogos observados durante a observação. Análises preliminares permitem afirmar que os saberes encontrados nas professoras observadas nas práticas pedagógicas apontam a permanência de uma prática de negação.

Palavras-Chave : *alfabetização de jovens e adultos. prática pedagógica. potencialização do saber.*

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Alfabetizaçâo De Jovens E Adultos: “Ainda Não” Como Potencialização Do Saber Na Prática Pedagógica

Wanderléa Pereira Damásio Maurício

Resumo - Com a intenção de compreender com mais profundidade a alfabetização de jovens e adultos, este artigo faz uma reflexão sobre as práticas pedagógicas dos professores bem como de alunos estagiários do Curso de Pedagogia de um Centro Universitário Municipal que atuam nessa modalidade. Trabalhou-se com os seguintes referenciais: Boaventura Santos (2006); Freire (2001); Maturana (2001); Vieira Pinto (2001); Moran (2002); Arroyo (2005); e Massagão (2010). Como metodologia, escolheu-se a observação participante, que envolve três etapas: aproximação da instituição e estabelecimento de vínculos; realização da observação no contexto dos sujeitos para a coleta de dados; registro posterior de comportamentos, ações e diálogos observados durante a observação. Análises preliminares permitem afirmar que os saberes encontrados nas professoras observadas nas práticas pedagógicas apontam a permanência de uma prática de negação. O Não que está embutido nessas práticas sinaliza certa visão fragmentada, que pode ser interpretada como desconhecimento da história de vida desses sujeitos, ausência do olhar crítico das educadoras para o Ainda-Não, ou seja, para a possibilidade de mudança do processo de vidas dos sujeitos, falta de formação para trabalhar com esta modalidade, ausência do Poder Público ao consentir a descontinuidade de formação continuada e o não acompanhamento dos professores nessa modalidade. Ainda não se constitui na possibilidade da formação dos educadores que trabalham com sujeitos jovens e adultos, na seleção dos professores, por parte do Poder Público, exigindo educadores qualificados e abertos à compreensão dos elementos básicos que provocam os educandos à continuidade dos estudos e lhe dão o direito ao conhecimento, com capacidade de compreender e utilizar a informação escrita e refletir sobre ela.

Palavras-Chave : alfabetização de jovens e adultos. prática pedagógica. potencialização do saber.

I. Introdução

A alfabetização de jovens e adultos, no Brasil, aponta fragilidades que demonstram ações ainda não consolidadas no âmbito educacional. Para Pinto (1982, p. 79), “o adulto é o membro da sociedade ao qual cabe a produção social, a direção da sociedade e a reprodução da espécie”. Segundo o Instituto Brasileiro de Geografia de Estatística (IBGE, 2010), 14,6 milhões de cidadãoscima de 10 anos são analfabetos.

Tendo em vista esses dados, este artigo tem como objetivo refletir sobre a Alfabetização de Jovens e Adultos no âmbito educacional. Sujeitos com idade entre 20 e 70 anos, que desconhecem os signos linguísticos, encontram-sehá dois anos na mesma turma e sentem o reflexo das dificuldades da leitura e escrita. As cópias de textos são dominadas pelos mesmos, mas a leitura e a interpretação estão ausentes nesse processo.Este fato empírico foi constatado pelo grupo de Estágio Curricular de uma Universidade Pública, mais precisamente no Curso de Pedagogia, e serviu como instrumento para que se possa discutir e refletir sobre as práticas de ensino que permeiam esta modalidade de ensino.

O que faz com que esses sujeitos ainda desconheçam a capacidade de “utilizar e refletir sobre a informação escrita” (Massagão, 2010)por tantos semestres? Levando em conta que a escola vem modificando sua prática pedagógica, com o advento das tecnologias, que são utilizadasmassivamente nas Unidades escolares, o que contribui para o afastamento dos sujeitos da escola?

Na década de 1980, o que se instaurava no campo da educação era a questão do currículo. Era perceptível que este conceito estava no plano geral de discussão de qualquer temática na educação. Moreira (1990) lembra os movimentos em torno do currículo como foco principal da educação nesse período.

Já na década de 1990, a gestão tornou-se o foco das discussões e foi formalizada como o cerne para a melhoria da qualidade do ensino. Nóvoa(2011), em suas palestras, chamava a atençãosobre o quanto o conceito de gestão estava instalado no bojo das discussões.

Na década de 2000, as Tecnologias tomaram olugar da gestãoe se constituíram no instrumentoque daria conta das problemáticas educacionais. Lévy (1998, p. 26) já lembrava que a utilização multiforme dos computadores para o ensino estava se propagando na escola, na casa, na formação profissional e contínua.

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Entretanto, o currículo, a gestão, as tecnologias não foram elementos suficientes para a minimização da fragilização do processo de aprendizagem. Dessa forma, chega-se ao século XXI com dados alarmantes sobre os sujeitos jovens e adultos que ainda não estão alfabetizados.

A prática pedagógica vem sendo acompanhada, durante um longo percurso, peloseducadores, e presenciam-se, nos espaços educativos, metodologias arcaicas e afastadas da realidade dos processos de aprendizagem dos sujeitos. Práticas tradicionais que reforçam a repetição do saberou, como diz Freire (2006), a"educação bancária". A construção do conhecimento parece não despertar nos sujeitos a dialogicidade. Escrever é apenas um reforço, como se esta questão desse conta da apropriação da linguagem e da leitura do mundo.

Não se desconsidera o vasto conhecimento na linguagem oraldesses sujeitos, ao contrário, este processo caminha lado a lado na construção do conhecimento.

Mas o que se verifica, na empiria observada, são apenas as cópias e os registros de repetição. Isso significa a ausência de um trabalho coletivo, inovador, dialógico, provocador e intervencionista, mediado pelo educador.Tal iniciativa inexiste nesse cenário.

Na realidade, parece se estabelecer uma visão ingênua de queessa deficiência pode ser superada, comprovando a existência de uma sociedade fragilizada, que persiste no abandono desses sujeitos, bem como na não ruptura com uma sociedade dominante.

a) Desenvolvimento

Ainda Não: Perspectivas Que Permeiam a Possibilidade De Mudança, a Potencialização Do Saber

O termo Ainda não, conforme se apresenta no presente texto,tem origem no filósofo Boaventura dos Santos (2006, p. 117), quando o mesmo afirma que "Ainda-Não é a consciência antecipatória, [...] é, por um lado, capacidade, (potência) e, por outro, possibilidade (potencialidade)." Buscou-se empregar este termo para ampliar o olhar sobre a atual situação que persiste na Alfabetização de Jovens e Adultos. Vislumbrando-se uma possibilidade de refletir sobre a questão da aprendizagem dos sujeitos, bem como sobre a prática pedagógica dos professores que atuam nessa modalidade, considera-se várias vertentes de inovação no âmbito pedagógico: a realidade dos sujeitos, a tecnologia como meio e possibilidade de mudança, a aproximação com conteúdos que interagem na realidade dos mesmos e a mediação-intervenção no processo de aprendizagem entre educador e sujeito.

Para Santos (2006, 116), "o Não é a falta de algo e a expressão da vontade de superar esta falta. O ainda-Não é a categoria mais completa, porque exprime o que existe apenascomo tendência, um movimento latente no processo de se manifestar".

Ainda-Não equivale a poder provocar a mudança, minimizar a exclusão e alavancar saltos positivos para a vida desses educandos.Novamente se evocaSantos (2006, 117), que afirma que "a possibilidade é o movimento do mundo". Os momentos dessa possibilidade são a carência (manifestação de algo que falta), a tendência (processo e sentido) e a latência (o que está na frente desse processo).

Pronunciando-se sobre o assunto,Massagão, (2010, p. 144) conceitua alfabetismo como:

> a capacidade de compreender, utilizar e refletir sobre a informação escrita que abrange desde o conhecimento rudimentar de elementos da linguagem escrita até as operações cognitivas complexas que envolvem a integração de informações textuais e dessas com os conhecimentos e visão de mundo aportados pelo leitor.

Graças aos movimentos de grupos e às políticas perpetuadas nesta modalidade de ensino, aos poucos, algumas ações foram sendo apresentadas, como possibilidades de mudanças, visualizando um cenário promissor para esta modalidade, tendo em vista que, como diz Laffin (2006), "não há tempos definidos de aprendizagem, mas a aprendizagem a qualquer tempo da vida dos sujeitos". Ainda-Não é um termo que possibilita a vontade de fazer acontecer, atitude de provocar a mudança, problematizar e apresentar resultados de melhoria nas práticas pedagógicas.

Mas afinal, quem são esses sujeitos jovens e adultos incluídos nesses cenários da EJA? Para Arroyo (2005: p. 23),

> são sujeitos que não tiveram acesso, na infância e na adolescência, ao ensino fundamental, ou dele foram excluídos ou dele se evadiram. O Direito para jovens e adultos à educação continua sendo visto sob a ótica da escola, da universalização do ensino fundamental, de dar novas oportunidadesde acesso a esses níveis de ensino não-cursados no tempo tido em nossa tradição como oportuno para a escolarização.

Considera-se fundamental discutir sobre tal problema, embora se saiba que as políticas para a EJA ainda são fragmentadas. Há uma questão norteadora dessa pesquisa: quais são os processos formativos que possibilitam a compreensão dos saberes desses sujeitos? O interesse por esta problemática surgiuquando do acompanhamento da pesquisadora, durante dois anos,de acadêmicos da prática de ensino,visualizando práticas pedagógicas sem significados que persistem em fazer os sujeitos da EJA

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continuarem, por vários semestres, repetindo sem a capacidade de compreender a informação escrita, utilizá-la e refletir sobre ela. (Massagão, 2010).

Saberes Para a Prática Pedagógica E Aprendizagem Dos Sujeitos Da Eja

Vários estudiosos, como Freire, Pinto,Maturana, Arroyo discutem elementos constitutivos que evocam os saberes necessários para a EJA. Julga-se interessante apresentar, aqui, o pensamento de alguns deles.

No entendimento de Freire (2005, p. 66)

> quando o educador passa a oferecer situações de conteúdos que favorecem a memorização, a educação se torna um ato de depósito e, neste ato, os educadores são os depositários e o educador o depositante. Em lugar de comunicar-se, o educador faz comunicados, que se memorizam e se repetem.

Freire (2005) dá o nome de "educação bancária", como forma de apresentar um cenário ainda bastante utilizado nas práticas pedagógicas dos professores. Para este autor, na visão bancária da educação, o saber é uma doação dos que se julgam sábios aos que eles julgam nada saber. Assim, na qualidade de "doação que se fundamenta numa das manifestações instrumentais da ideologia da opressão" (FREIRE, 2005, p. 67), o saber passa a ser um depósito de informações.

Já Tortajada&Peláez (1997, p. 141) fazem a seguinte afirmação:

> Sin negar La importância de La dimensión informacional o comunicacional emlãs sociedades Del futuro, lo cierto es que el elemento común subjacente a los diversos aspectos de funcionamiento de las sociedades emergentes es el tecnológico. As tecnologias são estratégias que podem oferecer possibilidades de extensão.

Nessa perspectiva, Maturana (2001, p. 31) diz que

> todo ato de conhecer faz surgir um mundo. O autor lembraque toda reflexão, inclusive a que se faz sobre os fundamentos do conhecer humano, ocorre necessariamente na linguagem, que é a maneira particular de ser humanos e estar no fazer humano.

Concorda-se igualmente com Santos (2006, p. 118) quando esse autor declara que "a possibilidade é o movimento do mundo ..." por um lado conhecer melhor as condições de possibilidade da esperança; por outro, definir princípios de ação que promovam a realização dessas condições. Dando sua contribuição para a discussão sobre o tema, Mclhuan (1969, p. 128), o grande pensador da era digital,enfatizava que "a educação tem que se desviar da instrução, da imposição de estereótipos, para buscar a descoberta – indo à sondagem e exploração bem como ao reconhecimento da linguagem das formas." O referido autor ainda salienta que "os jovens de hoje querem papéis - PAPÉIS." Isto significa total comprometimento. Eles não querem objetivos ou empregos fragmentados e especializados. As tecnologias têm papel fundante no processo de aprendizagem.

Por sua vez, Pinto (apud GADOTTI, 2005, p. 250) salienta que

> a educação é um processo, portanto é o decorrer de um fenômeno (a formação do homem) no tempo, ou seja, é um fato histórico. Porém, é histórico em duplo sentido: primeiro, no sentido de que representa a própria história individual de cada ser humano; segundo, no sentido de que está vinculada à fase vivida pela comunidade em sua contínua evolução [...].

Percebe-se, na fala do referido autor, que os conhecimentos prévios destes sujeitos devem ser valorizados.

Desta forma, defende-se o diálogo (Freire) e a circularidade (Maturana) como instrumento de criticidade nesta pesquisa e nos contextos da EJA. A temática de estudo planejada segue com amplo roteiro de pensar os trabalhos por meio da investigação da história desses sujeitos. Para Freire (2002, p. 130),

> do ponto de vista metodológico, a investigação que desde seu início, se baseia na relação simpática, de que falamos, tem mais esta dimensão fundamental para a sua segurança – a presença crítica de representantes do povo desde seu começo até sua fase final, a da análise da temática encontrada, que se prolonga na organização do conteúdo programático da ação educativa, como ação cultural libertadora.

Conclui-se citando mais uma vez Santos (2006, p. 107), para quem "o princípio da incompletude de todos os saberes é condição da possibilidade de diálogo e debate epistemológico entre diferentes formas de conhecimentos".

Neste viés de contextos formativos da EJA, a tematização, a investigação e a problematização constituem um tripé de convicções que vão atuar na efetivação de uma prática pedagógica inclusiva, em que os atores são partícipes de processo educativo.

Empiria Observada: Reflexões Acerca Das Práticas Pedagógicas Que Insistem Na Continuidade Do Não

Esta pesquisa, de cunho exploratório, foi realizada por meio da observaçãoda pesquisadora, durante três semestres, de seisturmas de Alfabetização de Jovens e Adultos, tendo como alvo as práticas pedagógicas de seis professores efetivos e contratados pelo Poder Público Municipal, contandocom a participação deestagiários do Curso de Pedagogia de um Centro Universitário Público em SC. A dinâmica se

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apresentou da seguinte maneira: os educandos estagiários observaram, em oito encontros,salas de aulas da EJA e fizeram cinco intervenções, por meio de um projeto de ações norteadas por referencial teórico. O foco inicial era perceber como a prática pedagógica das professoras de sala de aula potencializava a aprendizagem dos sujeitos aprendizes.

Caminhos Construtivos Que Provocam os Sujeitos a Resignificar Seu Processo De Aprendizagem

Todos os professores da EJA eram graduados em Pedagogia, mas não tinham a experiência e nem formação nessa modalidadede ensino. Durante as observações dessas práticas pedagógicas, constatou-se que eram professores reproduzindo uma "educação bancária" (Freire, 2005), pois a constância se dava na cópia e repetição de conteúdos. Não se verificou um planejamento ou plano de trabalho para as aulas, sendo que os assuntos eram colocados no quadro negro e os exercícios levavam à decoreba.Confirmam-se assim as palavras de Arroyo (2005, p. 48,), para quem os jovens e osadultos que chegam a EJA "[...] são náufragos ou vítimas do caráter pouco público de nosso sistema escolar". As práticas vivenciadas são fruto da ausência do poder público na formação dos educadores. O "Não" evidenciado por Santos (2006) é interpretadopela pesquisadora como negação de possibilidades. De acordo com uma fala de um sujeito da EJA (com 60 anos): *"Sei escrever bem, mas não leio nada, não entendo as letras".* Percebeu-se, nessas observações, quehavia a insistência dos professores em continuar negando aos sujeitos a possibilidade de compreender, utilizar a informação escrita e refletir sobre ela.

Os estagiários traziam para as reuniões do grupo estas situações que, então, eram discutidas com o respaldo dos referenciais teóricos.Cada momento observado era analisado pelo grupo e dessa forma a construção do projeto ia se constituindo, tendo em vista que, mesmo o conhecimento mais sofisticado, se estiver totalmente isolado, deixa de ser pertinente (MORIN, 2002, p. 30). Efetivamente, a prática pedagógica, quando instaurada de forma contextualizada, pode ressignificar e transformar a realidade dos sujeitos.

Nas intervenções eram focados a realidade dos sujeitos, as problemáticas, os assuntos abordados e as tecnologias como meio para efetivar uma prática pedagógica que fosse significativa aos educandos. Isto porque, no entendimento de Caio Prado Junior (apud SCHAEFER, 1985, p. 23), "sem a visão do conjunto, não se tem a visão das relações e sem a visão das relações não se tem a visão do conjunto".

Ainda no que se refere às intervenções iniciais dos estagiários, houve mudança na forma como se constituiria o grupo, ou seja, os mesmosforam fazendo círculos, trabalhos em grupos e individuais. Assim, iniciou-se um processo natural de organização e constituição das aulas.

Quanto a esse aspecto, Morin (2002, p. 24) reafirma a necessidade de "formar cidadãos capazes de enfrentar os problemas de seu tempo." Para o referido autor, um saber só é pertinente se é capaz de se situar num contexto. Materiais pedagógicos, quebra-cabeças, jogos, projetor multimídia, computador, fichas, foram utilizados na continuidade das dinâmicas, uma vez que,de acordo com Pinto (2001, p.39),

> todo o empenho de uma sociedade subdesenvolvida num esforço de crescimento deve consistir em desenvolver seusfundamentos materiais para que, sobre estes, se possa edificar uma educação mais adiantada, que reverterá em maior desenvolvimento destes mesmos fundamentos".

Percebia-se que havia motivação e também diálogo, e que a interatividade era uma constância no processo de aprendizagem. Nesse sentido, Silva (2007, p. 82) destaca "a superação do sistema unidirecional em favor do sistema de trocas, de intercâmbio, de conversação, de *feedback* entre os implicados no processo de comunicação". Ainda-Não era o foco de mudança dos estagiários, pois eles compreendiam queno meio educativo dessas turmashavia a manifestação de possibilidades. Maturana (2001, p. 36) afirma que para gerar uma explicação cientificamente validável, é necessário entender o conhecer como ação efetiva que permita a um ser vivo continuar sua existência em um determinado meioao fazer surgir o seu mundo.

Assim, o que se percebia era o crescimento dos educadores-estagiários e a presença normal das professoras, que olhavam com "desconfiança" cada etapa. Intensificava-se a consciência antecipatória (SANTOS, 2006), a capacidade epotencialidade dos sujeitos. A dinâmica de grupo, que inicialmente não se observava nas aulas, deu lugar a equipes de trabalho, apresentação de pesquisas. As tecnologias,como a câmera fotográfica e as imagens por meio do computador, até então desconhecidas pela maioria dos sujeitos,passaram a fazer parte das intervenções dos alunos educadores.

II. Considerações Finais

A Educação de Jovens e Adultos exige de cada educador uma abertura para a realidade dos sujeitos que dela participam. Os saberes encontrados nas professoras observadas nas práticas pedagógicas constituem ainda a permanência de uma prática de negação.

O Não que está embutido nessas práticas formaliza certa visão fragmentada, que pode ser interpretada como desconhecimento da história de vida

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desses sujeitos, ausência do olhar crítico das educadoras para o Ainda-Não, ou seja, para a possibilidade de mudança do processode vidas dos sujeitos, e também ausência do Poder Público quando consente que se estabeleçam, na educação, práticas fragmentadas. Pode-se dizer que a ausência do Estado se fortalece quando se estabelece o fracasso dos sujeitos no processo de aprendizagem.

Diante das empirias observadas e das proposições concretizadas pelos estagiários, foi possível comprovar que o processo de aprendizagem exige práticas pedagógicas alicerçadas em comprometimento, napossibilidade de utilização de meios tecnológicos, na intervenção do educador, nadialogicidade, em propostas de estudos inovadoras, em estratégias pedagógicas envolvendo jogos, materiais diversos, na interatividade e na problematização.

O que configura a reprovação dos sujeitos,por tantos semestres, na mesma etapa - de alfabetização-, é a ausência de professores formados para atender a essa demanda, a descontinuidade do planejamento das aulas, a concepção de uma educação bancária manifestada pelos professores titulares dos alunos da EJA, além da ausência de um projeto que contemple elementos necessários à alfabetização dessa modalidade de ensino.

Os alunos estagiários perceberam que, em virtude da idade dos sujeitos, das dificuldades visualizadas, mesmo com a memória das aulas intensificada em cada encontro, o tempo em sala de aula não era suficiente para a continuidade dos estudos.

Ainda- Não se constitui na possibilidade da formação dos educadores que trabalham com sujeitos jovens e adultos, na seleção dos professores por parte do Poder Público, que deve exigir educadores qualificados e que estejam abertos à compreensão dos elementos básicos que provocam os educandos à continuidade dos estudos, bem como lhe dão o direito ao conhecimento, com capacidade de compreender, utilizar e refletir sobre a informação escrita. Ainda-Não é uma nova possibilidade de rever as questões aqui em discussão.

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Factor Analytic Study of Internet usage by Lecturers in Nigerian Institutions of Higher Learning

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Abstract - This study was designed to investigate Internet usage using factor analytic approach with principal factoring method. The principal objective of the study was to determine and identify how many latent constructs actually influence the internet usage, the underlying relationship between them.

Data were collected from 220 Lecturers of higher institutions in Ondo State, Nigeria. A 30-item questionnaire was designed based on different purposes of internet usage. The questionnaire used Likert scale structured questions on internet usage; the questionnaire was validated and also confirmed reliable (Croubach Alpha 0.67). The findings of the study revealed that 7 factors constitute the dominant influence internal attributes on internet usage. Based on the findings, it was recommended that Lecturers in Nigerian tertiary institutions should undertake mandatory training and retraining on ICT programmes to provide them with practical and functional knowledge of computer, internet and associated area of ICT with the hope of integrating it with the curriculum and instructional methods/strategies in teachinglearning process.

Keywords : *factor analysis, internet usage, nigerian lecturers.*

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Factor Analytic Study of Internet usage by Lecturers in Nigerian Institutions of Higher Learning

Owoyemi Toyin Eunice [α] & Abayomi Toluwalope [σ]

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I. Introduction

The dissemination of Information and communication technologies (ICTs) in overall society is yielding different kinds of transformations. The school environment, as a part of the social system is not beyond these transformations derived from the inclusion of the technologies. In fact, since few years back and from different institution setting, action plans are being set, as a last resort in order to establish the adequate use of these technologies as much in questions of didactic and practical application as in those referred to its deontology; and thus, to adapt to new social requirements. The change that brought about new technologies has a significant effect on the way people live, work, play and transacts business and diffusion of information.

Hence, the new technologies challenge the old or traditional form of teaching which was chalk and talk method and the way education is managed. Information and communication technologies (ICTs) have impacted the educational sector of the world, though it is accepted that the rate of deployment of new technologies has been lower in developing countries, especially those of sub-Saharan Africa. There have been fundamental differences in the way educational change towards technology has been approached and implemented between developed and developing countries(Naidoo & Schutte , 1999). For the latter, emphasis has largely been on the physical infrastructure, such as telecommunications sector development, purchase of hardware, developing electronic networks and so on and there has been less emphasis on training of educators.

In education industry just like other sectors, Information Technology (IT) focuses on electronic generation, storage, retrieval, utilization and protection of information for future use while ICT revolves around different type of technologies likely going to be utilized for processing, transmitting or communicating information.

ICT has been described as any equipment or interconnected system of equipment that is used in let automatic acquisition, storage, manipulation, management, control, display, switching and transmission of information. Communication itself is a process of exchange of information ideas between two or more individuals with the purpose of bringing about a change in behavior (Adebayo, 2007). In this context ICT are tools that comprise electronic devices which are utilized for information and communication needs of institution, organization, students and individuals. Such electronic devices include computer (Hard and soft ware), networking, telephone, video, multimedia and internet.

Application and utilization of these devices converts information, text messages, sound and motion to common digital form. ICT provides students and teacher with practical and functional knowledge of computer, internet and other associated area of ICT. In the classroom situation, through interaction, ICT is an integral component of school curriculum activities since some of this curricular activities, tasks teacher/students undertake involve the use of communication skill both oral and written information. For instances, in all science subjects, students record their practical,

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experiments, observations, demonstrations in both formal and informal text or present their findings/discovering in either oral or written reports. Therefore, to prepare students for information age and competitiveness and communicate effectively in the 21st century, complete internet/intranet services need to be made available in all schools in Nigerian.

The world economy today is increasingly becoming information and knowledge based. The emerging information and knowledge economy is enhanced by ability to identify the source of information, quick and easy access to the source, and swift translation of the acquired information into production, creative ventures and wealth.

The country also desires to use IT (internet) to create wealth, alleviate poverty, job creation and global competitiveness. As part of the country's mission, a policy has been put in place to encourage massive acquisition of both local and global IT skills. Between 1990 and to date, a great deal impetus has been put to IT development in Nigeria. Some state governments are embarking on e-government which is internet facilitated (Orhuozee, 2002). Also e-economic is fast expanding. Banks in their bids to deliver quality services and expand their reach are taken grant strides into e-banking (Otokhline, 2002). More importantly, the government of Nigeria has put all needed resources in place to make all universities internet oriented.

In the recent times particularly after the exit of military dictatorship in Nigeria, Internet Service Providers (ISP) has increased in number tremendously. Also, many of cyber cafes have spring up to avail Nigerians the benefits of internet. In order to stop the decline of the Nigerian Educational System occasioned by the introduction of satellite campuses, the satellite campuses were cancelled and replaced with Distance learning (DL). A major pivot of the Distance Learning is e-learning (internet).

The entire universe has been transformed to a global village through Information and Communication Technology (ICT), which in a way has produced the internet facility. Gone are the days of hypodermic needle method of teaching when teachers and academic practitioners saw themselves as knowledge oracles and sage of the stage, delivery data, information, knowledge to eager students whose minds are simply-empty vessels wanting to be filled (Ajayi, 2001). Information and Communication Technology has broadened the horizon of the opportunities among institutions of higher learning, giving hopes to the academic communities to cooperate with their counterpart all over the word, (Collin & Wende, 2002; OECD, 2005)] strengthened their mandates of teaching and carrying out research (CHEPS, 2000). The use of ICT particularly internet has taken learning beyond what it used to be, stretching this beyond the classroom limit, ensures adequate participation in teaching with the prospect of creating virtual environment to experiment and explore. There is no doubt, internet has offered a wide array of choices and innovative ways that it now mostly absent in the traditional classroom.

The Internet provides several opportunities for the academia. It is a mechanism for information dissemination and a medium for collaborative interaction between individuals and their computers without regard for geographic limitation of space (Liener, Cerf, Clark, Kahn, Kleinrock, Lynch, Postel, Roberts & Wolff, 2000; Singh, 2002)]. Content created on the Internet ranges from simple e-mail messages to sophisticate 'documents' (sites) incorporating sounds, images and words. The Internet is arguably one of the most significant technological developments of the late 20th century and most literature is directed at the Internet as a tool for educators.

As (Rosenberg, 2001) remarked, the Internet is the most remarkable technological breakthrough of the 1990s. Undoubtedly the Internet is, and will continue to play an important role in transforming higher education itself, just as the schools have contributed in remarkable ways in generating new technologies in ICT, life sciences, and biotechnology. The vast information on the Internet that covers almost all areas of human endeavors has made Internet the greatest achievement of the century.

The need for greater usage of ICT, particularly the Internet, has engendered several development policies in the area of telecommunication. This is because the Nigerian government recognises the innumerable benefits inherent in the use of ICT for social, political, economical and educational purposes. This is exemplified in the strategies outlined for rapid development of Internet infrastructure, service and contents of the National Policy on Telecommunication [9]:

- Government shall encourage the provision of elaborate infrastructure required to have fast and reliable Internet access through institutional and private sector participation.
- Government shall encourage the development of Internet content that will promote the social economic and political development of Nigeria.
- Government shall continue to monitor the emerging application of the Internet in areas such as banking, telephone, as well as e-commerce and enact appropriate legislation and incentives that will encourage their use to promote rapid socio-economic development.
- Government shall promote the use of the Internet in health, agriculture, education and research and encourage private sector participation in this project.

Similarly, in the Nigerian National Policy for Information Technology (FRN, 2001) the value of

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information technology in the development of the nation's rural and urban communities was stressed. The strategies to achieve this include the establishment of rural Internet resource centers with VSAT capability to provide access to IT and the Internet, and also the establishment of IT facilities in rural areas through the use of mobile internet unit.

Although ICT is penetrating every sector of the Nigerian Society, few empirical studies have been conducted on their use for socio-economic and educational purposes (Idowu, Adegunodo & Popoola, 2003; Jagboro, 2003). William (2003) had underscored the need for research on how people acquire and practice computer literacy using the framework of public computing, that is, through cybercafés.

ICT is having a revolutionary impact on educational methodology globally (Ololube, 2006). Among the internet using population, individuals ranging from 18-34 years of age represent the "most active online users" in the United States (Pastore, 2000). To this end, Nigeria as a country cannot afford to lack behind in the integration of ICT especially internet facility and its numerous offers. It has also been revealed that in Nigeria, the use of internet in educational sector is still at the rudimentary stage (Adeogun, 2007). There is a need for lecturers in our higher institutions of learning to embrace the full use of ICT in the implementation of curriculum.

It is therefore, pertinent to examine the responses of Nigerian lecturers to this stimulus in the world of communications and to investigate particularly the use to which the internet is being put. Thus, this study is geared towards examining the internet usage by lecturers in Nigeria higher institution of learning. Its focus is primarily to study the pattern of usage of internet in the academic communities.

II. Research Questions

1. What are the latent factors that can explain the observed relationships among the variables on internet usage by the lecturers?
2. What are the underlying relationships among the loaded variables on each isolated factor from lecturers' responses on internet usage?

a) Research Design

An expos-facto survey was adopted for the study. It involves the collection of data on internet usage by Lectures using an appropriate questionnaire. This design was used as there was no manipulation of the independent variables.

b) Sample

The study sample consisted of lecturers in Federal University of Technology, Akure and Adeyemi College of Education, Ondo, in Ondo State, Nigeria. These are two Federal Government Institutions in the state and all the lecturers in these two institutions were enumerated. However, those lecturers who do not use internet were not pursively not selected as part of sample. The sample consisted of 95 male lecturers and 45 female lecturers from the University and 43 male and 37 female lecturers from the College of Education making a total of 220 lecturers.

c) Instrumentation

The instrument used in the study was a Likert-type questionnaire adopted from Alase and Owoyemi (2004). The questionnaire was divided into two sessions. Section A sought for personal information of the lecturers (locality, sex, age, and if the respondent is an internet user). Section B was made up of 30 items on the usage of internet relevant to lecturers. The frequency of usage was based on 5-points Likert Scale in which the lecturers were to indicate the extent of their agreement or disagreement with each of the statements.

The instrument was pretested through a pilot survey using 20 lecturers who were internet users in Federal College of Agriculture, Akure, which is within the state. The result of the pilot survey was analysed and showed no ambiguity or misinterpretation of the concepts. The final draft of the instrument was prepared with reliability coefficient of 0.67 using Croubach alpha method.

d) Data Collection

The data were collected through the administration of the questionnaire to the targeted lecturers by the researcher. Names were not requested so that anonymity was maintained throughout the study and the questionnaires were collected back immediately from the respondents.

e) Data Analysis

Data collected were subjected to factor analysis utilizing principal components factor extraction and orthogonal rotation by the varimax criterion (with Kaiser Normalization). Principal component method of factoring was used while Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was applied to test whether the partial correlations among variables are small. Bartlett's Test of specificity was carried out to confirm multicolinearity between the variables. It examined whether the correlation matrix is an identity matrix. The principal components extraction was rotated to the terminal solution while varimax criterion was applied so as to delineate the pattern of variation in the variables rather than among users. Absolute values of coefficients that are less than 0.300 were suppressed. This implies that only factor loadings of 0.300 and above are assumed to be interpretable.

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III. Results and Discussion

The table 1 shows the result of the extracted factors using principal component analysis. The factors accounted for 66.02% of the total variance. This implies that there are seven substantively meaningful uncorrelated pattern of relationship among the variables.

Table 2 shows the results of the Total Variance Explained by the extracted factors and the analysis of each of the 7 factors clusters of items proffers a recipe for naming the factors. These clusters of items are given in Table 3 below.

IV. Web – Design Factor

The variables that load significantly high on the factor are mostly the variables that deal with web development, teleconferencing, file transfer (FTP), and Design and Engineering Information. Web development has a loading of 0.879 and the common factor which produced the highest variance in the data set explained 15.449% of the total variance in usage pattern of the internet. Each of the variables that loaded on the factor has a correlation (r): $0.436 \leq r \leq 0.879$ with the factor. This factor has dominant influence because the major focus of the group of lecturers is web – design.

a) Travelling Information Factor

This factor accounted for 12.948% of the total variance explained. There are four variables that loaded significantly high on the factor and all deal with travelling issue. The factor generated 81% of the variation in Hotel reservation, 80.8% weather forecast, 79.4% in Browsing for aviation information and 57.8% in Tourism information. It has correlation (r): $0.413 \leq r \leq 0.810$ with the variables that loaded on it. That their factor is the second influential factor is not surprising because the lecturers at the 21st century want to be connected and also needs to attend conferences/workshops to develop themselves both at home and abroad.

b) Entertainment Factor

Factor 3 accounted for 8.292% of the total variance explained one of the variables deals with general entertainment (music & movies) which has a correlation $r = 0.757$ with the factor, others deal with Health information (0.714) and Sport (0.577). At this stage of life, individual lecturers are very inquisitive about their health. Research has shown that entertainments such as sport have a direct relationship with health.

c) On-Line Purchase Factor

All the variables on the factor are concerned with on-line purchase (0.710), seeking information on retail stores (0.704) and searching for new books in retail store.

d) Scholarship/Employment Factor

The two variables that loaded on the factor are seeking for aids/scholarships (0.852) and seeking for employment (0.843). This factor explained 7.959% of the total variance and it is the 5th orthogonal construct in the usage profile.

e) Research Factor

This factor accounted for 7.777% of the total variance explained and ranked as 5th in the usage pattern. All the variables deal with research and seeking for information on acquisition of knowledge. The factor generated 69.3% of the variation in research work and 67.9% in learning and broadening of knowledge. This is supported by a statement that internet is a tool for acquiring knowledge (Jagboro, 2003).

The importance attached to online information is also confirmed by assertion that "over the years, I've learned far more online about how things really work than I learned about how things should work in theory in six years of higher education as an undergraduate and graduate student"[6]. Hence, cyberspace becomes the virtual library and the fount of all knowledge. But it is surprising that lecturers use the internet seldomly for this purpose and this is a serious signal to Nigerian government that drastical step needs to be taking to make development and provision of necessary ICT facilities available in all our higher institutions .

f) Pornography Factor

This latent factor explained 5.344% of the total variance in the internet usage pattern. Each of the variables that load on the factor has a correlation r: $0.368 \leq r \leq 0.783$ with the factor. Watching pornographic films has the highest loading and this is one of the unwholesome aspects of internet use (IME.2002).

V. Conclusion

The study showed that seven factors determine and influence the usage of internet among lecturers in the higher institutions in Nigeria. Out of these factors web design, travelling, entertainment and online purchase exhibit the greatest variability, others identified factors are scholarship/employment, research and pornography. For scholarship/employment and research coming up as the 5th and 6th factors should facilitate a serious and genuine concern why there should provision for internet facility and training/retraining programmes for lecturers in all Nigerian institution of higher learning to create more awareness of the importance of internet and to equip them with the necessary skills so that maximum and wholesome usage can be derived out of this evolving technology. Also, through workshops/conferences they

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will be acquainted with practical and functional knowledge of computer, internet and associated area of ICT with the hope of integrating it with the curriculum and instructional materials/strategies in teachin/learning process. If truly Nigeria wants to become an IT super power in Africa by year 2020 these factors that influence internet usage should be properly addressed and improved upon. The fact that the respondents are lecturers, the usage of internet is very much significant to their performance because academic tasks are strongly associated to computer use in this age of technological advancement. ICT therefore, in education is an indispensable tool in the modern teaching-learning process; hence the right usage will go a long way to enhance effective teaching and learning.

Table 1 : Rotated Component Matrix

	Component						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
V5					.843		
V6					.852		
V7		.361		.704			
V8				.710			
V9							.783
V10				.596			
V11			.577				.424
V12						.693	
V13						.549	
V14				.376		.679	
V15			.757				
V16			.714				-.368
V17	.436	.413	.375				
V18	.636						
V19						.525	
V20		.573					
V21		.794					
V22		.808					
V23		.810					
V24	.706						
V25	.792						
V26	.879						
V27	.806						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Table 2 : Total Variance Explained

Component	Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.553	15.448	15.448
2	2.978	12.948	28.395
3	1.907	8.292	36.687
4	1.898	8.254	44.942
5	1.831	7.959	52.901
6	1.789	7.777	60.678
7	1.229	5.344	66.022

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

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Table 3 : Clusters of Loading for Internet usage Profile

Factor	Name	Loading	Statement on the instrument
1	Web Design	.436	Legal constitution
		.636	Discussion and Debate on News group
		.706	Design and Engineering information
		.792	File Transfer (FTP)
		.879	Web Development
		.806	Teleconferencing
2	Travelling Information	.361	Seeking information on retail store
		.413	Legal consultation
		.578	Tourism information
		.794	Browsing for aviation information
		.808	Weather forecast
		.810	Hotel Reservation
3	General Entertainments	.577	Watching Sport
		.757	Music and Movies
		.714	Health
		.375	Legal consultation
4	Online Purchase	.704	Seeking information on retail store
		.710	Online purchasing from shops
		.596	Searching for New Books
		.376	Learning and broadening of knowledge
5	Scholarships/Employment	.843	Seeking for employment
		.852	Seeking for Aids, Scholarship or Assistantship
6	Research	.693	Research Works
		.549	Collecting information for research purpose
		.679	Learning and Broadening of Knowledge
		.525	E-mail
7	Pornography	.783	Watching pornography films
		.424	Watching sport
		.368	Health information

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Maintaining the Medium of Instruction Policy in Malaysia: The Case for Bahasa Malaysia

By Alis Puteh
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Abstract - This study examines the development and the implementation of the Malay medium of instruction policy in the Malaysian educational system and the relation of this policy to Fishman's model and a multilingual society. The study uses interviews with persons directly involved in the process of education in Malaysia and examines a number of scholarly publications and other primary sources of information. Historical study is chosen as the research design. As a plural society, Malaysia considers nation building or national integration (Ibrahim, 1986) as being of the utmost importance. Fishman (1968) developed the concept of nationalist-nationist functions of language in nation building. Since independence, the Malaysian leadership has believed that education is critical for national integration. It is generally believed that schools inculcate children with values and knowledge that are supportive of a national ideology. The present study focuses on the process of developing and implementing the Malay medium of instruction policy in Malaysia. The performance of Malay-medium of instruction universities (National University of Malaysia, UTM and UPM) at the post-graduate level is impressive. These universities have proven their ability to get Master's and Ph.D degree holders and medical specialists from overseas and local universities. There have been thousands of Malay-language theses in science from public universities after 1990, which indirectly shows that the Malay language can be used in education in a manner that is world class.

Keywords : *language policy, multilingual society, nation building and nationalism.*

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Abstract - This study examines the development and the implementation of the Malay medium of instruction policy in the Malaysian educational system and the relation of this policy to Fishman's model and a multilingual society. The study uses interviews with persons directly involved in the process of education in Malaysia and examines a number of scholarly publications and other primary sources of information. Historical study is chosen as the research design. As a plural society, Malaysia considers nation building or national integration (Ibrahim, 1986) as being of the utmost importance. Fishman (1968) developed the concept of nationalist-nationist functions of language in nation building. Since independence, the Malaysian leadership has believed that education is critical for national integration. It is generally believed that schools inculcate children with values and knowledge that are supportive of a national ideology. The present study focuses on the process of developing and implementing the Malay medium of instruction policy in Malaysia. The performance of Malay-medium of instruction universities (National University of Malaysia, UTM and UPM) at the post-graduate level is impressive. These universities have proven their ability to get Master's and Ph.D degree holders and medical specialists from overseas and local universities. There have been thousands of Malay-language theses in science from public universities after 1990, which indirectly shows that the Malay language can be used in education in a manner that is world class. Malay scholars have created a lot of terms in biology, especially for animal and tree names. Name of beetles have been named with Malay words, such as Arthrotus *hijau*, Atrachya *hitam*, Dercetina *bopeng*, Itylus *biru*, Ophrida *kuning*, Monolepta *merah*, and Sphenoraia *tompok*. Other terms have been produced, as Sarawakiola *ajaib*, Medythia *bukit*, Monolepta *cantik*, Nadrana *dwiwarna*, Podontia *jalur*, Pseudosastra *indah*, Monolepta *kenit*, trichomimastra *kurnia*, Xenoda *lapan*, Paleosepharia *lawa*, Metrioidea *molek*, and Liroetiell *warisan*. There are also words that originate from the name of a place, Aplosonyx *pahangi,* and from a Malay man, Arcaries *ismaili*.

Keywords : language policy, multilingual society, nation building and nationalism.

I. Introduction

The language medium policy refers to the policy related to the medium of instruction in school. The medium of instruction is the language used in the school to implement the curriculum. It performs all the functions of language (informative, regulatory, inter-national, personal), but in practice the most commonly performed are the informative, the regulatory, and the heuristic. Language has been used as a means to convey the accumulated knowledge and wisdom of the human race to its members. It is also used as a tool to teach students the basic skills they would need later in life. In addition, students are given some practice in using language to find things out for themselves (Halliday, 1975). Many issues and questions arise in multiethnic and multilingual countries regarding which language should be selected when establishing the main medium of instruction in the educational system.

One such question is, What is the most suitable or appropriate combination of national language and second language (English, French, Spanish, etc.) that would promote effective learning amongst students and at the same time enable them to gain skills in the second language (Tollefson & Tsui, 2004)? This study aims to examine the development and the implementation of the language medium policy in the Malaysian educational system and the relation of this policy to nation building. This work is relevant in Malaysia because the country is known to have a multiethnic society, which means a nation with cleavages of race, language, religions, customs, and other primordials.

a) Fishman's Dichotomy (1968): Nationalism and Nationism

Fishman (1968) developed the 'theory' or 'formula' to describe and explain language functions in nationalism and nation building. According to him western languages such as French, English, and Spanish should be used in ex-colonial countries for their further development. This is the function of nationism. The indigenous language, such as Swahili, Guarani, and Malay, should be used as a nationalist language for national unity and identity only, thus serving a nationalist function. The indigenous languages cannot be used to develop the nation with respect to education (especially higher education), economy, industry, and science and technology. According to Fishman's theory, this role should be given to the language of wider communication, such as English, Spanish, or French.

II. Malaysia : A Plural Society

Malaysia is located in Southeast Asia and consists of Peninsular Malaysia, Sabah, and Sarawak. Peninsular Malaysia was formerly known as the Malay Peninsula or Tanah Melayu (the land of the Malays) until

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the states within it were united and became independent from the British colonial power as the Federation of Malaya in 1957. It later transformed into Peninsular Malaysia in 1963 when it merged with the Borneo territories of Sabah and Sarawak to form the Federation of Malaysia. Viewed historically, for almost a century (from the end of the 18th century until 1957) different parts of Malaysia were under Portuguese, Dutch, and British rule at different times, with British colonization having the greatest impact on the country's socio-political development (Wong & Ho, 2000).

As a classic case of plural society, Malaysia's racial divisions tend to coincide with and to be reinforced by linguistic, cultural, religious, and most importantly, economic divisions. All political issues are inextricably interwoven with communal considerations – economic policy, regional development, language, education, immigration, recruitment to the civil service and armed forces, and many more. Virtually all government policies are seen as benefiting one or the other in the main communities, where anything that benefits one community tends to be seen as depriving the others. Despite the government's attempt to work out an acceptable balance between the communities, communal sentiments remain strong and frustrations often rise to the surface (Crouch, 1996).

Fisk and Osman Rani (1982) best described Malaysia as "not a tightly united little nation by any means. It is one that is subjected to a remarkable range of divisive and disruptive influences in its geography, racial make-up, religions, political institution and international relations." Therefore, to make a more complete and comprehensive analysis of education in Malaysia, it is essential that we begin by looking at the background of the country and how its various features affect education. These are analysed in relation to the provision of education in the country, enabling us to understand the social, political, and economic realities in which education has developed and taken its shape in Malaysia. This is important because the effects of education are both determined and influenced by the structure and behaviour of the polity (Levin, 1976).

III. Methodology

I choose historical study as my research design. Many current educational practices, theories, and issues can be better understood in the light of past experiences. Knowledge of the history of education can yield insights into the evolution of the current educational system as well as into the practices and approaches that have been found to be ineffective or unfeasible. In fact, studying the history of education might lead one to believe that there is *little new under the educational sun*, although some practices seem to appear and disappear with regularity. Policymakers at any level in education can benefit from the contributions of historical research in arriving at decisions (Wiersma, 1995).

IV. The Malaysian Educational System

There is a common phenomenon in all colonized countries: all inherit the educational model of the metropolitan power. Colonial powers in most cases disrupt the traditional educational systems of the colonized and supplement them with systems based on imported models. Miller (1997) viewed the formal educational policies of India, Sri Lanka, Burma, and Malaysia to be moulded on the English pattern, with those of Indo-China moulded on the French, those of Indonesia on the Dutch, and those of the Philippines on the Spanish patterns. The British colonial system of education made its impact on almost every aspect of education in the colonized countries. In the aspect of curriculum, its contents were almost a carbon copy of that used in the then aristocratically oriented British system. As such, as many authors have generally conceded, this curriculum was not in tune with the pupils' environment nor was it of practical use in their lives (Tuqan, 1975; Altbach & Kelly, 1978).

According to Bakri (2003), "schools were along racial lines in British era. Malay schools were consumed with religious studies and limited to primary level only. Chinese schools were nothing more than fronts for the Communist Party. Tamil schools might as well have been in Tamil Nadu, India. Only the English schools had a multiracial student body. But they were few and necessarily elitist." The colonial system never held out the prospects of integration into indigenous culture to those who attended their schools. The colonial system or schools were marked by diversity (Altbach & Kelly, 1978).

All the national-type schools in the country had to change their language media of instruction to Bahasa Malaysia. The result of this change was the conversion of national-type schools into national schools. The first conversion happened in January 1968 with the conversion of English primary schools to national schools. The conversion was conducted in stages, by first teaching five subjects in the Malay language in Standard one (I) to three (III) in national-type English primary schools. By 1970, all subjects except English were taught in Malay in Standard one (I). Malay-medium classes had also started in secondary vocational schools in 1968 and in secondary technical schools in 1970. From 1983 all courses in the local universities were progressively converted to the national language (Table 1.1).

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Table 1.1 : Malay language as a medium of instruction in the Malaysian educational system

Year	Implementation
1957	National Language is made a compulsory subject at all levels in all government-funded primary and secondary schools.
1958	Malay-medium secondary classes are established, which eventually develop into national secondary schools.
1963	i) The first fully residential Malay-medium secondary school in Kuala Lumpur, the Alam Shah National Secondary School, is established.
	ii) Malay-medium Sixth Form classes start in the Shah Alam National Secondary, Kuala Lumpur.
1965	The first batch of Malay-medium students is admitted to the University of Malaya.
1968	i) The first batch of Malay-medium students graduate from the University of Malaya.
	ii) Malay-medium classes are held in secondary vocational schools.
	iii) Five subjects are taught in the Malay Language in Standard 1-3 in national-type English primary schools.
1969	Civics is taught in the Malay language in Standard 4 in national-type English primary schools.
1970	i) All subjects in Standard 1 are taught in the Malay language in national-type English primary schools.
	ii) Geography and History are taught in the Malay language in Standard 4 in national-type English primary schools.
	iii) Malay-medium classes are held in secondary technical schools.
1973	All Arts subjects in Form 1 are taught in the Malay language in national-type English primary schools.
1975	i) There are no more English-medium Remove classes.
	ii) National-type English primary schools are fully converted to national primary schools.
1976	i) All Arts, Science and Technical subjects in Form 1 are taught in the Malay language in national-type English secondary schools.
	ii) All Arts subjects in Form IV are taught in the Malay language.
1978	Arts streams in Form VI (Lower) are taught in the Malay language in national-type English secondary schools.
1980	First year in Arts and allied courses is taught in the Malay language in the universities.
1981	All Arts, Science and Technical streams in Form VI (Lower) are taught in the Malay language in national-type English secondary schools.
1982	National-type English secondary schools are fully converted to national secondary schools.
1983	First year in all courses (Arts, Science, Engineering, Medical, etc.) is taught in the Malay language in universities.

Source: Ministry of Education, 2002

V. Results

The medium of instruction is the most powerful means of maintaining and revitalizing a language and a culture; it is the most important form of intergenerational transmission (Fishman, 2000) or the most direct agent of linguistic genocide (Snutnabb-Kangas, 2002). The medium of instruction policy determines which social and linguistic groups have access to political and economic opportunities, and which groups are disenfranchised. After more than 30 years of implementing the Malay medium policy, the reinstatement of English as a medium of instruction has become a controversial issue. This controversial move has been related to Fishman's dichotomy philosophy.

The government implemented the national education policy that stipulated Malay as the main medium of instruction in schools. The aim of this policy was to remove the identification of a particular ethnic group with school achievement and reduce the inequality of opportunity among ethnic groups (Gill, transition from English to Malay as the main medium of instruction began in 1958, starting from the primary level. By 1983, the transition at the university level had been achieved. The transition throughout all levels of education took 26 years to complete, and it was done gradually and pragmatically. This extended time frame provided for more efficient language planning, as well as for the development of corpus to allow Malay to cope with science and technology (Asmah, 2002).

Malay has been the medium of instruction for more than 20 years and has not faced any problems that necessitate a change in the language policy, especially regarding the use of Malay as the language for imparting knowledge and instruction (Gill, 2004). During this period of education that has had Malay as the medium of instruction, there have been developments in many fields of knowledge, including medicine, aerospace, and science and technology. Dewan Bahasa Pustaka has produced more than 1 million Malay terminologies in 300 fields of knowledge.

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Professors, lecturers, and teachers give their lectures in the Malay language effectively, especially in science and mathematics subjects.

Using Malay as the medium of instruction has been judged to be successful. It has produced graduates and professionals that help to develop the country. Malay scholars have created many terms in biology, especially for animals and trees. For example, since 2001, Dr. Mohammad Salleh, a world-standard professor in entomology at the National University of Malaysia (UKM), has created hundreds of terms in Malay. A number of beetles have been named using Malay words, such as Arthrotus *hijau*, Atrachya *hitam*, Dercetina *bopeng*, Itylus *biru*, Ophrida *kuning*, Monolepta *merah*, and Sphenoraia *tompok*. Other words have been created, such as Sarawakiola *ajaib*, Medythia *bukit*, Monolepta *cantik*, Nadrana *dwiwarna*, Podontia *jalur*, Pseudosastra *indah*, Monolepta *kenit*, trichomimastra *kurnia*, Xenoda *lapan*, Paleosepharia *lawa*, Metrioidea *molek*, and Liroetiell *warisan*, as have words that originate from the name of a place, Aplosonyx *pahangi*, and the name of a Malay man, Arcaries *ismaili*. All these terms have been recognized by international bodies that indirectly recognize Malay as an international science language (UKM, 2004).

Thus, some Malays do not see the need to change the national education policy. However, the Ministry of Education has reintroduced English as a medium of instruction to teach mathematics and science in all schools, colleges, and universities. The stress on English shows the British colonial belief that language can change one's pattern of output and make one see things differently (Barbour & Carmichael, 2000).

The British wanted as many Malayan people as possible to study in the English medium because this would help the Malaya's people administer Malaya pre-independence and post-independence. This objective was fruitful, because after 53 years of Malaysian independence many of the English-educated still believe that learning English is the best way to face globalization. In the Fifth Educational Conference of 1939, the English language was shown to be the one great unifying principle in Malaya, while English schools had an important cultural role and place in the making of Malaya.

This differential valuation of exchanged systems between two streams has posed a serious obstacle to the Malayan government's stated goal of transforming the Malay medium stream into a unified national school system. After 53 years of independence, the Malay-medium schools are national schools only by name. Located primarily in rural areas and drawing their student enrolment almost exclusively from the Malay community, the national schools and public higher institutions continue to provide extremely limited access to modernized occupations as compared with the private schools and private higher institutions that use English as their medium of instruction.

The continued weakness of Malay-language education relative to English-language education has an important political implication, as it has served to undermine the legitimacy of the Alliance government among some important sectors of the Malay community. On the other hand, if the government becomes successful in rapidly reversing the value position of Malay-language education vis-à-vis the other language streams, it could risk losing the tenuous legitimacy granted to it by the non-Malay communities.

After 53 years of independence, the response among non-Malays toward the national schools is still poor. In 2003, there were 191,679 Chinese and Indian students registered in national schools; in 2004 there were only 192,106 such students. The increase was lower than 500. This was partly due to the fact that credentials obtained from the national schools and public universities were not recognized by private firms and business organizations for job purposes because of the weakness of these schools in English. Before the era of globalization in the 1990s, the government still pinned its faith on the role of formal education in the national language as the chief means of achieving national integration.

At the tertiary level of education, policymakers have indicated that reform in higher education is vital to help realize Vision 2020, the national goal of being an industrialized country and a hub in education and information technology in the region (Najib, 1996; Fong, 1993; Johari, 1996). At this level, there is no more focus on nation building or national integration. According to Rajendran (2004), ethnic harmony is being taken for granted.

In 1995 (prior to the higher education reform), there were 48 public higher education institutions, comprising 8 public universities, 6 polytechnics, and 33 teacher-training colleges. By contrast, there were 275 private colleges. In 1995, 11% of the student-age cohort was enrolled in higher education – about 50% in public universities. The other 50% were either attending courses in local private colleges (35%) or studying overseas (14%). In 1985, there were 15,000 students studying in local colleges; on the other hand, there were 68,000 students studying in universities overseas, especially in the United Kingdom, the United States, and Australia. The majority of these overseas students were privately funded Chinese and Indian students (Lee, 1999).

According to Gill (2004), the policy for a dual medium of instruction has serious social and political implications. Firstly, private universities have higher fees when compared with public universities that receive a large subsidy from the government. This means that the students that enrol in private universities come from middle-class families and Chinese families with high

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income, while the majority of enrolments in public universities consist of Malays that come from average-income and poor families (Gill, 2005). The long-term effect is that university students will divide according to socioeconomic strata and, more often than not, ethnic groups. Thus, the medium of instruction policy would give rise to class and racial division, instead of unifying Malaysian citizens.

Secondly, the dual medium of instruction policy also causes public university graduates to be at a disadvantage when looking for work in the private sector because of their weak command of the English language. This policy type would make Malay graduates unable to compete with the Chinese graduates from private universities. Moreover, private companies would be more interested in hiring Chinese graduates than Malay graduates since the majority of private companies are owned by the Chinese. Yet again, the policy regarding the medium of instruction tends toward the division rather than the unification of races.

VI. Conclusions

Rustam (2002) views the nostalgic return to the golden era of revering the English language amongst the general populace as being *creole* and as a crisis in tradition. The creation of a liberalized cultural policy and an unprofessional language policy will cause cultural contamination. For example, many individuals have returned to the craze of giving western or foreign-sounding names to housing areas, corporate buildings, hotels, banks, schools, cities, and the like, in keeping with globalization. Eastern and nationalistic names are considered by this group to be less attractive to customers, even to the extent that such names would complicate international relations. If this group of individuals were to triumph, then surely it would mean the end for the Malay language.

In fact there is nothing special about the English language with respect to the level of education of a student and to scientific discovery and advancement. This is especially obvious in the scientific field, as the number of important researchers and scientists who have made important discoveries is not dominated by native English speakers, or by English-trained individuals. For example, the current joint Nobel Peace Prize winners for chemical engineering are Koichi Tanaka from Japan, John Fenn from the United States, and Kurt Wuethrich from Switzerland. Tanaka is 43 years old, is the fourth winner from Japan in the past three years, and does not hold a PhD (Berita Harian, 10.12.02).

The expansion of scientific knowledge after the 13th century was achieved according to the language of the scientists. The German scientists recorded their findings in German, the English in English, and the Swedish in Swedish, and so on and so forth. However, in the midst of the multitude of languages, there existed a force to find common ground from the knowledge perspective, like getting a legitimate academic verification for each new finding.

Therefore, it is not surprising to find that the advancement of science during the 20th century occurred rapidly in many different languages: English, German, Russian, French, Japanese, Chinese, and many other languages, including Bahasa Malaysia in Malaysia, which was pioneered by the UKM. Because of the scientific knowledge recorded in the Russian language, the world witnessed the first successful spaceship built by mankind – Sputnik (built by Russia) and piloted by Yuri Gagarin, the first man in space. Scientific discoveries recorded in English led to Apollo 11, which brought mankind to the moon. The French scientists invented the nuclear bomb and carried out tests in the Pacific Ocean (Shamsul Amri, 2003).

The same may be observed in the field of medicine, a branch of applied science. Many important studies have been performed and paramount discoveries have been made in different languages. Researchers in Japan, including the Nobel Prize winners, perform their researches in Japanese. The Spanish researchers who were successful in the advancement of several new fields in pharmacy and medicine recorded their findings in Spanish. Obviously the researchers in Australia, Canada, the United Kingdom, and the United States used English.

In the field of mathematics, there are many child prodigies below the age of ten and some in their early teens around the world who have been granted scholarships in several universities (like Sofia, a Malay girl studying at Oxford University), each individual continuing his or her respective studies. It is obvious that language is not a matter of serious consideration when the universities are dealing with cases such as these.

If we were to say that only one language is responsible for success in science, it would go against history. It would also be foolish to use scientific knowledge to learn a language; it is unheard of anywhere in the world. If we were to review the process of learning a language and the spread of scientific knowledge in the various languages above, we would conclude that the two fields are worlds apart and to use one in an attempt to improve the other would be an incredible flight of the imagination. Perhaps the results would be, too (Hassan, 2002).

According to Collins (1995), the belief in the English language as a functional and superlative language is pure fiction. This fabrication is constantly being used by the people who want to maintain or raise the status of English, such as the races that are fluent in English and the guardians of the English education infrastructure. Alas, the same false outlook is being taken up by a large number of the Malay-speaking

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community, as they think it to be true. This occurrence does not happen in Malaysia alone. In many Third World countries, the English language is well respected and thought to be essential for development and inclusion in the movement toward globalization.

In conclusion, most of the former Western colonies have not progressed even though they have used Western languages as their official or main language in their system of education. Malaysia, Indonesia, Japan, South Korea, Taiwan, and Thailand use their own native languages fully in each of their respective countries. These countries are developed, or are currently developing, or at the very least are not included in the list of least developed countries, which include 40 former Western colonial countries.

There are many other factors other than language that contribute to the economic development of a country. Some of the factors include the capability, honesty, and trustworthiness of the government leaders and the natural resources of the country. Fishman's view is obviously influenced by traditional evolutionary Western thinking that assumes a modern language, like English, can bring progress to developing countries. This is the ethnocentric attitude and Western colonial mentality that is consciously or subconsciously expressed through the language planning theory that uses the Western model of progress as the criterion to define the function of language development. The essence behind this theory can be put aside since most of the countries that use English, French, or Spanish (that are said to be advanced) as the official language still have not progressed, and some are still stricken by poverty, while several other countries that use their national/official language have become or are becoming developed (Alis, 2004).

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Differential Psycho-Social Factors as Predictors of Female Academics' Career Growth and Leadership Positions in Universities in South-West Nigeria

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Abstract - Recent studies affirm that academic women are a minority and have slow career mobility growth compared to their male colleagues and almost invisible in leadership positions, therefore excluded from power structure. These have been attributed to culture, socialisation, conditioning and self-perception of the women themselves. However, differential psycho-social factors predicting female academics' career in Nigerian Universities are yet to be examined. This study, therefore, affirmed the efficacy or otherwise of differential psycho-social predictors of female academics' career growth and leadership positions in Universities in South-West Nigeria. This research adopted a descriptive survey research design of the ex-post facto type. Multistage sampling involving purposive and stratified random techniques were used to select 587 respondents from six Universities in South-West Nigeria. Five hundred and thirty eight Female Academics from Graduate Assistants to Professors, three hundred male Academics, (senior lecturers) sixty members of appointment and promotion committee participated in the study. Female Academics Psychological Questionnaire (R=0.82), Social Factors Questionnaire (R=0.87), Female Academics Career Growth Questionnaire (R=0.79) and Female Academics Leadership Questionnaire (r=0.84) were used for data collection. Twelve research questions were answered. Data were analysed using multiple regression.

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Differential Psycho-Social Factors as Predictors of Female Academics' Career Growth and Leadership Positions in Universities in South-West Nigeria

Adepeju Olaide, Oti, Ph.D

Abstract - Recent studies affirm that academic women are a minority and have slow career mobility growth compared to their male colleagues and almost invisible in leadership positions, therefore excluded from power structure. These have been attributed to culture, socialisation, conditioning and self-perception of the women themselves. However, differential psycho-social factors predicting female academics' career in Nigerian Universities are yet to be examined. This study, therefore, affirmed the efficacy or otherwise of differential psycho-social predictors of female academics' career growth and leadership positions in Universities in South-West Nigeria. This research adopted a descriptive survey research design of the ex-post facto type. Multistage sampling involving purposive and stratified random techniques were used to (898) select 587 respondents from six Universities in South-West Nigeria. Five hundred and thirty eight Female Academics from Graduate Assistants to Professors, three hundred male Academics, (senior lecturers) sixty members of appointment and promotion committee participated in the study. Female Academics Psychological Questionnaire (R=0.82), Social Factors Questionnaire (R=0.87), Female Academics Career Growth Questionnaire (R=0.79) and Female Academics Leadership Questionnaire (r=0.84) were used for data collection. Twelve research questions were answered. Data were analysed using multiple regression.

I. Introduction

The advent of colonisation and the introduction of western education and western social values, brought education that was modeled predominantly towards the mental development of boys and men; this was evidenced by the number of boys' schools. There were established during this era and the enrolment figures of boys, compared to girls (Uwaezuoke and Ezeh, 2008)

Girls' secondary schools came after serious agitations, and when it did, parents were already sceptical about sending their girls to school (Anugwom, 2009). Also, the work establishment created by these institutions, such as Civil Service, Boat Industries, Churches and Schools were almost exclusively open to men only (Nka, 1974; Zuga, 1999).

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Aside from psychological factors of self-esteem and self-efficacy influencing the career growth of women, Colletti, Mulholland, and Sonnad (2000) found social and family issues to be (a) major concern for both male and female academic surgeons. However, both men and women report differences in the conflict between family and career responsibilities and perceptions of balancing those responsibilities for men and women. Two thirds of both men and women reported that the demands of their surgical faculty position adversely affect their relationships with spouses. Men reported a slightly higher tendency to miss family activities because of job demands, while women were significantly more likely to miss work activities because of family responsibilities.

In addition, women have been known to be care givers. This is why they have excelled in careers like Nursing, Secretarial profession, and teaching at lower levels. Studies have also affirmed that they give support to their spouses, children and significant others (Aryee, 1992; Aremu, 1999; Buckingham and Coffman, 1999; James, 2002; Okonweze, 2005*; Oluwole, Hammed, and Hal. Awaebe, 2010*), but women themselves lack the necessary support that may be required to foster the growth they need in their different careers and life's endeavours (Biernat and Wortman, 1990; Chovwen, 2004; Oti and Oyelude, 2006). Oti and Oyelude, (2006) found work/home conflict to be a strong determinant of female academics' career path to leadership. They found that the career mobility of their respondents were slower during the 1st five years of marriage; then they began to have full concentration as their children matured.

Scott and King (1985) found that spousal support is a predictor of whether female college students will return to school, while Cutrona and Suhr, (1994); Derlega, Barbee, and Winstead, (1994) found that lack of social support is a predictor of negative outcomes, including absenteeism, burnout, depression and anxiety. Harris, Winskowski and Enghahl (2007) found perceived spousal support, workplace social support to predict job satisfaction, and job tenure.

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Other studies found that apart from spousal and work place support, women have been known to also receive support from parents, teachers and significant others. Matz's (2002) study found that mothers were the most critical influence for developing leadership in their daughters during their upbringings. Contrary to Matz's finding, fathers, relatives, teachers, and peers were also influential for girls and young women in the development of leadership competencies (Madsen, 2006).

Two studies by Volkwein and Colleagues (2000, 2003) examined the administrative job satisfaction at both public and private Universities. Their collective findings reported job insecurity, stress, and pressure as having a significant negative impact on overall satisfaction, while teamwork, recognition, advancement, feelings of independence, social and professional relationships with colleagues and supervisors had a significant positive impact on overall satisfaction.

In a study investigating the use of four-frame organisational climate leadership behaviours of department chairpersons in nursing programs and their relationships to the organisational climate as perceived by faculty, Mosser and Walls (2002) found that all four frame-related behaviours correlated positively with organisational climate-related items such as faculty support, social-needs satisfaction, and supervision. On the other hand, all four frames negatively correlated with disengagement or fractionalisation within the faculty.

Furthermore, chairpersons were perceived by faculty as emphasizing faculty support, social-needs satisfaction, and supervision at significantly higher levels than chairpersons using a single or no frame. Faculty who perceived chairpersons as using no frame reported higher levels of disengagement within the climate (department). This research in contrast, employed the three frame factors of fairness, work climate and inclusion to measure the career growth and leadership of academic women from the perception of appointments and promotions committee members.

Patriarchy as a climate condition in Universities: Scholars in the UK, the USA, Australia and Canada have carried out several studies on women in higher education in which they have addressed the issues of paucity of women in senior academic positions. In analysing the factors that prevent women from reaching the apex of the academic career, metaphors of "glass ceiling" (Hansard Society, 1990; Davidson and Cooper, 1992; Hede, 1994), "brick wall" (Bacchi 1993), "stone floor" (Heward, 1994), "blocked pipeline (Keohane, 2003), and "maternal wall" (Williams, 2004) have been used. For instance, Luke (1998, p.36) says glass-ceiling barriers are:

> *…The transparent cultural, organisational, and attitudinal barriers that maintain horizontal sex segregation in organizations… [which] share certain structural features across cultural and institutional contexts such as the concentration of power and authority among male elites, concepts of merit, career, and success based on male experience and life trajectories, and social and institutional practices that reproduce culturally dominant forms of patriarchy…women [therefore] look up the occupational ladder and get a clear vision of the top rungs but they can't always clearly see where they will encounter invisible obstacles. (p. 36)*

Luke (2001; p. 6) further observes that despite years of affirmative action and the passing of statutes outlawing sexual discrimination (USA and UK in 1972; Australia in 1984), "the rate at which women have ascended academic career ladders in these countries is maddeningly slow". Women in the United Kingdom constitute 7-8 percent of the professoriate, in Ireland just over 5 percent, in the United States 16 percent of those with full professorial status and in Finland 18 percent (O'Connor 2000). Luke (2001; p. 10) thus refers to universities as "a hotbed of both vertical and horizontal sex segregation."

In a study, Forster (2001) reports on the views that female academics have about their career prospects, growth, equal opportunities and the conflicts they experience between their work and personal lives in one UK University. The university in question has formal equal opportunities policies, and gender monitoring systems in place. However, very few women have progressed into senior academic roles. They continue to be handicapped by well-ingrained structural and cultural barriers and by promotion systems that still largely rely on the publication records of candidates for appointments and promotions. Some of the women interviewed reported that they had opted to put their careers on hold because of domestic and family responsibilities. A few have resigned themselves to never achieving senior positions because of these commitments. The study observes that the trend may have a negative impact on recruiting women graduates into careers in higher education in the future.

a) Statement of the Problem

This study explored the predictive nature of psychological variables (self-esteem and self-efficacy) and social variables (spousal and academic men collegial support, academic men attitude towards women and parental influence); on female academics' career growth and leadership position.

II. Research Questions

Research Question 1

What is the composite effect of psychological variables: self-esteem and self-efficacy on female academics' career growth?

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Research Question 2

What is the composite effect of psychological variables: self-esteem and self-efficacy on female academics leadership position?

Research Question 3

What is the relative contribution of self-esteem and self-efficacy to female academics' career growth?

Research Question 4

What is the relative contribution of psychological factors: self-esteem and self-efficacy on female academics' leadership position?

Research Question 5

To what extent would psychological variables of self-esteem and self-efficacy predict female academics' career growth?

Research Question 6

To what extent would psychological variables of self-esteem and self-efficacy predict female academics' leadership position?

Research Question 7

What is the composite effect of the social variables: parental influence, spousal and academic men collegial support and attitudes towards women on female academics' career growth?

Research Question 8

What is the composite effect of the social factors: parental influence, spousal and academic men collegial support and academic men attitudes towards women to female academics' leadership position?

Research Question 9

What are the relative contributions of parental influence, spousal and academic men collegial support and academic men attitudes towards women on female academics' career growth?

Research Question 10

What are the relative contributions of the social factors: parental influence, spousal and collegial support and attitudes towards women on female academics' leadership position?

Research Question 11

To what extent would social variables of parental influence, spousal and academic men collegial support and academic men attitudes towards women predict female academics' career growth?

Research Question 12

To what extent would social variables parental influence, spousal and academic men collegial support and academic men attitudes towards women predict female academics' leadership position?

III. Methodology

This study adopted a descriptive research design of the *ex-post facto* type. This was considered appropriate for the study because the researcher did not manipulate any of the variables in the study. Close-ended questionnaires were constructed to elicit responses from female academics, male academics as well as members of Appointments and Promotions Committees in each university.

The population of study included female academics from graduate assistants to professors in six universities from South-western Nigeria, senior academic men and members of appointments and promotions committees.

A multi stage sampling technique was employed for the study. The first stage involved the listing of all approved universities in Nigeria. The second stage was the extraction and stratification of Universities in South-Western part of the country. Purposive technique was employed in the selection of six oldest universities in each State of the South-western Nigeria. This was under the assumption that they will have adequate number of academic women needed for the sample. Incidentally, the oldest Universities in the region are four federal and two state universities out of five federal and nine state universities in the southwest as at the time of data collection, this represents 45 per cent of the University population. Purposive sampling was used to select academic women; being the major focus of the study. However, in each of the Universities, stratified random technique was employed in the selection of respondents. List of names of academic staff, their faculties and departments were obtained from the registrars' offices. The names of those qualified to be involved in the study were extracted and wrapped in ballot papers, then the ballots selected at random, giving equal opportunity to everyone to be selected. Those whose names were picked participated in the study.

Five hundred and eighty seven samples (587) were selected. However, five hundred and eleven (511) questionnaires were returned and analysed for the female academics. Three hundred male academics from senior lecturer to professor were disproportionately selected (fifty from each university) under the assumption that they are colleagues of academic women. Ten members of the Appointment and Promotion Committee from each university were purposively selected, because appointment and promotion are key determinants of career growth.

IV. Research Instruments

Four research instruments with 149 questions were used to collect data for the study. They were:

1. Psychological Factors Instruments; comprising of Self-esteem (Developed by Adanijo and Oyefeso

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(1986) and Self-efficacy (Jerusalem and Schwarzer in 1981, adopted and modified by the researcher) scales.

2. Social Factors Instruments: comprising of spousal support (developed by the researcher), parental influence (developed by the researcher), academic men collegial support (developed by the researcher) and academic men attitude towards women (Adapted from Spence, Helmrich & Stapp, (1978)) scales.
3. Academic Women's Career Growth Questionnaire. (Developed by the researcher).
4. Academic Women's Perception of Leadership Position Questionnaire. (Developed by the researcher).

In-depth Interview Guide was developed by the researcher after reading literature on ethnographic and qualitative studies on women's career and leadership experience (Alele-Williams, 1993; Chesterman, 2003; Chovwen, 2004; Madsen, 2006). These comprise Section A, fifteen demographic information, Section B, thirty (30) open-ended statements which were administered on female professors. Items covered and elicited responses on key variables of the study: psychological, and social Items. should be social items that were originally constructed were forty (40), after it went through face, content and construct validity, all ambiguity were removed.

Responses were obtained through verbal interviews with each selected subject. All interviews were recorded with the use of digital audio tape, which were later transcribed. Demographic information was analysed using descriptive statistics. All interview phrases and statements were grouped thematically and numeric values were allocated to primary themes that emerged from the classifications. These values were then merged and scored by simple percentages and frequency counts. Statements that were considered as key and significant to the findings were quoted verbatim. Reliability Coefficient was obtained using Cronbach alpha. Psychological (R=0.82), Social (R=0.87), Career Growth (R=0.79) and Academic Leadership Questionnaires (r=0.84). Data were analysed using multiple regression. These were complemented with in-depth interviews with 27 Female Professors; qualitative data were analysed using quasi-statistics. These are further explained under Data Analysis below.

V. Data Analysis

Quantitative data were analysed using multiple regression.

VI. Result

Research Question 1

What is the composite effect of psychological variables: self-esteem and self-efficacy to female academics' career growth?

Table 1 : Pearson Correlation of Female Academics' Self-esteem, Self-efficacy And Career Growth N=511

Statistic	Variable	Career Growth	Self-esteem	Self-efficacy
Pearson Correlation	Career Growth	1.000	-.022	.300
	Self-esteem	-.022	1.000	.014
	Self-efficacy	.300	.014	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	Career Growth	.	.310	.000
	Self-esteem	.310	.	.374
	Self-efficacy	.000	.374	.

*Significant at P < 0.05

Table .1: shows that female academics' self-esteem has a relationship which is negative, very weak but not significant with their career growth (r= -.022; p>.05). However, self-efficacy of women academics has a positive, weak and significant relationship with their career growth (r=.300; p<.05). From this, while self-esteem could increase without a corresponding improvement in career growth, an improvement in self-efficacy could enhance career growth of female academics. Further, Table 2 deals with the composite effect of the two factors on career growth.

Table 2 : Summary of Regression of the Two Psychological Variables and Career Growth

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
.301[a]	.091	.087	7.6286

From Table .2, the two psychological factors: self-esteem and self-efficacy correlate positively with female academics' career growth (R=.301). This means these factors could explain career growth to a meaningful extent. Also, the Table shows the R square value of .091 indicates that 9.1 per cent of the total variance in the women academics' career growth is

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accounted for by these two psychological factors while the remaining 90.9 per cent is due to other factors and residuals. To test for the significance of the R value, Table 1 is presented.

Table 3 : ANOVA Table for the Regression on Psychological Variables and Career Growth

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	2954.965	2	1477.482	25.389	.000*
Residual	29563.004	508	58.195		
Total	32517.969	510			

Table 3 shows that the R value of .301 is significant (F=25.389; P<.05). Hence, the observed composite effect of the two psychological factors: self-esteem and self-efficacy on career growth did not occur by mere chance.

Research Question 2

What is the composite effect of psychological variables: self-esteem and self-efficacy on female academics leadership position?

Table 4 : Relationship of Self-esteem and Self-efficacy with Female Academics Leadership Position N=511

Statistic	Variables	Leadership Position	Self-esteem	Self-efficacy
Pearson Correlation	Leadership Position	1.000	.156	.272
	Self-esteem	.156*	1.000	.014
	Self-efficacy	.272*	.014	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	Leadership Position	.	.000	.000
	Self-esteem	.000	.	.374
	Self-efficacy	.000	.374	.

*Significant at P < .05

Table 4 shows that female academics' self-esteem (r=156; p<.05) and self-efficacy (r= .272; p<.05) have positive, weak and significant relationship with female academics leadership position. To this end, the two variables have the tendency to contribute to the improvement of female academic's leadership positions.

Table 5 : Summary of Regression of Psychological Factors on Leadership Position

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
.312[a]	.097	.094	8.0001

Table .5 further shows that the two psychological variables: self-esteem and self-efficacy correlate positively with leadership position (R=.312). They also explained the variations in female academics' leadership position to the tune of 9.7 per cent (R square = .097). Hence, the remaining 90.3 per cent is due to other factors and residuals. This composite effect is tested for significance on Table 6.

Table 6 : ANOVA table of Regression of Psychological Factors and Leadership Positions

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	3500.959	2	1750.479	27.351	.000*
Residual	32512.845	508	64.002		
Total	36013.804	510			

*Significant at P < .05

From Table 6, the composite effect of the two psychological variables: self-esteem and self-efficacy is significant on female academics' leadership positions (F= 27.351; p< .05).

Research Question 3

What is the relative contribution of self-esteem and self-efficacy to female academics' career growth?

Table 7 : Relative Effects of Self-Esteem and Self-Efficacy Factors on Career Growth

Psychological Factors	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	Rank	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta			
(Constant)	25.274	2.536			9.965	.000
Self-esteem	-3.05E-02	.049	.026	2nd	-.620	.535
Self-efficacy	.432	.061	.301	1st	7.107	.000*

*Significant at P < .05

Table 7 shows that self-efficacy made a greater contribution (β=.301; P<.05) than self-esteem (β= 0.26; P>.05). While the contribution of self-efficacy is significant that of self-esteem is not.

Research Question 4

What is the relative contribution of psychological factors: self-esteem and self-efficacy to female academics' leadership position?

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Table 8 : Relative Effects of Psychological Factors on Leadership Positions

Psychological Factors	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	Rank	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta			
(Constant)	20.335	2.660			7.646	.000
Self-esteem	.186	.052	.152	2nd	3.609	.000*
Self-efficacy	.408	.064	.270	1st	6.403	.000*

*Significant at P < .05

Table 8 shows that self-efficacy made a greater contribution to female academics' leadership position (β=.270; P<.05) than self-esteem (β=.152; p<.05). Both variables made significant relative contributions to the dependent measure.

Research Question 5

To what extent would psychological variables of self-esteem and self-efficacy predict female academics' career growth?

Table 7 shows that only self-efficacy could not predict female academics' career growth (B=.432; p< .05). Self-esteem could not predict the dependent variable (B=-3.05E-02; p> .05).

Research Question 6

To what extent would psychological variables of self-esteem and self-efficacy predict female academics' leadership position?

From Table 8, both psychological factors: self-esteem (B=.186; p<.05) and self-efficacy (3=.408; p<.05) could predict female academics' leadership positions. To complement the quantitative results, are findings and statements salient to the variables of the study

Research Question 7

What is the composite effect of the social variables: parental influence, spousal and academic men collegial support and attitudes towards women on female academics' career growth?

Table 9 : Pearson Correlation of Social Variables and Career Growth N=511

	Career Growth	Parental Influence	Spousal Support	Academic men Collegial Support	Academic men Attitude Towards Women
Pearson Correlation					
Career Growth	1.000	-.175	.162	.028	.054
Parental Influence	-.175*	1.000	.110	.136	.050
Spousal Support	.162*	.110	1.000	-.013	.005
Academic men Collegial Support	.028	.136	-.013	1.000	.936
Academic men Attitude Towards Women	.054	.050	.005	.936	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)					
Career Growth	.	.000	.000	.263	.111
Parental Influence	.000	.	.006	.001	.129
Spousal Support	.000	.006	.	.388	.452
Academic men Collegial Support	.263	.001	.388	.	.000
Academic men attitude Towards Women	.111	.129	.452	.000	.

*Significant at P < .05.

From Table .9, parental influence has a negative and weak relationship which is significant with career growth (r= -.175; p < .05). The Table also shows that spousal support has a positive, weak but significant relationship with the dependant measure (r= .162; p<.05). However, both academic men collegial support (r= .028; p>.05) and academic men attitude towards women (r= .054; p>.05) have very weak positive relationship which are not significant with career growth.

To determine the composite effect of the four social variables on career growth, Table 10 is presented.

Table 10 : Summary of Regression of Social Factors and Career Growth

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
.260	.068	.060	7.7398

*Significant at P < .05

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Table 10 shows that the four social factors: parental influence, spousal support, academic men collegial support, and academic men attitudes towards women jointly correlate positively with career growth (R=.260). The R square value of .068 also shows that 6.8 per cent of the variance in career growth is due to the four social factors leaving the remaining 93.2 per cent to other factors and residuals. The significance of the R-value is determined using Table 10.

Table 11 : ANOVA Table for Regression of Social Variables and Career Growth

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	2206.333	4	551.583	9.208	.000*
Residual	30311.636	506	59.904		
Total	32517.969	510			

*Significant at P < .05

Table 11 shows that the composite effect of the social factors as indicated by the R-value of .260 is significant (F=9.208, P<.05). Hence, the R value is not due to chance.

What is the composite effect of the social factors: parental influence, spousal and academic men collegial support and academic men attitudes towards women to female academics' leadership position?

Research Question 8

Table 12 : Pearson Correlation of Social Factors and Leadership Positions N=511

	Career Growth	Parental Influence	Spousal Support	Academic men Collegial Support	Academic men Attitude Towards Women
Pearson Correlation					
Leadership Position	1.000	-.376	.217	-.072	.018
Parental Influence	-.376*	1.000	.110	.136	.050
Spousal Support	.217*	.110	1.000	-.013	.005
Academic men Collegial Support	-.072	.136	-.013	1.000	.936
Academic men Attitude Towards Women	.018	.050	.005	.936	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)					
Leadership Position	.	.000	.000	.053	.339
Parental Influence	.000	.	.006	.001	.129
Spousal Support	.000	.006	.	.388	.452
Academic men Collegial Support	.053	.001	.388	.	.000
Academic men Attitude Towards Women	.339	.129	.452	.000	.

*Significant at P < .05

As shown in Table 12, parental influence has a negative, weak, significant relationship with female academics' leadership position (r=-.376; p<.05) spousal support has a weak, positive relationship which is also significant (r= .217; p<.05); academic men collegial support has a negative, weak and not significant relationship (r=-.072;p>.05) and academic men attitude towards women has a positive, weak and not significant relationship with women's leadership position (r=.018; p>.05). The composite effect is presented in Table 13.

Table 13 : Summary of Regression of Social Variables and Female Academic's Leadership Positions

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
.480[a]	.230	.224	7.4006

Table 13 shows that the four social factors: parental influence, spousal and academic men collegial support and academic men attitudes towards women have positive multiple relationship with female academics' leadership position (R = .480). Also, the R square value of .230 indicates that they could explain 23.0 per cent of the variance in leadership positions. The

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remaining 77.0 per cent is due to other factors and residuals. This composite effect is tested for significance on Table 14.

Table 14 : ANOVA Table for Regression of Social Variables and Academic Women's Leadership Position

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	8300.464	4	2075.116	37.888	.000*
Residual	27713.341	506	54.769		
Total	36013.804	510			

*Significant at P < .05.

From Table 13, the R-value of .480 obtained is significant. Hence, the social factors have significant composite effect on female academics leadership positions.

Research Question 9

What are the relative contributions of parental influence, spousal and academic men collegial support and academic men attitudes towards women on female academics' career growth?

Table 15 : Relative Effects of Social Factors on Academic Women's Career Growth

Social Factors	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	Rank	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta			
(Constant)	31.966	4.774			6.695	.000
Parental Influence	-.112	.025	.197	1st	-4.402	.000*
Spousal Support	.133	.032	.183	2nd	4.216	.000*
Academic men collegial Support	-3.92E-02	.310	.016	4th	-.127	.899
Academic men attitude Towards Women	.164	.264	.078	3rd	.623	.533

*Significant at P < .05

Table 15 shows that parental influence made the greatest contribution to female academics' career growth (β=.197; P<.05). This is a significant contribution. Spousal support is next with a decreasing magnitude (β=.183; P<.05). This is also a significant contribution. The third on the list is the contribution of academic men attitudes towards women (β=.078; p>.05) while the lowest contribution is that made by academic men collegial support (β=.016; p>.05). Evidently, the last two factors made no significant contributions to female academics' career growth.

Research Question 10

What are the relative contributions of the social factors: parental influence, spousal and collegial support and attitudes towards women on female academics' leadership position?

Table 16 : Relative Contributions of Social Factors on Academic Women's Leadership Positions

Social Factors	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	Rank	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta			
(Constant)	42.747	4.565			9.364	.000
Parental Influence	-.220	.024	.368	3rd	-9.050	.000*
Spousal Support	.191	.030	.250	4th	6.343	.000*
Academic men Collegial Support	1.080	.296	.419	2nd	-3.648	.000*
Academic men Attitude Towards Women	.947	.252	.428	1st	3.755	.000*

*Significant at P < .05

Table .16 shows that academic men attitude towards women made the greatest contribution to leadership position (β=.428; p>.05). This is followed by academic men collegial support (β=.419; p<.05), parental influence (β=.368; P<.05) and spousal support (β=.250; p<.05) respectively. All contributions are equally significant.

Research Question 11

To what extent would social variables of parental influence, spousal and academic men collegial support and academic men attitudes towards women predict female academics' career growth?

From Table 15, both parental influence (B= -.112; t= -4.402; p<.05) and spousal support (B=.133;

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t= 4.216; p <.05) could predict female academics career growth. On the other hand, academic men attitude towards women (B=.164; t=.623; P>.05) and academic men collegial support (B= -3.92 E-02; t=1.27; p>.05) could not predict female academics' career growth.

Research Question 12

To what extent would social variables parental influence, spousal and academic men collegial support and academic men attitudes towards women predict female academics' leadership position?

Table 16 shows that all the four social factors could independently predict female academics' leadership position. These are: academic men attitude towards women (B=.947; t=3.755; P<.05), academic men collegial support (B= -1.080; t =-3.648; P<.05), parental influence (B= -.220; t= -9.050; p<.05) and spousal support (B=.191; t=6.343; p<.05).

VII. Discussion, Implications and Recommendations

The result of the findings on the research questions 1 to 6 academics' self-esteem is not as important to their career growth (r= -.022; p>.05) as self-efficacy (r=.300; p<.05) is. This is because while self-esteem could increase without a corresponding improvement in career growth, an improvement in self-efficacy could enhance career growth of female academics. While this present study has found self-esteem to have a negative relationship with academic women's career growth, self-efficacy has a positive significant relationship with both their career growth and leadership position. Other studies, while using subjects other than female academics found self-esteem to influence job tenure (Hackett, 1983), job satisfaction (Bandura, 1997; Lewin, 2006), work experience (Matsui, Ikeda, & Ohnishi, 1989; Madsen, 2006), career choice and aspiration, especially in male dominated careers. None of the studies examined the influence of self-esteem and self-efficacy on academic women's career growth.

Further, self-esteem and self-efficacy correlate positively with women academics' career growth (R=.301). This means these factors could explain career growth to a meaningful extent. Also, the R square value of .091 indicated that 9.1 per cent of the total variance in the women academics' career growth is accounted for by these two psychological factors while the remaining 90.9 per cent is due to other factors and residuals. This finding of both variables correlating with academic women's career growth is in agreement with the findings of (Hackett, 1985; Erinosho, 2005), who found self-efficacy to correlate with performance, achievement and gender in mathematical cognition. Also, Oyèyemí (2001) and Irikefe-Onoriode (1998) found self-efficacy to correlate with career success of migrations of physical therapists professionals, who move from developing to developed countries.

The results obtained show that female academics' self-esteem (r=156; p<.05) and self-efficacy (r= .272; p<.05) have positive, and significant relationship with female academics leadership position.

To this end, the two variables have the tendency to contribute to the improvement of female academic's leadership positions. They also explained the variations in female academics' leadership position to the tune of 9.7 per cent (R square = .097). Hence, the remaining 90.3 per cent is due to other factors and residuals. This finding is consistent with those of Chovwen (2004) and Boatwright, Egidio and Kalamazoo (2003) who found both variables to correlate with leadership aspiration of women, though their subjects were female executives in the industries and college students.

Moreover, the finding of this study is in agreement with the theory of Kanter (1977), reiterated the effect of absolute numbers, where a particular race or gender is the dominant number. The minority may exhibit negative self-evaluation and low self-esteem. Here, male academics are the absolute numbers and female academics the minority, though Kanter's theory was tested in a mono-racial setting; results have proven to be consistent.

Research Questions 3 and 4 show that self-efficacy made a greater contribution (β=.301; P<.05) than self-esteem (β= 0.26; P>.05) to career growth. While the contribution of self-efficacy is significant, that of self-esteem is not. Self-efficacy also made a greater contribution to female academics' leadership position (β=.270; P<.05) than self-esteem (β=.152; p<.05), however, both variables made significant relative contributions to leadership position. This reveals that academic women need high self-efficacy to grow in their career and attain leadership position; they also require high self-esteem to attain leadership positions. Previous studies did not examine the contributory effects the independent variables have on female academics career growth and leadership position. Rather, Wheeler (1983) asserted that although self-efficacy beliefs contribute more heavily to occupational preferences than beliefs about the benefits attainable by different pursuits, women base their occupational preferences more heavily on their perceived efficacy than on the potential benefits that the vocations yield. The above findings is related to those of (Tobias, 1978; 1990; Ware, Steckler, and Leserman, 1985; Peltz, 1990) which concluded that lack of self-confidence, self doubts, fear of failure, and mathematics anxiety, all coupled with an unfriendly masculine culture, contribute to women's lack of success and perceived impaired career growth.

Research Questions 5 and 6 reveal that only self-efficacy predicted female academics' career growth (B=.432; p< .05). Self-esteem did not (B=-3.05E-02; p.05). However, both self-esteem (B=.186; p<.05) and

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self-efficacy (3=.408; p<.05) predicted female academics' leadership positions. This is a slight departure from the findings of Chovwen (2004) who found both variables to predict women's career growth, although her subjects were female executives in industries.

Research questions 8 to 12, showed that parental influence has a negative, weak, relationship which is significant with career growth (r= -.175; p < .05). Spousal support has a positive, weak but significant relationship with the dependant measure (r= .162; p<.05). This finding is consistent with the findings of (Biernat and Wortman, 1990; Chovwen, 2004; Oti and Oyelude, 2006) who reiterated that work/home conflict is a major challenge faced by career women aspiring to leadership.

Moreover, both academic men collegial support (r= .028; p>.05) and academic men attitude towards women (r= .054; p>.05) have very weak positive relationship which are not significant to career growth. This finding is contrary to the submissions of earlier studies that found collegial support to be significant with career satisfaction, retention and tenure of women (Grant, Kennelly and Ward, 2000; O'Laughlin and Bischoff, 2005; Young and Wright, 2001). The four social factors: parental influence, spousal support, academic men collegial support, and academic men attitudes towards women jointly correlate positively with female academics' career growth (R=.260). Parental influence has a negative, weak, significant relationship with female academics' leadership position (r=-.376; p<.05), this result corroborate that of Madsen, 2006. Spousal support has a weak, positive relationship which is also significant (r= .217; p<.05); academic men collegial support has a negative, weak and not significant relationship (r=-.072; p>.05).

which was complimented by the qualitative part of this study. Some of the women agreed that a woman who does not have the support of her husband is being given a choice between the home and her career. Academic men attitude towards women has a positive, weak and not significant relationship with women's leadership position (r=.018; p>.05). The composite effect shows that the four mentioned social factors have positive multiple relationship with female academics' leadership position (R = .480).

Research question 9 and 10 show that parental influence made the greatest contribution to female academics' career growth (β=.197; P<.05). This is a significant contribution. Spousal support is next with a decreasing magnitude (β=.183; P<.05). This is also a significant contribution. The third on the list is the contribution of academic men attitudes towards women (β=.078; p>.05) while the lowest contribution is that made by academic men collegial support (β=.016; p>.05). Although past studies found collegial support mentoring and career shadowing to be rewarding, and determinants of job satisfaction and leadership especially for junior female academics, (Eliason, Berggren and Bondestam, 2000; Oti and Oyelude, 2006) this study is a departure from earlier findings. This may be due to the fact that collegial support in this study is narrowed down to male academics alone.

Academic men attitude towards women made the greatest contribution to leadership position (β=.428; p>.05) though not significant, findings from qualitative aspect confirms this contribution. The women pointed out that the attitudes of male colleagues and even some senior female colleagues are not encouraging and detrimental to their attainment of leadership, this is corroborated by the work of Hammond *et, al.* (1993), as well as academic men collegial support (β=.419; p<.05), parental influence (β=.368; P<.05) and spousal support (β=.250; p<.05) respectively. All the contributions are significant.

Questions 11 and 12 showed that both parental influence (B= -.112; t= -4.402; p<.05) and spousal support (B=.133; t= 4.216; p <.05) predicted female academics' leadership positions. On the other hand, academic men attitude towards women (B=.164; t=.623; P>.05) and academic men collegial support (B= -3.92 E-02; t=1.27; p>.05) did not predict female academics' career growth. The four social factors independently predicted female academics' leadership position. It is pertinent to note that though academic men attitude towards women and academic men collegial support did not predict female academics' leadership position, the qualitative discussion is to the contrary as the women reiterated the importance of having the support of the male counterparts to get to elective positions. Looking at the quantitative result from another angle, these two variables (academic men attitude towards women and academic men collegial support) were not significant because with or without the support or egalitarian attitude of male colleagues; women could still grow to attain leadership as long as it is not an elective position.

Global conventions, research, and changing cultures have affirmed the importance of women in nation-building. The participation of women as academic staff of Nigerian universities (especially in the south west, which is known for educational advancement in Nigeria) shows that there is positive change in culture and socialization which had repressed and denied women western education and white collar careers outside the home for decades.

The following recommendations were arrived at based on the findings of the study:

1. Positive self-concept is an important factor for career growth of women, especially women in academics. Notably, out of the two self-concept factors that were reviewed in this study, self-efficacy is a more important predictor of the career and leadership experience of women. Therefore, career

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women and those aspiring have to do everything possible to build their efficacy in the areas of their individual careers. In academics, women have to build capacity in the following areas:

a) Mastery of research;
b) Mastery of publications and where to publish for acceptability by assessors.
c) How to write scholarly papers;
d) Emotional intelligence- positive relationship with colleagues, superiors and subordinates. It is not enough to just write papers, human and social capital must be built among colleagues.

2. It is important and imperative for women to attend workshops and seminars that can boost their personal and career efficacy, so as to be better positioned for responsibilities.
3. Also, women must overcome personal limitations, have some degree of social support and have a determination to overcome cultural and institutional climate barriers.
4. The university system can help women come out of the web of low self-efficacy by organising gender specific seminars for women in academic leadership and aspiring ones just as it is done in universities in Australia, United Kingdom and South Africa, this is with the background knowledge that the socialisation of women is not consistent with the demands of academics which encourages competition, assertiveness and arguments. Women have been socialised to be passive, not to argue and not to compete for things or positions. This will help to re-orientate them and position them better for the challenges of academics.
5. The career and leadership seminars can be extended to include secondary school students and female undergraduates, in order to refocus them early and harness their potentials for the benefit of the university and society as a whole.
6. It is important for academic women to get the support of their husbands if they must make unhindered progress and attain leadership positions in their careers.
7. It has become imperative for husbands of career women to lend support to their wives, whether emotional, empathic, physical, financial or otherwise, considering the many roles women play in the home and society in general. Women who do not have this support have been found to spend longer time in career mobility, lack concentration or end their marriage in order to grow and reach the apex of their careers. Men should realise that whatever progress a woman makes should be a thing of pride to them; after all Nigerian women answer to their husbands' last names.
8. Parents should pay attention to the development of their children, especially girls, this is because their influence is far reaching. It spans beyond their formative years, right through their career-making decisions, career choice and influencing their work ethics.
9. The values parents put in their children have been found to be very influential in their adult years, values such as honesty, punctuality, hard work, discipline and trust.
10. It was found that many of the respondents were grateful that in spite of all odds, their parents could send them to school even at the time that it was not fashionable to invest in the education of girls. It is recommended that parents invest not only in the education of their girls but also show them love and, acceptance. They should endeavour to complement their effort when necessary. These are very important for developing positive self-esteem that female academics require to cope and adjust with working in a male dominated environment.
11. The implication of this study is that career academic women still have obstacles confronting growth and advancement to their career. Positive self-esteem and self-efficacy are germane to academic women career behaviour and intelligence. Furthermore, if career academic women do not have the support of their husbands, they may grow in their career, but may not occupy leadership position. Parents who do not assert their children, especially the girl-child are not likely to turn out girls with positive self-esteem. Although attitude towards women is not a factor in promotion, but it is a major factor I a woman is seeking elective position.

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The Relevance of French Language to Journalism Education in Nigeria

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Abstract - The relevance of French language in the field of journalism Education in Nigeria is yet to be established. This situation cannot be totally divorced from the language policy in Nigeria and the past colonial experience of the country where English was placed at vantage position compared to French language in all spheres of life in Nigeria. However, researchers and experts in the field of journalism and mass communication education have worked extensively on the significant value of English language and indigenous languages in journalism education Nigeria but there is dearth of research in the area of French language. The researcher therefore investigated the relevance of French language to journalism education in Nigeria.

Simple random sampling technique was used to select a higher institution of learning in Ibadan, Oyo state. A total number of 125 students of mass communication at the Polytechnic, Ibadan participated in the study. Four research questions were raised and answered. The only instrument used for data collection was QMCSAFL. The data collected were analyzed using descriptive statistics of PPMC correlation, T. test and Chi- square.

The results show that Knowledge of French language has significant effect on Journalism Education in Nigeria, at X^2 Calculated (9) = 44.50 greater than X^2 Critical (9) =16.9 at P=0.000<0.05. There is no relationship between attitude and knowledge at (r=0.065; p>0.05).

Keywords : *french language, journalism, education, relevance.*

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There was significant difference between Students' Knowledge of French and students' career development as prospective Journalist. It was observed that the t- Calculated value was greater than t-Critical values (t-Cal=-8.941 > t=Crit =1.96) (P<0.05).

Self-concept has significant effect on students' knowledge of French language as Journalist. X^2 Calculated (9) = 52.11 greater than X^2 Critical (9) =16.9 at P=0.000<0.05.

It is therefore recommended that students' knowledge of French language should be critically looked into as it has significant effect on their career development as journalist. The self- concept has significant effect on students' knowledge of French language as Journalist. Therefore, it must be keenly considered in designing foreign language programme for prospective Journalists.

Keywords : french language, journalism, education, relevance.

I. Introduction

It is not out of place for a journalist to be global in orientation and application, thereby equipping himself with proficiency in a very international language like English. It will however, be out of place for him not to be able to communicate effectively with his very own people (Salawu, 2001). The same assertion is also applicable to French language judging by its global and international status. Proficiency in French language will enlarge his professional horizon and landscape. The inclusion of foreign language such as French into the curriculum of the journalism education will assist the trainee journalists to have adequate international exposure in the course of pursuing their professional career. What is the place of French language in the journalism or mass communication education in Nigeria, most especially in respect of admission requirements?

At the polytechnic, the NBTE requires that special course in English be taught for mass communication students at the National diploma (ND) level (NBTE, 1990). This covers all the four semesters of the programme. It should also be noted that the first year students of ND programme take either one indigenous language or French (NBTE, 1990). This means that French language is optional at this level and does not extend to the Higher National Diploma programme. The optional status of French at the Ordinary National Diploma (ND) level constitutes a set back to the teaching and learning of the language in mass communication education at the Polytechnic.

However, if a language must survive on the national scene, it must be used extensively by the media most especially, the print media (Salawu, 2001). In view of this submission, the survival of French language as a de-facto second official language in Nigeria is highly dependent on its use in the Nigeria media (both print and electronic media).

Akinfeleye (2003) identified the aims and objectives of journalism education in Nigeria when he noted that *the aims and objectives of the journalism programmes in Nigeria are to train journalists, educate them and make them responsible and useful citizens of Nigeria as they use their journalistic expertise to build a new Nigeria*.

It could be inferred from the above quotation that the journalists are enjoined to put their expertise into bear while building a new Nigeria. This could be best done if the so - called journalistic expertise is embellished with the knowledge of a foreign language such as French language.

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Akinfeleye (2003) also gave specific objectives of journalism education while dwelling on the provisions of NBTE and NUC. These specific objectives include:

a) Producing graduate who are to meet the middle and higher level manpower communication requirements of Nigeria.
b) Producing qualified communication / Journalist teachers for the universities, Polytechnics and other similar institutions.
c) Producing technically qualified graduates who can be self-employed upon graduation and
d) Producing socially responsible journalists and communicators.

Looking critically at the first objective: i.e. producing graduates who are to meet the middle and higher level manpower communication requirements of Nigeria: However, meeting the middle and higher level manpower communication requirements of Nigeria goes beyond implementing the teaching and learning of English language or indigenous languages in the curriculum of journalism education in Nigeria. Communication requirement of Nigeria is tied to international and diplomatic communication requirements of the world. Nigeria cannot afford to be an Island to her self in terms of international relations and communication among journalists across the world.

Professor Samuel Olabamji Aje, the Director General and the CEO of the Nigerian French language village, Badagary raised the hope of equipping the Nigerian journalists with the necessary competence or skills in French language in the statement made at the 20th year anniversary press briefing while he reiterated that the Village had intentions to offer French language courses to Nigerian journalists. The statement made by the director threw a spine into the marrow of the journalists present at the occasion as they all laughed and applauded the good gesture. Professor Aje said and I quote.

We want our brothers in the media to be able to utilize this tool to help broaden their reporting horizon. They can now go after French related stories without the need of interpreters.

The university don further affirmed that "after an intensive programme in our institution that will only run for months, our journalists can become competent in French language which will be an inestimable asset in their chosen profession''. The director is highly optimistic in his assertion that the knowledge of French language by the Nigerian journalist will bridge a gap between the use of interpreter and having direct access to information, facts or stories coded in the French language.

The Nigerian French language village successfully trained 45,000 Nigerians from all walks of life since its establishment in 1991. This statistics was confirmed by the Director of the French village in 2011 during the celebration of 20th year's anniversary of the Nigeria French Language Village, Badagry. It was further affirmed that this training could as well be extended to Nigerian journalists.

The journalists are intellectuals and they are expected to be watch dogs of the politicians and the rulers. This team of intellectuals or journalists should be well groomed not only in the acts of news gathering or reporting, but also in the knowledge of additional foreign language such as French language in order to add value to their chosen career and induce the public into reposing confidence in the news stories which is the function of the versatility and diverse approach in the act of news gathering and reporting.

It has been observed that the perceptions, beliefs, attitudes and metacognitive knowledge that students bring with them to the classroom are significant contributory factors in the learning process and a determinant of the ultimate success in the classroom context (Breen, 2001). In the second or foreign language learning context, there are so many phenomena that could constitute the learners' disposition towards the learning of the language in question. Some of these variables include the beliefs about the nature of the language under study, its difficulty, the process of its acquisition, the success of certain learning strategies, the existence of aptitude and the learners' expectation about achievement and teaching methodologies.

However, learners' beliefs or attitude cannot be treated in isolation with respect to the learners' success or achievement in the second or foreign language.

Mantle-Bromley (1995) suggests that if teachers attend to these affective and cognitive components of students' attitudes as well as develop dependable pedagogical techniques, they may be able to increase both the length of time students commit to language study and their chances of success in it.

Attention must be shifted to the affective domains in the foreign or second language learning if a meaningful success would be attained by the learners in foreign language class. Researchers have agreed that it is possible to discover students' attitudes and beliefs since it is particularly obvious that learners bring their attitudes to consciousness and these are well pronounced in the foreign language learning context (Willing, 1988, Kalaja, 2003, Hosenfeld, 2003). Kalaja (2003) further suggested the use of discursive approach of social psychology to study the learner's belief, claiming that this approach is more sensitive than the conventional methods of data collection. However, the factors that influence learners' beliefs or attitude varied from researchers to researchers. Dias (2000) identified family and home background as determinants of learners' beliefs and attitudes. Alexander and Dochy (1995) recognized the cultural background of the learners as a determinant of their beliefs while Arnold (1999) identified classroom and social peers as factors that influence the learners' beliefs or attitudes in the

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learning situation. Individual differences such as the gender and personality of the learners can also be a contributory factor to the learners' beliefs or influence in the foreign language context. Rifkin (2000) further corroborate the relative effect of the learners' individual differences such as personality on the learners' attitudes to foreign language learning. The researchers affirmed that the personality of the learners played significant and important roles in shaping the learners' attitudes even more than phenomena such as the level of language instruction, the nature of language studied and the type of educational institution.

II. The Problem of the Study

The relative importance of foreign language in journalism Education or mass communication education in Nigeria has been long debated by experts in the field of Journalism in Nigeria. Stakeholders in the field of journalism education are skeptical and disillusioned about the inclusion of French language into the curriculum of journalism education in Nigeria. This skepticism gave birth to variation in the content of the curriculum of journalism across various bodies or institutions offering journalism training or mass communication in Nigeria. Research works in Journalism in the recent past only focused on indigenous languages in Journalism in Nigeria to the exclusion of French language. This study therefore set out to investigate the relevance of French language to journalism education in Nigeria.

III. Research Questions

Four research questions were proposed for this study

1. Does knowledge of French language have significant effect on Journalism Education in Nigeria?
2. Is there any significant relationship between attitude and knowledge of French language in Journalism Education in Nigeria?
3. Is there any significant difference between Students' Knowledge of French and students' career development as prospective Journalist?
4. Does self -concept have significant effect on students' knowledge of French language as Journalist?

IV. Research Method

a) Subjects

The population of the study comprises all the higher national diploma (HND) students of mass communication students of the Polytechnic Ibadan. Simple random sampling technique was used to select one hundred and twenty five students of higher national diploma of the department of mass communication of the Polytechnic Ibadan.

b) Instrument

The only instrument used in this study is questionnaire on mass communication students' attitude to French language (QMCSAFL). This instrument is divided into two sections. Sections A & B. Section A deals with the demographic information of the respondents i.e. the name of school, sex, and age. Section B contains twenty five (25) items which were specifically designed to elicit information from the respondents on the significance of French language to journalism or mass communication education.

This instrument is a self-designed instrument. The respondents are expected to respond to the instrument on the likert scale of strongly agree (SA), Agree (A), Disagree (D) and strongly disagree (SD). As part of validation process the instrument was given to experts in the field of journalism and mass communication for thorough examination after which the face and the context validity of the instrument were assured. Professional teachers in the field of French language teaching and learning also verified the instrument and their comments and advice served as a basis to establish the reliability and the validity of the instrument before the instrument was administered on the respondents. Validity test was also conducted on the instrument using Crombach Alpha. The validity score of 0.78 was obtained which made the instrument valid for administration.

c) Procedure

The researcher sought the consent of the students of mass communication of the Polytechnic Ibadan and the significance of the research was specifically made known to them. The researcher also intimated the lecturers of the department of mass communication in the aforementioned institution of the intent and value of the research work at hand. After the consent of the students and lecturers have been granted, the researcher swung into action to administer the instrument on the respondents with the assistance of the lecturers of the department. However, out of 125 instruments administered only 120 were retrieved from the respondents.

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V. Data Analysis and Results

a) Socio-Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Table 4.1 : Socio-Demographic Characteristics

Variables		Frequency	Percentage
Institution	The Polytechnic Ibadan	120	100.0
	Total	**120**	**100.0**
Sex	Male	82	68.3
	Female	38	31.7
	Total	**120**	**100.0%**
Age group	Less than 20 years	12	10.0
	21 to 25 years	46	38.3
	26 to 30 years	62	51.7
	Total	**120**	**100.0**

Table 4.1 revealed Social demographic characteristics of respondents, the results revealed the name of Institution as The Polytechnic Ibadan with percentage of 120(100.0%). It implies that only The Polytechnic students were used.

Finally, the table revealed the frequency distribution according to sex of respondents, the result shows high percentage of male as 82(68.3%) while female respondents were 38(31.7%). It implies that male have higher percentage.

b) Resolution of Research Questions

Research Question 1

Does knowledge of French language have significant effect on Journalism Education in Nigeria?

Table 4.2 : Show the chi-square of Knowledge on Journalism

	Career Choice						X^2 Cal	Crit. Val	Df	P value	R
		SD	D	A	SA	Total	44.50	16.9	9	0.000	S
Knowledge	SD	3	6	0	0	9					
		2.5	5.0	0.0	0.0	7.5					
	D	7	15	6	0	28					
		5.8	12.5	5.0	0.0	23.3					
	A	16	21	7	9	53					
		13.3	17.5	5.8	7.5	44.2					
	SA	0	4	14	12	30					
		0.0	3.3	11.7	10.0	25.0					
Total		26	46	24	21	120					

Since the calculated value (44.50) was greater than the Critical value (16.9). That is, knowledge of French language have significant effect on Journalism Education in Nigeria, at X^2 Calculated (9) = 44.50 greater than X^2 Critical (9) =16.9 at P=0.000<0.05. The conclusion therefore was that, knowledge of French language has significant effect on Journalism Education in Nigeria.

Research Questions 2

Is there any significant relationship between attitude and knowledge of French language in Journalism Education in Nigeria?

Table 4.3 : shows correlation analysis between attitude and knowledge of French language

Variables	N	Mean	SD	r	P	Remark
Attitude	120	2.51	1.05	-	-	-
Knowledge	120	2.57	0.87	0.065	0.479	NS

Significant = 0.05 level.

The result from table 4.3 shows that correlation was not significant at the 0.05 level, Moment Correlation Coefficient (r) 0.065, indicating there is no relationship between attitude and knowledge at (r=0.065; p>0.05) Since P value is greater than 0.05. That is there is no significant relationship between Attitude and Knowledge of French Language in Journalism Education in Nigeria.

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Table 4.4 : Show the t-test of Knowledge and Students' career

Variable	N	Mean	Std. Dev	Std Error	t. Cal	t.Crit	Df	Sig (2 tail)
Knowledge	120	20.95	3.051	0.279	-8.941	1.96	119	0.000
Career Choice	120	24.17	4.225	0.386				

The table 4.4 shows that there was significant difference between Students' Knowledge of French and students' career development as prospective Journalist. It was observed that the t- Calculated value was greater than t-Critical values (t-Cal=-8.941 > t=Crit =1.96) (P<0.05). It is significant. Therefore it was concluded that, there was significant difference between Students' Knowledge of French and students' career development as prospective Journalist.

Research Question 4

Does self -concept have significant effect on students' knowledge of French language as a Journalist?

Table 4.5 : Show the chi-square of self-concept on students' knowledge

	Career Choice						X^2 Cal	Crit. Val	Df	P value	R
		SD	D	A	SA	Total	52.11	16.9	9	0.000	S
Self concept	SD	3	6	3	1	13					
		2.5	5.0	2.5	0.8	10.8					
	D	6	28	1	16	51					
		5.0	23.3	0.8	13.3	42.5					
	A	14	12	13	0	39					
		11.7	10.0	10.8	0.0	32.5					
	SA	3	0	10	4	17					
		2.5	0.0	8.3	3.3	14.2					
Total		26	46	24	21	120					

Since the calculated value (52.11) was greater than the Critical value (16.9). that is, self -concept has significant effect on students' knowledge of French language as Journalist, at X^2 Calculated (9) = 52.11 greater than X^2 Critical (9) =16.9 at P=0.000<0.05, the conclusion therefore was that, self-concept has significant effect on students' knowledge of French language as Journalist.

VI. Summary of Results

The summary of the results is as follows:

1. Knowledge of French language has significant effect on Journalism Education in Nigeria, at X^2 Calculated (9) = 44.50 greater than X^2 Critical (9) =16.9 at P=0.000<0.05.
2. There is no relationship between attitude and knowledge at (r=0.065; p>0.05).
3. There was significant difference between Students' Knowledge of French and students' career development as prospective Journalist. It was observed that the t- Calculated value was greater than t-Critical values (t-Cal=-8.941 > t=Crit =1.96) (P<0.05).
4. Self-concept has significant effect on students' knowledge of French language as Journalist. X^2 Calculated (9) = 52.11 greater than X^2 Critical (9) =16.9 at P=0.000<0.05.

VII. Conclusions

We have succinctly considered in this study, the relative significance of foreign language programme on the Journalism education in Nigeria with particular emphasis on French language as the de facto second official language in Nigeria. Attempt has also been made to establish the popularity of French language in Journalism profession in Nigeria as a multilingual and multicultural state where over five hundred languages exist together with English language which is the official language of the country. It is not gainsaying the fact that language is a tool or instrument per excellence for carrying out the journalistic activities such as news gathering, research, interview, News reporting and news editing.

However, French language is yet to be offered its pride of place in Journalism education in Nigeria most especially in the area of requirements for admission into tertiary institutions in Nigeria where Journalism or mass communication is offered. The language is also not found on the curriculum of many tertiary institutions in Nigeria where mass communication is offered. In some cases where the language is found on the curriculum, it only wears an optional look. This scenario has relegated the status of the language to the background despite its status as the second official language in Nigeria and the useful value

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of the language to prospective Journalist who is aspiring to operate on the international scene.

Knowledge of French language should be critically looked into as it has significant effect on the career development of students of Journalism. In addition, the self- concept has significant effect on students' knowledge of French language as Journalist. Therefore, it must be keenly considered in designing foreign language programme for prospective Journalists.

VIII. Recommendations

1. The attitudes of students of mass communication or journalism to French language should be positively enhanced in order to improve on their knowledge of the language. Nigerian union of journalist (NUJ) and other vital organs in the field of journalism should embark on sensitization programme that would create an awareness of the relevance of French language as a veritable tool in journalism profession in Nigeria.
2. The students should be encouraged to embrace the learning of French language at the earlier stage of their career in journalism or mass communication. The results of this study revealed that as students advance in age they tend to recognize the value of French language which could be as a result of their belief that it could help boost their career in the process of searching for job.
3. Government should formulate a policy that will make French language compulsory in all institutions offering Journalism or mass communication in Nigeria. The government should also see to the implementation of such policy by providing technical assistance through provisions of incentives or funds to these institutions.
4. Government should embark on mass training of French teachers and their subsequent deployment to the Journalism schools and institutions in Nigeria.
5. Government should embark on sensitization programmes and value re- orientation among the Nigerian citizenry in respect of the significant worth of French language to Journalism education in Nigeria. This campaign can be flagged off in all higher institutions of learning in Nigeria and professional bodies such Nigeria Union of Journalists (NUJ) etc.

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Learning Style Preferences of EFL Learners at Higher Secondary Level in Bangladesh

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Abstract - If the classroom teaching-learning practices are based on the learning style preferences of the learners of EFL/ESL, the language learning can take place effectively. However, in this regard learners' learning style preferences have to match with teachers' perceptions about the tasks and activities to be done in the classroom. In Bangladesh the classroom teaching-learning practices, which are now followed to teach English as a foreign language, are not based on proper investigation of learners' learning style preferences. Consequently, expected results are not found from classroom teaching. Therefore, it is necessary to investigate the learning style preferences of the EFL learners of Bangladesh and take appropriate measures accordingly. Taking this point in view, the present researcher has attempted to investigate the learning style preferences of the EFL students at higher secondary level and then provide some suggestions in the light of the findings.

Keywords : *learning style, teacher's perception, cognitive, psychological, affective, culture, socialization, classroom practices, pedagogical implications, field-dependent, field-independent, reflective, impulsive, auditory, visual, kinesthetic, tactile, inductive, deductive, communicative, authorityoriented, etc.*

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Abstract - If the classroom teaching-learning practices are based on the learning style preferences of the learners of EFL/ESL, the language learning can take place effectively. However, in this regard learners' learning style preferences have to match with teachers' perceptions about the tasks and activities to be done in the classroom. In Bangladesh the classroom teaching-learning practices, which are now followed to teach English as a foreign language, are not based on proper investigation of learners' learning style preferences. Consequently, expected results are not found from classroom teaching. Therefore, it is necessary to investigate the learning style preferences of the EFL learners of Bangladesh and take appropriate measures accordingly. Taking this point in view, the present researcher has attempted to investigate the learning style preferences of the EFL students at higher secondary level and then provide some suggestions in the light of the findings.

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I. Introduction

In language teaching and learning, learning style is concerned with learners' preferred ways of processing or internalizing data/information of a language with a view to learning it. Claxton and Ralston (1978, 1 cited in Hyland 1993, 72) define it as ".....a student's constant way of responding and using stimuli in the context of learning." Hyland (1993, 73) refers it as a person's natural, habitual and preferred way of learning. A more recent definition given by Vester (2005) explains it as the way a person perceives, conceptualizes, organizes and recalls information. All these definitions indicate that learning style is a broad concept, which includes a learner's cognitive, psychological and affective variables.

Learners' learning style preferences have very close relationship with the culture of the society of which they are members. During socialization, psychological and cognitive characteristics of learners get shaped by their cultures. Through their interactions with the members of their society, they develop certain traits of their personalities which ultimately go into the making of their learning style preferences. It is found that the people who live within the same cultural patterns of a society obtain certain basic and common traits of that culture. That is why, the learners of one society differ from the learners of another society in their learning style preferences. Oxford et al (1992, 441 cited in Hyland 1993, 75) recognize culture as a significant factor in the learning style preferences of the learners. Expressing similar views, Guild and Garger (1985, 18 cited in Melton 1990, 30) state, "Socialization plays a role in the development of the style preferences of the people of various cultures and in both sexes." As to differences in the learning style preferences of the learners of different societies, Young (1987) also thinks that culture plays a vital role in this respect. Referring to the role of culture, he (1987, 18) claims, "Children from identifiably different cultural groups overwhelmingly exhibit certain learning styles." He (1987, 24) asserts that it is due to culture that ways of teaching and ways of learning differ from one community to another. It is, therefore, necessary to identify the learning style preferences of the learners of Bangladesh, the country that has her own peculiarities in respect of her society, culture, history, geography and language.

Knowledge about learners' learning style preferences has wider implications for language teaching methodology or classroom practices. If teaching methodology is in tune with the preferred learning styles of students, teaching can take place in the satisfaction of students and better results can be achieved. According to Domino (1979 cited in Melton 1990), Dunn (1984 cited in Melton 1090) and Young (1987), if students are taught according to their preferred learning styles, they achieve greater academic success and get more motivated to learn. Echoing similar views, Reid (1987, 1995) says, "All students have their own learning styles and learning strengths and weaknesses, and a mismatch between teaching and learning styles causes learning failure, frustration, and demotivation." Pointing out the importance of the knowledge about learners' learning styles, Alfonseca et al. (2006) state that an awareness of students' learning styles enables teachers to adopt appropriate techniques and methods so that they suit the students' preferences. Knowledge about students' preferences can also provide proper guidelines to the curriculum designers

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and materials developers. In this regard, Reid (1987, p. 788) opines that identifying the learning style preferences of non-native speakers (NNSs) may have wide-ranging implications in the areas of curriculum design, materials development, student orientation, and teacher training.

However, along with knowledge of learners' learning style preferences, it is also important to know the teachers' perceptions or preferences about these preferences of learners. Teachers have their own experiences and preferences about good teaching and are the key players to make the learners' learning practices successful. Therefore, if the teachers do not endorse the learners' preferences, effective learning will not take place. For effective learning there should be a compromise between teachers' perceptions or their teaching style preferences and learners' preferences. Putting emphasis on the matching between learners' and teachers' preferences, Spolsky (1987, 110) says, "...learning is best when the teaching style matches the learner's learning style preference."

II. A Review of Different Models of Learning Styles

The researchers and experts have proposed a number of models of learning styles over the past few decades. Taking learning mainly as cognitive factor, Witkin et al. (1978) have considered learning styles in terms of *field-dependence and field-independence*. To explain these two categories of learning styles, they have identified three types of differences between them such as *'global vs. analytical', 'external vs. internal'*, and *'passive vs. active'*. By 'global vs. analytical' they explain that field-dependent students have global perception and try to perceive something holistically whereas field-independent students are good at analytical thought and pay attention to separate parts of an object. Regarding 'external vs. internal' they state that field-dependent students tend to rely on external environment and referents to process information, but field-independent ones tend to be autonomous by relying on internal capability and referents. As to 'passive vs. active' Witkin et al. maintain that field-dependent students are passive to use cognitive strategies, but field-independent ones are active to use cognitive strategies.

According to keefs (1979, 4 cited in Melton 1990, 33), learning styles are the cognitive, affective and physiological traits/ behaviours that serve as relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with, and respond to, the learning environment That is, he has categorized learning styles into three dimensions—cognitive, affective and physiological. He argues that learning style does not depend only on cognitive factor, but also on physiological and affective factors.

Discussing learning styles, Felder and Silverman (1988) have categorized them into five dimensions, with each dimension having two opposite variables. The categorization of their model is like this: (i) *perception* (sensitive vs. intuitive), (ii) *input* (visual vs. verbal), (iii) *processing* (active vs. reflective), (iv) *understanding* (sequential vs. global) and (v) *organization* (inductive vs. deductive). To explain each variable of these dimensions, Felder and Silverman state that (i) sensitive learners are patient with details and like facts and data, but dislike complexities. Contrarily, intuitive learners like complexities, but get bored by details. (ii) Visual learners remember something better if they can see it in the form of picture, diagram, line, etc., whereas verbal learners remember better when they hear and talk about something. (iii) Active learners like to work in groups and remain active in any learning environment, but reflective learners like to learn in the situations where they get opportunities for thinking. (iv) Sequential learners like to learn something by following linear reasoning process while global learners like to learn something holistically, instead of following linear reasoning process. (v) Lastly, inductive learners like to move from particulars to generalities in reasoning while deductive learners do just the opposite.

After analyzing and duly considering the views of some other researchers on different kinds of learning styles, Willing (1988) has presented his own model of learning styles. He has categorized learners into four types and described them as *analytical learners, authority-oriented learners, communicative learners and concrete learners*. According to Willing, analytical learners like to learn something by analyzing it carefully and autonomously. He interprets authority-oriented learners as persons who like to learn under teacher's direction, instead of learning autonomously. Regarding communicative learners, he says that they like to follow a communicative and social learning approach in relation to language learning. With respect to concrete learners, he maintains that they are the people who like to use very direct means to take in and process information.

Among the popular learning style models that have so far been forwarded by the researchers, one has been proposed by Reid (1987). Reid's model has two major dimensions: *perceptual and sociological*, and under these two dimensions there are six categories of learning styles in total. He has split the *perceptual dimension* into four categories-- auditory, visual, tactile and kinesthetic. Similarly, she has divided the *sociological dimension* into two categories- individual preferring and group preferring. However, later on Reid (1995) modifies her model a little bit on his attempt to accommodate all the available proposed models. This time she presents it through three major dimensions and they are: i) *cognitive*

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learning styles, ii) sensory learning styles, and iii) personality learning styles. Obviously, she has divided each of these dimensions into some sub-categories. She has categorized *the cognitive learning styles* as field-dependent vs. field-independent, analytic vs. global and reflective vs. impulsive, *the sensory learning styles* as auditory, visual, haptic and physical vs. sociological, and lastly *the personality learning styles* as extroversion vs. introversion, sensing vs. perception and thinking vs. feeling.

III. Major Types of Learning Styles Found from Different Models

An analysis of the above mentioned models of learning styles shows that there are remarkable similarities among these models with respect to their variables/dimensions. Though in some cases of these variables separate terminologies have been used, they indicate more or less similar kind of learning style. However, variations are also found in respect of the number of these variables. Some model or models include larger number of variables than the others. Therefore, on any attempt to make a list of the major types of learning styles on the basis of the above mentioned models avoiding the repetitions of their variables/dimensions, the following list is found. Obviously, this selection includes the major aspects of cognitive, psychological and affective learning styles.

a) Field-Independent Vs. Field-Dependent

Field- independent learners learn more efficiently step by step, from the beginning with analyzing facts and proceeding to ideas. They also like to learn individually. On the contrary, field-dependent learners prefer to learn something as a whole by depending on the total field and on the context.

b) Reflective Vs. Impulsive

Reflective learners learn more effectively if they get some time to consider options before the response is made. Impulsive learners, in contrast, are able to respond immediately, and they take risks.

c) Auditory Vs. Visual

Auditory learners learn more effectively through the ears (hearing) such as listening to lectures, oral explanation, audio tapes, discussions in class, etc. On the other hand, visual learners learn more effectively through the eyes (seeing) such as reading texts, studying books, etc.

d) Kinesthetic and Tactile

A kinesthetic learner learns better through experiential learning, that is, through total physical involvement with a learning situation such as role-play, holding dialogues, moving around, etc. whereas a tactile learner likes to learn through 'hands-on' experiences such as taking notes, building models or doing laboratory experiments.

e) Group-Preferring Vs. Individual-Preferring

Group-preferring learners are extrovert and interested to learn in group and communicate with others to maintain a good relation with them. On the contrary, individual-preferring learners are introvert and try to learn something individually and independently.

f) Inductive Vs. Deductive

Inductive learners like to induce a rule or draw a conclusion from a number of instances, thereby moving from instances to rules or generalizations. On the other hand, Deductive learners like to articulate a rule first and then proceed to its instances. That is, their reasoning progression moves from rules or generalizations to specific instances.

g) Authority-Oriented Vs. Communicative

Authority-Oriented learners like to learn under the authority or the directions of teachers, but Communicative learners like to learn in a free environment by following a communicative and social learning approach.

IV. Objectives of This Study

English language teaching (ELT) in Bangladesh is not based on appropriate mode of classroom practices. The replacement of the Grammar-Translation Method by the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in the last nineties was not based on proper empirical investigation into the suitability of the principles of CLT in the context of the country. In the classroom practices neither the contextual realities nor the preferred strategies or styles of learners have been duly taken into consideration. The teachers here are little aware of the ways their students prefer to learn the language. But the reality is that both the teachers and the learners have their own preferences in respect of English language teaching and learning styles as they have their own cultural profiles which they have derived from the culture of their society. According to Islam (2011), teachers in Bangladesh need to discover their students' preferred ways of learning English, by which they can make their teaching effective and appealing to the students to the optimum level. Therefore, considering the importance of knowing learners' preferred ways of learning in order to make ELT in Bangladesh effective and appealing, the present article has dealt with the following questions:

1. What are the preferred learning styles of the learners of Bangladesh?
2. What are the teachers' perceptions about these preferred styles?
3. What should be the appropriate mode of classroom teaching-learning practices on the basis of the learners' preferred learning styles and the teachers' perceptions?

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V. Methodology

The study has made a questionnaire survey based on existing learning style instruments in order to determine the learning style preferences of Bangladeshi learners at the secondary level. For this purpose 100 students of twelfth class from three colleges of main stream education situated in the district of Mymensingh were taken as respondents. Of these three colleges, one was a government college and two were non-government ones. Since the number of the non-government colleges is larger than that of the government colleges in Bangladesh, two non-government colleges were taken against one government college. The study also interviewed 8 English teachers from the same institutions in order to know their perceptions regarding their students' learning style preferences.

The questionnaire that was used in this survey consisted of 16 questions written in English. In order to capture the responses of the respondents, a Likert scale with five options (**strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree, strongly disagree**) indicating the extent of their agreement or disagreement with the statements of the questionnaire was used.

VI. Presentation of the Results

Table 1 : Statements of the questionnaire, and Percentages and Means of Responses

Statements	Strongly agree	agree	undecided	disagree	Strongly disagree	Mean score
1. I prefer to learn by role-playing, holding dialogues with others for conversational skills, etc., in the class.	30%	42%	10%	6%	12%	3.72
2. I like to learn with others or in group in the class	38%	34%	4%	12%	12%	3.74
3. I like to learn by doing problem-solving activities or exercises and thereby involving my -self in writing.	24%	30%	14%	20%	12%	3.34
4. I prefer to learn in a free environment, by talking and sharing with others in the class.	24%	48%	2%	14%	14%	3.6
5. I learn better when I listen to teachers' lectures, someone's utterances, audio tapes, etc.	48%	32%	10%	4%	4%	4.1
6. I like to learn individually rather than in group..	16%	32%	10%	28%	12%	3.06
7. While learning, I like to guess anything quickly, without bothering about right or wrong.	28%	6%	16%	40%	30%	3.22
8. I learn better when I read something or when teachers write on the whiteboard in the class.	22%	48%	14%	14%	2%	3.74
9. I like to read some text and then discover the grammatical rules that have been used in it.	34%	34%	4%	16%	12%	3.62
10. I like my teacher to guide me, correct my errors and explain my lessons.	74%	22%	0%	2%	0%	4.62
11. I like to learn by watching TV, films, etc.	24%	36%	6%	6%	24%	3.18
12. When I learn a lesson, I like to learn it step by step, concentrating on its parts.	60%	26%	0%	2%	12%	4.2
13. While reading something, or hearing teacher's lecture or any discussion, I like to take notes.	70%	16%	10%	4%	0%	4.52
14. While learning, I like to guess anything cautiously and think critically, without making any hurry.	58%	24%	14%	4%	0%	4.36
15. I like to learn the grammatical rules before I see their uses in texts or in examples.	21%	11%	7%	6%	3%	3.7
16. When I learn a lesson, I like to learn it as a whole, without bothering about its parts.	15%	10%	5%	10%	11%	3.22

To indicate the result of each statement of the questionnaire, the **Mean** score of the respondents' responses on the statement has been worked out. In this respect, strongly agree = 5, agree =4, undecided =3, disagree =2 and strongly disagree =1 point or points have been counted as the values of the responses. The **Mean** scores above 4 are regarded as 'very high', above 3 but below 4 as 'high', above 2 but below 3 as 'low' and below 2 as 'very low' preferences.

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VII. Analysis of the Results

Though in the questionnaire the statements representing different learning styles have been presented randomly to avoid any bias from the respondents, the results of these statements have been analyzed and discussed in pair or in their dichotomous relationships as per the requirement of this study.

a) Field-Dependent Vs. Field-Independent

The results show that the EFL learners of Bangladesh at the higher secondary level are more filed-independent than field-dependent. They are more inclined to learn something part by part or step by step, that is, concentrating on the individual parts of it (Statement no. 12, Mean 4.2) rather than as a whole (Statement no. 16, Mean 3.22). The result does not go with the popular belief that the learners of Bangladesh (as Asian learners) happen to be mostly field-dependent. However, the Mean score 3.22 in favour of field-dependent style of learning indicates that their preference for this style is also significant. The results actually signify that both kind of learning styles are preferred by the Bangladeshi learners.

b) Reflective Vs. Impulsive

The statement nos. 14 and 7 are concerned with the reflective and the impulsive styles of learning. The Mean score 4.36 of the statement no. 14 indicates that the respondents are highly reflective learners as they have very high preference for the style of thinking something critically or guessing something cautiously while learning English. However, the Mean score 3.22 of the statement no. 7 indicates that they are also to some extent impulsive learners as they remarkably prefer to make swift response to any query or guess anything quickly while they are engaged in learning.

c) Auditory Vs. Visual

The statement nos. 5, 8 and 11 represent the auditory and the visual styles of learning. The results of these statements show that the EFL learners of the country are highly auditory ones. They have very high preference for learning English through their sense of hearing, that is, by hearing teacher's lecture, or by listening to others or audio tapes, etc. (Statement no. 5, Mean score 4.1). As to visual learning or learning through the sense of sight, the result indicates that when they have high preference for reading texts or teachers' writings on the whiteboards (statement no. 8, Mean 3.74), their preference for watching TV is not so high (statement no. 11, Mean 3.18).

d) Kinesthetic and Tactile

The statements which are concerned with the kinesthetic and the tactile learning styles are nos. 1, 2 and 13. The results of these statements project that the learners under the study have high preferences for both the kinesthetic and the tactile learning styles. As to the kinesthetic style, it is seen that they very much like to learn through role-playing or holding dialogues for conversation skills, all of which are the examples of experiential learning (statement no.1, Mean score 3.72). Regarding the tactile leaning style, it is seen that the learners highly like to learn by taking notes or by doing problem-solving activities through writing, which can be treated as hands-on experience (statement nos. 13 and 3, Mean scores 4.52 and 3.34).

e) Group-Preferring vs. Individual-Preferring

To compare the group-preferring style with the individual-preferring one, it is found that the learners of the country have a greater degree of choice for the group-preferring style than for the individual-preferring one. The Mean score of the statement no. 2 representing their choice for learning in groups is 3.74 whereas the Mean score of the statement no. 6 representing individual learning is only 3.06. Their greater choice for group learning also indicates that they are more extrovert than introvert.

f) Inductive Vs. Deductive

To consider the learners' preferences between inductive and deductive processes of learning, it is found that their preference for deductive process is a little higher than their preference for inductive process with respect to learning grammar. The Mean score of the statement no, 15 representing the deductive process is 3.7 and the Mean score of the statement no. 9 representing the inductive process is 3.62. That is, the learners of Bangladesh have a little bit greater tendency to move from generalizations to instances rather than to move from instances to generalizations.

g) Authority-Oriented Vs. Communicative

Lastly, it is found that the learners under this study prefer the authority-oriented learning style over the communicative learning style. Their preference for learning under the control of their teachers and also for having things explained or getting errors corrected by them is very high (Statement no. 10, Mean 4.62) though their preference for learning through talking and sharing with one another, being free from teacher's control, is also remarkable (Statement no. 4, Mean 3.6).

VIII. Teachers' Perceptions about Learners' Preferences

It has already been mentioned that 10 English language teachers of the same educational institutes where learners' questionnaire survey was done were interviewed to know their perceptions about learners' preferences. The teachers were very cordial and co-operative about their interviews, and expressed their views and opinions freely. Though they ratified some

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of the preferences of their learners, they were found critical about some others of them.

About learners' greater degree of preference for field-independent learning style over field-dependent learning style, they opined that this very preference of learners was useful and effective for their context. In a context like theirs where learners did not have sufficient exposure to English inside and outside the classroom, the global approach, that is, the field-dependent learning would not happen to be as effective as the field-independent learning would be. In such a context an analytical approach where learners would go step by step coming to grip with the meanings of every small part of a text would be more effective for language learning.

With respect to their high preference for authority-oriented style over communicative style, all the teachers passed positive comments. They opined that the learners of their country were culturally dependent on their teachers, and, therefore, they would be at a loss if teachers withdrew their guidance. "Besides," some of them commented, "teachers have better knowledge and experience, and, therefore, when they guide their learners and correct their errors, they learn better." With respect to their learners' high preference for communicative style, most of them remarked, "They have claimed this preference as a fashion. Practically, they are not found eager to talk in the class. Very often we need to compel them to talk."

Teachers also expressed positive views on learners' higher preference for the deductive process of learning of grammatical rules. Justifying the deductive process, they argued that in a context like Bangladesh where English was taught as a foreign language, learners badly needed to learn the discrete grammatical rules through deductive process so that they could make sentences by using those rules.

However, most of the teachers were found critical of the greater degree of learners' preferences for kinesthetic and group-preferring styles of learning. They opined that their preferences for kinesthetic or for group-preferring styles were not practical in their context. They asserted that they had many sorts of limitations in terms of class size, class duration, teaching-learning aids, compulsion to complete the syllabus, etc., which happened to create barriers to the practice of the activities relating to these styles. "It is not possible to arrange role-plays, dialogues, group work, etc. everyday. It not only consumes the valuable time fixed for the class but also creates a hazardous situation in the class", four teachers commented. Besides, their learners would lose, some of them claimed, their interest in these activities within a few days if they were allowed to continue doing them for some consecutive days.

However, two teachers out of eight appreciated the learners' high preference for activities like role-play, group work, pair work, etc. "We have contextual limitations for thee activities, but we must appreciate our students for their choices. After all, these activities help students enhance their fluency", they opined.

IX. Comments and Suggestions for Pedagogical Practices

One of the significant points of the results is that the learners under the study aggregately do not show any negative tendency towards any particular style. They show positive tendency towards almost all categories of learning styles. The differences are found only in respect of the degree of their preferences. That is, the degree of learners' preference for one style is found higher than that for another style when the results of two styles are compared with each other. Obviously, the highest priority should be given to those styles for which they have the highest degree of preferences.

Another significant point is the conflicts between learners' preferences and teachers' perceptions in some cases. These conflicts between them have to be traced into the cultural change of their society as well as into the differences of their practical experiences. The culture of a society does not stand still, and, therefore, the culture of Bangladeshi society is getting changed from generation to generation. Over the last few decades the unprecedented explosion of science and technology has turned the whole world into a global village, facilitating the intercultural and international communications among the people of the world. As a result, like many other countries of the world the cultural change of Bangladesh has also taken place very rapidly. Very distinctive marks of this change are noticed in the cultural behaviour and patterns of the people of two generations of the country over the last twenty years. That is why, the learners who are the representatives of the new generations differ from their teachers who are the representatives of the old generation in many respects including some aspects of learning styles.

However, when teachers are practical in some cases because of their long teaching experiences, learners happen to be impractical and fanciful owing to the lack of their experiences. They know better than their learners about what type of classroom practices would be practical and effective under the hard realities of a context. Obviously, in case of any conflict between learners' preferences and teachers' perceptions or preferences, it is teachers' perceptions or preferences that deserve priority.

It is needless to say that the overall results of the present study have significant implications for the

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pedagogical decisions about ELT in Bangladesh. In this regard, the following suggestions are made:

1. Teacher-fronted classroom would be appropriate for teaching English in Bangladesh as learners here like to learn under the guidance of teachers, hearing their lectures.
2. Teachers need to explain the learning items as much as possible and correct learners' errors then and there.
3. Learners' higher preferences for the field-independent and reflective styles of learning over the field-dependent and impulsive styles signify that any approach facilitating rote-learning should be avoided. Instead, analytical, discovery-oriented and meaning-searching approach should be emphasized. A reflective learner requires patience from the teacher, and, therefore, he must allow his student sufficient time to come up with his/her responses.
4. The textbooks here should provide sufficient amount of reading texts to cater to learners' preference for reading. Besides, the textbooks should be so designed as to accommodate both the inductive and the deductive processes of learning, with emphasis on the deductive one.
5. Taking learners' preferences for the auditory and the visual styles into account, modern teaching-learning aids like audio tape, television, multi-media, etc. can be pragmatically utilized. This will bring variety, excitement and entertainment in the class.
6. Considering various kinds of contextual constraints and practical problems with respect to the activities such as role-play, group work, pair work, etc., belonging to kinesthetic style, these activities can be kept limited though learners have high preferences for them. However, in respect of learners' preference for tactile learning style, modern technology like computer can prove as a very vital teaching-learning aid in Bangladeshi context. Learners can have hands-on experience by using computer for the purpose of learning English. Referring to the importance of computer, Moharrer (2012) states that through technology like computer learners can transform abstract materials into visual or auditory content and can get authentic and real experiences.
7. Teachers need to diversify their teaching styles and techniques to meet learners' varied needs and preferences. Ur (1996, 216) argues that activities in class should be varied, and a varied lesson plan is more likely to cater to a wide range of learning styles and strategies.
8. Training programmes should be arranged for teachers to make them aware of the different kinds of learning style preferences of learners so that they can take proper measures to address them. Besides, any wrong perception of them regarding learning styles or strategies has to be dispelled through these programmes.
9. Counseling should be provided to students to make them aware of their individual preferences of styles so that they can properly enjoy the act of learning and make better achievements. If any preference of them conflicts with that of their teachers' preference or perception, they need to be motivated to adjust themselves with the preference of the teachers.
10. Programmes like seminars, workshops or social classes should be arranged to build up good rapports between teachers and learners.

X. Conclusion

The EFL learners of Bangladesh have their own learning style preferences based on their own cultural orientation as well as on their cognitive and psychological make-up. Though in some exceptional cases these preferences of them conflict with the perceptions of their teachers owing to their generation-gap, in all other cases they are found harmonious with teachers' perceptions. Teachers are found critical especially of their learners' preferences regarding kinesthetic and communicative styles as they do not consider these styles practical in the contextual realities of the country. With these exceptions, they express their positive views regarding the state of their learners' preferences for other kinds of learning styles.

Among the highly preferred styles of the learners, the most remarkable are the field-independent, reflective, auditory and authority-oriented styles of learning. However, for effective teaching and learning this harmony between learners' preferences and teachers' perceptions is not enough unless the teachers become aware of these preferences of their learners and take necessary measures accordingly. Similarly, learners also need to be aware of all of these of their own preferences so that they can learn in accordance with their preferred learning styles and make their learning effective and joyful.

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A Comparison of Global Knowledge and Abilities between Pre-Service Teachers and in-Service Teachers in Taiwan

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Abstract - The purpose of this study is to compare global knowledge and abilities between pre-service teachers and inservice teachers in Taiwan. To collect data, a questionnaire, containing 40 items within four categories, was developed and distributed to 537 samples. The results indicated that preservice teachers had more global knowledge than did inservice teachers, in global correlation systems and global issues. Moreover, major and teaching fields had significant differences in global knowledge and abilities. The results of this study can be applied to improve teacher education programs for global education and to increase global concerns for teachers in different fields.

Keywords : *global education; global knowledge and abilities; pre-service teachers; in-service teachers; majors; teaching fields.*

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A Comparison of Global Knowledge and Abilities between Pre-Service Teachers and in-Service Teachers in Taiwan

Dr. Su-ching Lin

Abstract - **The purpose of this study is to compare global knowledge and abilities between pre-service teachers and in-service teachers in Taiwan. To collect data, a questionnaire, containing 40 items within four categories, was developed and distributed to 537 samples. The results indicated that pre-service teachers had more global knowledge than did in-service teachers, in global correlation systems and global issues. Moreover, major and teaching fields had significant differences in global knowledge and abilities. The results of this study can be applied to improve teacher education programs for global education and to increase global concerns for teachers in different fields.**

Keywords : global education; global knowledge and abilities; pre-service teachers; in-service teachers; majors; teaching fields.

I. Introduction

The 21st Century is the age of globalization which is an ongoing process of intensifying economic, social, and cultural exchanges across the planet. Globalization is challenging schools everywhere and in multiple ways (Suárez-Orozco & Sattin, 2007). Students' daily contacts include individuals from diverse ethnic, gender, linguistic, racial, and socioeconomic backgrounds. Moreover, these students are experiencing some of history's most serious health problems, inequities between less-developed and more-developed nations, environmental deterioration, overpopulation, transnational migrations, ethnic nationalism, and the decline of the nation-state (Kirkwood, 2001). Therefore, regardless of their race and culture, students need to develop the attitudes, knowledge, and skills necessary to become competent, responsible, and humane citizens of their community. According to Hicks (2003), most adolescents also feel that it is important to learn about global issues at school in order to make better choices about how they might lead their lives.

Many previous studies, administrated in different countries, focused on examining youths' global knowledge, attitudes, interests, or perceptions (Asia Society, 2001;Giffin et al., 2002; Osunde, 1996; Pike et al., 1979; RoperASW for National Geographic Education Foundation, 2000; Zhao et al., 2006; Zhao et al., 2005).

These studies reveal similar findings that students' global knowledge and attitudes are insufficient. Hence, many scholars advocated schooling should create youths' abilities to interact effectively with people different and to take action in transforming structures of local and global oppression and inequity into ones that can bring about social and economic justice (Banks & Banks, 1995; Cushner, McClelland & Safford, 1992; Rennebohm-Franz, 1996; Sleeter, 1996; Wilson,1993; Zeichner, Grant, Gay, Gillette, Valli & Villegas, 1998). They also suggest that schools should adopt a global or international perspective in their curricula and that the school mission statement should include the goal that students gain a global perspective as an integral part of their education for citizenship in the 21st century (Grant, 1994; Lim, 2008; Solís-Gadea, 2010; Wilson, 1993).

Teachers' global competence has been considered as a key factor to decide whether schooling could be successful to prepare youths with a global perspective. If teachers are to teach with confidence from a global perspective, their general education and professional education programs must give them the tools to understand the connections between physiological, biological, ecological, social, and other worldwide systems (Hendrix, 1998). However, do teachers possess sufficient knowledge of relevant cultures, their beliefs, felt needs, histories, and political economies to be able to provide students with the necessary background information? Unfortunately, some scholars (Grant, 1992; Merryfield, 1991; Sleeter, 1992; Holden & Hicks, 2007) indicate that most of teachers have not been prepared to teach and to promote diversity, challenge inequities, or even recognize the effects of globalization in the lives of their students and communities. In order to improve teacher education, some researchers have studied teacher education in multicultural education, and have advocated for teacher education and professional development in global education (Dilworth, 1992; Garm & Karlsen, 2004; Grant, 1993; Larkin & Sleeter, 1995; Sleeter, 1992; Merryfield, 1995; Merryfield, Jarchow & Pickert, 1997; Pike & Selby, 1998; Tye & Tye, 1992; Wilson, 1993; Holden & Hicks, 2007). A number of scholars have worked to improve pre-service teacher

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education for diverse K-12 students (such as Bennett, 1995; Jordan, 1995; McDiarmid, 1992; Merryfield, 1996; Zeichner & Hoeff, 1996). Some scholars have made an effort to increase cross-cultural experiences within diverse populations in pre-service teacher education (such as Cushner & Mahon, 2002; Merryfield, 199; Sahin, 2008; Willard-Holt, 2001).

As part of the closely interconnected global system, Taiwan can not escape globalization's influences on educational innovation. Among relevant pieces of legislation, the revised University Law, the Teacher Education Act, and the Law of Teacher Union and Teacher Selection are thought to be particularly significant in restructuring the education system in Taiwan (Yang, 2002). According to the Administrative Guideline for Accreditation of Teacher Education Programs (Ministry of Education, 2002), universities are encouraged to build teacher training programs full of diverse characteristics. In order to respond the age of globalization, many universities offer multicultural education, environmental education, and information education, all of which are related to global education, in their teacher education programs. However, will these courses promote more global knowledge and abilities among pre-service teachers than among in-service teachers who were fostered by the old curriculum system, which lacked a response to globalization?

Along the same lines, pre-service teachers in Taiwan not only have to take 26 educational credits, but also take their major teaching courses. For secondary schools in Taiwan, these teaching fields include seven fields, including Language Arts, Health and Physical Education, Social Studies, Arts and Humanities, Mathematics, Sciences and Technology, and Integrative Activities. According to Merryfield (1995), global education demands knowledge from the sciences, history, the social sciences, and the humanities. Among the seven areas, the area of "Social Studies" is the most related to global education. If the pre-service teachers' majors and in-service teachers' teaching fields are related to the knowledge of global education, will they have better global knowledge and abilities? Do significant differences exist among various pre-service teachers' majors and in-service teachers' teaching fields in global knowledge and abilities?

Little empirical evidence has been provided to examine the possible degree of diversity in global knowledge and abilities between pre-service teachers and in-service teachers. In order to equip teachers with the core capabilities necessary to transform education theories to meet actual global education requirements, it is necessary to investigate teachers' global knowledge and abilities, to provide a basis for adjusting the pre-service teacher education program and in-service teacher training programs. Therefore, the present study used a questionnaire approach to investigate both pre-service teachers and in-service teacher's knowledge of global correlation systems, global issues, and cross-culture understanding, and global abilities. The following questions were explored: Are there significant differences between pre-service teachers and in-service teachers in their global knowledge and abilities? Are there any major differences in the perception of pre-service teachers with regard to their global knowledge and abilities? Are there any teaching field differences in the perception of in-service teachers with regard to their global knowledge and abilities? The finding of the present study could provide valuable information to teacher education and professional development in global education and could stimulate reflection on the program of global education in a teacher education program, not only those in Taiwan but in any society.

II. Methodology

a) Samples

The total subjects in the study were 537 teachers from two cohorts. There were 300 pre-service teachers from one large national university in central Taiwan. There, pre-service teachers were taking teacher education courses in the university, and therefore they had a dual identity, being both pre-service teachers and students. Of the pre-service teachers, 63% were female and 37% were male. The major composition of subjects was as follows: 56.7% of the pre-service samples were studying art-related majors including social studies, English, etc.; 43.3% were studying in science-related majors including math, biology etc.

The in-service teacher samples consisted of 237 secondary school teachers from central Taiwan, of whom 35.6% were male and 64.4% were female. Approximately 40.1% of them taught in the Language Arts teaching area, 16.0% in the Mathematics teaching area, 11.0% in the Social Studies teaching area, 4.2% in the Arts and Humanities teaching area, 17.3% in the Natural Sciences and life technology teaching area, 7.2% in the Health and Physical Education teaching area, and 4.2% of them in the Integrative Activities teaching area.

b) Instruments

Based on theories advanced in previous studies (Clarke, 2004; Hanvey, 1982; Hicks, 2003; Kniep, 1989; Merryfield, 2002; Pike & Selby, 1999; Tye & Tye, 1992), the author developed the questionnaire. With an additional review of global education, through factor analysis, teachers' global knowledge and abilities was categorized into four main categories with 40 items in total, including global correlation systems global issues, cross-culture understanding, and global abilities.

The questionnaire that was used consisted of 40 five-point Likert-scale items, the responses to which were coded as 1 = "know nothing" through 5 = "know a lot." Thirteen items (Scale I-global correlation systems) were intended to investigate students' and teachers'

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knowledge of the interdependency and correlation among politics, economy, ecosystem, environmental pollution, social change, sciences, technology, and universal systems. Fourteen items (Scale II- global issues) were intended to explore students' and teachers' knowledge of the international and controversial issues, such as technology, population, ethnicity, energy resources, food, ecological environment, health and hygiene, and globalism. Six items (Scale III- cross-culture understanding) were intended to investigate students' and teachers' understandings and appreciation of different cultural backgrounds, viewpoints, religions, history, and geography. Seven items (Scale V- global participatory) were intended to assess students' and teachers' global abilities, such as multiple views, interdependency, responsibilities, analysis and evaluation skills, creative skills, participatory abilities, and communication abilities. Individual item descriptions are given in Table 1.

Table 1 : Descriptions of items and independent t-tests for individual items between pre-service and in-service teachers' responses items

Item		*t*
Scale I –global correlation systems		
1.	political systems	1.19
2.	national organizations	1.53
3.	economic systems	1.35
4.	national trade, foreign investment and national rescue	.06
5.	planned economy, socialism economy, and free market economy	2.07*
6.	well-developed countries	4.44***
7.	revolutions of economic activities	2.75**
8.	distinguish between well-developed and developing nations	4.55***
9.	social problems	3.80***
10.	global information network	2.32*
11.	development of technology and information	1.84
12.	technological innovation and extension	2.58*
13.	influence of technological development	3.12**
Scale II –global issues		
14.	population migration	2.63**
15.	changing model and tendency of population structure	3.98***
16.	immigration and refugees	1.46
17.	prejudice and discrimination	2.02*
18.	areas, causes, and influences of global refugees	1.99*
19.	family plan	-.64
20.	application and influence of global resources	2.10*
21.	environmental influence caused by technology	2.82**
22.	oncoming issues	-1.31
23.	environmental issues	3.77***
24.	human right of races and gender	2.06*
25.	distribution of living resources	.58
26.	guarantee of basic rights	.88
27.	protection of basic rights	.72
Scale III –cross-culture understanding		
28.	physical geography states	1.58
29.	products and distributions	1.17
30.	the movements of global fusion and reform	1.36
31.	evolutions of religions	1.67
32.	religious cultures	1.11
33.	religious preach	2.36*
Scale V –global participatory		
34.	multiple cultural points	2.26*
35.	inspect own cultures	-.06
36.	revise prejudiced impressions	-.83
37.	discard country superiority	-3.17**
38.	against the stereotype, indifference, dogma	-3.21**
39.	international cooperative abilities and experience	.58
40.	participatory of international affair	.43

*p< .05. **p< .01. *** p< .001.

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Reliability coefficients within each scale were calculated both for the pre-service sample of teachers and for the in-service sample of teachers. The results are summarized in Table 2. For the pre-service sample, the reliability (Cronbach's alpha) for Scale I, II, III, V was .89, .89, .88 and .75, respectively. For the in-service sample, the reliability (Cronbach's alpha) for Scale I, II, III, V was .94, .89, .91 and .80, respectively. The overall reliability (Cronbach's alpha) for pre-service and in-service teachers was .94 and .96, respectively.

Table 2 : Cronbach's alpha values for the instrument

	Pre-service	In-service
Scale I –global correlation systems	.89	.94
Scale II –global issues	.89	.89
Scale III –cross-culture understanding	.88	.91
Scale V –global participatory	.75	.80
Composite (Item 1-40)	.94	.96

c) Data Processing and Analysis

Data analyses were performed using SPSS for Windows. Descriptive statistics, including mean and standard deviation, were used for data description. Scale scores were generated using the mean value of the items within each scale. Statistical tests included an independent sample t-test, ANOVA analysis, and Post hoc comparison. In order to understand the differences between pre-service and in-service teachers' awareness, subsequent statistical comparisons were made between pre-service and in-service teachers' scores. In addition, scores were used as the outcome variable to examine the major's effect on pre-service teachers' knowledge toward global correlation systems, global issues, cross-culture understanding, and global abilities, and the teaching field effect on in-service teachers' corresponding knowledge.

III. Results

a) Global Knowledge and Abilities Between Pre-Service and in-Service Teachers

The mean and standard deviation on the pre-service and in-service teachers' scale scores are listed in Table 3.

Table 3 : Descriptive information for Scale I, II, III and V scores and differences between pre-service and in-service teachers' scale scores

	Pre-service		In-service		*t*	*d*
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Scale I –global correlation systems	3.51	.55	3.33	.67	3.43**	.29
Scale II –global issues	3.94	.51	3.83	.55	2.39*	.21
Scale III –cross-culture understanding	3.27	.69	3.15	.70	1.91	.17
Scale V –global participatory	3.48	.55	3.51	.56	-.79	.05

*p< .05. **p< .01.

A comparison of the scale scores of pre-service and in-service teachers was conducted. The results showed that pre-service teachers held a significantly higher score of global correlation systems and global issues than those of in-service teachers (t=3.43, p< .01, and t=2.83, p< .05, respectively). In addition, both pre-service and in-service teachers had a statistical difference in the score of cross-cultural understanding and global abilities (t = 1.91, p = .06, and t = -.79, p = .43, respectively).

In order to further investigate the differences in item responses between pre-service and in-service teachers, individual t-tests were administered on an item-by-item basis; the results are presented in Table 1. The significant results indicated that, first, pre-service teachers had a higher score on global correlation systems than that of in-service teachers in several items (e.g., Items 5, 6, 7. 8, 9, 10, 12, and 13). For example, pre-service teachers better understood the derivational social problems due to economic development (Item 9) and the positive and negative influence of technological development global systems bring on (Item 13). Pre-service teachers also had more knowledge to distinguish well-developed nations and developing nations (Item 8) and to understand the global information network (Item 10). Second, pre-service teachers also had more knowledge of global issues than did in-service teachers in some items (e.g., Items 14, 15, 17, 18, 20, 21, 23, and 24). For example, pre-service teachers better understood the issue of the changing model and tendency of population structure (Item 15) and the issue of the changing model and tendency of population structure (Item 23). Regarding global abilities, however, in-service teachers had better abilities than did pre-service teachers in two items. In-service teachers can discard the sense of individual and national superiority for the country's culture that falls behind one's own country (Item 37) and be a person who is against stereotype, indifference, and dogma (Item 38).

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Pre-service and in-service teachers' responses showed no differences in relation to other items (see Table 1). In eight of the thirteen items in Scale I, pre-service teachers were more knowledgeable of global systems than were in-service teachers. For Scale II, pre-service teachers had more knowledge than in-service teachers for eight of the fourteen items. In one of the six items in Scale III, pre-service teachers were more knowledgeable of cross-cultural understanding than were in-service teachers. For Scale V, in-service teachers had better abilities than pre-service teachers for two items but lower abilities for one of the items.

b) Global Knowledge and Abilities among Different Majors in Pre-Service Teachers

In order to examine the major effect on pre-service teachers' global knowledge, the scale scores of Scales I, II, III and V were used as dependent variables; the results are shown in Table 4. The relevant t-tests revealed that art-related pre-service teachers held significantly higher scores of global issues, cross-cultural understanding, and global abilities than did their science-related counterparts. In addition, statistically, there is no significant difference in global correlation systems between art-related in-service teachers and science-related in-service teachers.

Table 4 : Mean scores and standard deviations (in parentheses) by majors and t-values for major effect on scale scores

	Pre-service responses			
	Art-related	Science-related	*t*	*d*
Scale I –global correlation systems	3.55(.56)	3.47(.47)	1.16	.11
Scale II –global issues	4.03(.46)	3.81(.55)	3.75***	.31
Scale III –cross-culture understanding	3.45(.68)	3.04(.62)	5.30***	.45
Scale V –global participatory	3.61(.51)	3.30(.54)	5.20***	.42

*** p< .001.

After examining the major effect by t-tests, effect sizes were also calculated in order to examine the significance of scale-score differences between art-related and science-related teachers. The effect size for t-test is often described as Cohen's d. According to Cohen's rough characterization (1988, pp. 24–26), d = 0.2 is deemed to be a small effect size while a value of d = 0.5 is regarded as a medium effect size and d = 0.8 is considered to be a large effect size. It should be noted that when the standard deviations are not equal, the definition of d needs to be slightly modified. The results shown in Tables 3 and 4, which reached statistical significance by t-test, were viewed as having at least a small to medium effect size, indicating adequate practical significance for the difference investigated (Scale I and II in Table 3, Cohen's d = .29 and .21, respectively; Scale II, III, and V pre-service response in Table 4, Cohen's d =.31, .45, and .42, respectively).

c) Global Knowledge and Abilities Among Various Teaching Fields in in-Service Teachers

In order to examine the teaching field effect on in-service teachers' global knowledge, the scale scores of Scales I, II, III and V were used as dependent variables; the mean and standard deviation are shown in Table 5 and the results are shown in Table 6.

Table 5 : Mean scores and standard deviations (in parentheses) by various teaching fields

Teaching Field	Scale I	Scale II	Scale III	Scale V
Languages Arts	3.34(.67)	3.79(.51)	3.21(.68)	3.57(.54)
Mathematics	3.25(.70)	3.75 (.57)	2.81 (.77)	3.29(.54)
Social Studies	3.89(.49)	4.13 (.57)	3.67(.58)	3.76(.59)
Arts and Humanities	3.18(.49)	3.88(.55)	3.07(.69)	3.69(.69)
Sciences and Technology	3.31(.52)	3.91(.46)	3.18(.61)	3.49(.54)
Health and Physical Education	2.94(.59)	3.53 (.70)	2.82(.41)	3.21(.48)
Integrative Activities	3.11(.98)	3.81(.67)	3.12(.82)	3.57(.36)

Table 6 : Effects of teaching fields on in-service teachers and Post hoc comparison

source	SS	*df*	MS	*F* value	*Scheffé*
Scale I –global correlation systems					
Between groups	11.65	6	1.94	4.7***	3>1, 2, 6
Within groups	94.50	230	.41		
sum	106.15	236			
Scale II –global issues					
Between groups	4.53	6	.76	2.57*	3>6
Within groups	67.69	230	.29		
sum	72.22	236			

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Scale III –cross-culture understanding					
Between groups	13.56	6	2.26	5.11***	3>2, 6
Within groups	101.63	230	.44		
sum	115.18	236			
Scale V –global participatory					
Between groups	5.79	6	.97	3.26**	3>2, 6
Within groups	68.04	230	.30		
sum	73.83	236			

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Note : 1=languages arts; 2=mathematics; 3=social studies; 4=arts and humanities; 5=sciences and technology;
6=health and physical education; 7=integrative activities

The F-tests indicated that there were significant differences on Scale I, II, III, and V among various teaching field in in-service teachers ($F = 4.7$, $p < .001$, $F = 2.57$, $p < .05$, $F = 5.11$, $p < .001$, and $F = 3.26$, $p < .01$, respectively). As shown in Table 6, for Scale I, Scheffé tests revealed that in-service teachers teaching Social Science had higher score in global correlation systems than teachers teaching Languages and Literature, Mathematics, and Health and physical education. For Scale II, Scheffé tests revealed that in-service teachers teaching Social Sciences had higher score in global issues than teachers teaching Health and physical education. For Scale III, Scheffé tests revealed that in-service teachers teaching Social Sciences had higher scores in cross-cultural understanding than teachers teaching Mathematics and Health and physical education. For Scale V, Scheffé tests revealed that in-service teachers teaching Social Sciences had higher score in global abilities than teachers teaching Mathematics and Health and physical education.

IV. Discussion

a) *Difference in Knowledge of Global Correction System and Global Issues*

The purpose of this study was to examine global correlation systems, global issues, cross-culture understandings, and global abilities between pre-service teachers and in-service teachers. When examining the gap between pre-service and in-service teachers towards global knowledge, significant differences were found in that pre-service teachers held significantly more knowledge in global correlation systems and global issues than did in-service teachers. This statistical difference reached adequate significance when effect sizes were examined. This result was also confirmed by an item-by-item comparison of pre-service and in-service teachers' responses which showed that pre-service teachers had more knowledge of global correlation systems in eight of thirteen items and global issues in eight of fourteen items. In general, pre-service teachers might be able to learn the contents of environmental education and information education due to curriculum changes of teacher preparation program that facilitate pre-service teachers' understandings of global correlation systems and global issues. In contrast, in-service teachers were less able to do so because it might not have been emphasized in global education in the past.

However, some possible reasons for this difference include age, life style, educational opportunities, and climate of globalization. The average age for pre-service teachers is twenty years old. They are belonging to a new generation. New global realities increasingly define the contexts in which they are growing up, living, learning, loving, and working. Indeed, globalization in its various manifestations—economic, demographic, socio-cultural—is a quotidian part of the experience of pre-service teachers today. They might have better computer literacy, richer educational resources, and more opportunities to learn global correction system and global issues than in-service teachers. In contrast, most in-service teachers might be busy in their teaching jobs. If they have chances to arrange personal professional development, they might focus on learning the knowledge and skills in their teaching fields and might not be interested in learning global correction system and global issues.

However, the results of the present study also showed that there is room for in-service teachers to recognize how necessary global knowledge in nowadays while they're teaching; therefore, more training programs with carefully designed global education are necessary for facilitating in-service teachers' global correlation system and global issues.

In contrast to global correction system and global issues, within Scale I and II, in Scale V, the items for which in-service teachers had more abilities than pre-service teachers were Item 37 (discard country superiority) and 38 (against stereotype, indifference, and dogma). This might be due to the in-service teachers' relatively greater teaching experience and communication abilities, which might lead to more understanding and appreciation for others. The result suggests that teacher education programs should increase pre-service teachers' communication knowledge and skills, as well as greater understanding and experience in different cultures.

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b) Difference in Global Knowledge and Abilities among Majors and Teaching Fields

When the major's effect was considered for each scale-wise, t-tests showed medium effect sizes in the pre-service teacher sample, and that art-related pre-service teachers held significantly higher scores in global issues, cross-cultural understanding, and global abilities than did their science-related counterparts. The item-by-item major-effect analysis provided more information to illustrate the points above. For example, art-related pre-service teachers held higher scores in the global issues such as oncoming issues, environmental issues, distribution of living resources (Item 22, 23, and 25), human rights of race and gender, and guarantee and protection of basic rights (Item 26 and 27). In addition, art-related pre-service teachers showed more understanding and appreciation of different cultural backgrounds, viewpoints, religions, history, and geography (Item 28-33) as compared to science-related pre-service teachers. According to Merryfield (1995), global education demands knowledge from social studies, and the humanities. Because most of the art-related pre-service teachers came from geography and English majors, this finding concurs with Scholz's (1990) research finding. Scholz's study investigates the effects of pre-service education on the global understanding of elementary education majors, and the attitudes and classroom practice of selected elementary teachers. The results indicated those teachers who had studied global education as undergraduates felt more positively about including it in the curriculum. The art-related pre-service teachers in this study might be more knowledgeable and comfortable in discussing global issues, understanding cross-cultural diversities and participating global affairs, while science-related pre-service teachers might be less knowledgeable in their learning and daily life.

Scale-wise, teaching field differences were also found in the in-service teacher sample on the scale of global correlation system, global issues, cross-cultural understanding, and global abilities. Overall, the results indicated that there were significant differences on Scale I, II, III, and V among various teaching fields in in-service teachers. Social studies teachers were more aware of global perceptions than teachers in other teaching fields-- in particular, math teachers and health and physical education teachers. As mentioned above, global education demands knowledge from social studies (Merryfield, 1995). The social studies teachers accepted more training and experiences related to global education than teachers in other fields.

Social studies teachers were therefore more able to recognize the importance of global education in classroom practices. If in-service teachers of other teaching fields could be provided with more global knowledge, skills, experiences and appreciation, then it may be possible that their students would benefit from their teaching and then students' attitudes might also improve. However, the effect and the influence of global education which was delivered by the teachers still needs further validation by future research.

Based on the above, these significant major and teaching field differences can be observed in both pre-service and in-service samples of teachers, and reveal a quite interesting phenomenon suggesting that art-related and social studies teachers, regardless of their pre-service or in-service status, held even higher perceptions towards global knowledge and global abilities.

V. Conclusions

Today youths experience most serious health problems, inequities among nations, environmental deterioration, overpopulation transnational migrations, ethnic nationalism, and the decline of the nation-state. These changes are creating a need to acquire a global education. If teachers are to teach with confidence from a global perspective, their general education and professional education programs must give them the tools to understand the connections between physiological, biological, ecological, social, and other worldwide systems. The present study has explored the global knowledge and abilities of both pre-service teachers and in-service teachers. Our results showed that pre-service had more global knowledge than did in-service teachers in general. Major played a role in pre-service teachers' responses and teaching field played a role in in-service teachers' responses about global knowledge in general—where the subject of social studies had higher score in both cases. Future research needs to be undertaken in order to develop ways to enhance science-related pre-service teachers' understanding and appreciation towards global issues and to increase concerns for in-service teachers of other teaching fields to apply the notion of globalization as an interface for global education. Moreover, the present study only involved one measure of teachers' global knowledge and abilities. The future research could consider to apply other measures (e.g., classroom observation of curriculum design and implementation related to global education) to acquire more evidences regarding teachers; global knowledge and abilities.

The findings of the present study could contribute to recent calls for more evidence of the effects of teacher education program in global education and suggest teacher educators create suitable systems that would enhance prospective teachers' global knowledge and abilities. When teachers attain adequate global knowledge and positive attitudes, they are prepared for teaching the future global citizenship. In contrast, if teachers lack of global knowledge and attitude, it is difficult for them to arrange global education.

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Community of Ownership of Learning

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Abstract - New model of teaching and learning was introduced in our school to meet the needs of our students who seek greater autonomy, connectivity as well as opportunities for socio-experiential learning. The Connected Learning Pedagogy (CLP) was designed to mine the learning potential of the new social and digital media domain to create a community of ownership of learning, promoting collaboration and connectedness among students, lecturers and parents.

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Community of Ownership of Learning

Karen Lim Kim Eng [α], Fong Kok Wah [σ], Shek Kwai Teng [ρ], Soh Guan Kiong [ω] & Dr. Lim See Yew [¥]

Abstract - New model of teaching and learning was introduced in our school to meet the needs of our students who seek greater autonomy, connectivity as well as opportunities for socio-experiential learning. The Connected Learning Pedagogy (CLP) was designed to mine the learning potential of the new social and digital media domain to create a community of ownership of learning, promoting collaboration and connectedness among students, lecturers and parents.

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I. Introduction

Our students belong to the Net Generation cohort of young people who have grown up in an environment in which they are constantly exposed to computer-based technology. Their methods of learning are different from those of previous generations. Students demand greater control of their own learning and the inclusion of technologies in ways that meet their needs and preferences (Prensky 2005). To better understand what the Net Generation expects from technology in support of learning, we must first understand how the Net Generation defines technology. The Net Generation's views on technology in the classroom include the expectation that professors will use technology to better communicate expert knowledge. (Gregory R. Roberts 2005).

Hence, the Connected Learning Pedagogy (CLP) was introduced, incorporating technology to provide students with a rich learning environment that enhances interaction, connectedness and promote ownership of learning. PRISM, an apps for mobile phone, provide a new means for parents to become connected to student learning, engaging parents with the material that students learned in the classroom.

II. The Connected Learning Pedagogy (CLP)

The CLP leverages on the strength of today's interactive and networked media in an effort to make learning more interactive, better integrated, and broadly accessible. Students collaborate and learn through various digital platforms such as Social media, Moodle, World Wide Web, YouTube and iDe'Lite to establish a learning community. Tablet PCs with its many useful apps offer unique abilities for presenting materials in new ways. Being light weight and free from wired connections, our lecturers is able to better connect with students by bringing it to their work station to clarify their doubts.

The CLP framework in Figure 1 depicts the connectivity it provides; connecting students, lecturers and parents. Through CLP, interactivity among students and lecturers are greatly enhanced, making learning much more engaging. Parents are happy as they have access to communications and relevant information concerning their child.

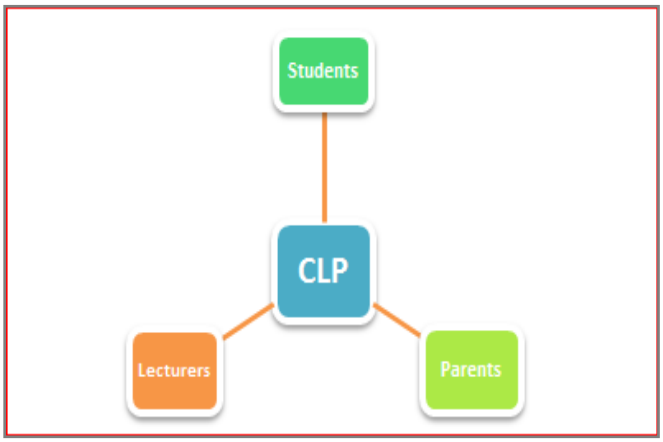


Figure 1 : CLP Framework

CLP comprises of 4 stages of learning activities which were Group learning, Reflection, Experiment and Assessment as shown in figure 2. These learning activities were designed for students to go through when they are taking the practical lesson. Tablet pc, social and digital media were tools used to support CLP providing students and teachers with connectivity with one and another and the outside world, enhancing the learning process.

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Figure 2 : Stages of CLP

a) Group Learning

The term "collaborative learning" refers to an instruction method in which students at various performance levels work together in small groups toward a common goal (Anuradha A. Gokhale ,1995). According to Johnson and Johnson (1986), there is persuasive evidence that cooperative teams achieve at higher levels of thought and retain information longer than students who work quietly as individuals. Group learning in CLP is synonym to collaborative learning, whereby students work in small groups to solve a problem.

Lecturers begin the lesson by asking review questions to recall concepts learned in the previous lesson. Adopting peer supported learning, students work in pairs or small group to discuss and derive the solution. By talking and discussing, students engaged actively in the learning process developing communication, collaborative and problem solving skills. The shared learning gives students an opportunity to engage in discussion, take responsibility for their own learning, and thus become critical thinkers (Totten, Sills, Digby, & Russ, 1991).

b) Reflection

We learn by experiences that allow us to Absorb (read,hear,feel), Do(activity), Interact (socialise) (Wertenbroch & Nabeth, 2000). In addition we can also learn by reflecting on such experiences (Dewey 1933). Reflection is defined as making sense of past experience in order to affect and understand future experience.

In the 2nd stage of pedagogy model, reflection is practised by the students to engage them in deeper learning. Lecturers can pose some questions to trigger the thinking process. Video content can be used to introduce a new topic. Questions can be asked to spark off a group discussion connecting the knowledge in the video to past knowledge. When something new is experienced the learner recollects prior knowledge and tries to make a connection into the existing cognitive or metacognitive network of ideas. In other words we make the new piece of the jigsaw 'fit'(Karen Hinett, 2002).

Students will connect to the various media tools to research, perform group discussion and reflection. Through this process, our students will develop the habit of performing reflection to deepen learning.

c) Experiment

Having done recap and introduction ground work in the first 2 stages of the learning cycles, lecturers can now conduct the experiment or practical assignment for the new lesson. In the 3rd stage of CLP, experiment, students put into practice the knowledge acquired in the theory lesson. They worked on the practical assignment given in the job sheet. Students worked in groups to complete the practical assignment, making use of the www, YouTube, iDe'Lite(in-house video portal) and social media for information and discussion. When students independently search for information on the internet—that is, when students engage in self-initiated information-seeking behaviors- the level of autonomy should be relatively high and thus lead to more cognitive engagement (Jerome I. Rotgans and Henk G. Schmidt, 2010).

Lecturers moved around the laboratory with tablet pc, using it to illustrate concept or clarify doubts. For students who are not comfortable with asking aloud in class, they could connect with their lecturers online to pose their queries. Lecturers are able to answer queries online using tablet pc as a tool.

d) Assessment

After completing the experimenting stage, students proceed to the final stage of CLP which is assessment. In our case, we have adopted online quizzes for this final stage of CLP. Moodle was the platform that we utilized to house the online quizzes. Students will attempt the online quiz at the end of the practical lesson to confirm their understanding of the content. Result of the attempt will be available immediately upon completion of their quizzes.

Feedback needs to be timely and relevant to the learner's needs in order to be effective (David Wees, 2010). Online quizzes provide students with immediate feedback enabling them to reflect and take corrective action promptly to improve on the weaker topic. Responses to the quizzes are recorded against the student name, allowing lecturers to evaluate the performance level of the students and subsequently focus on the learning concerns of individual question.

On the other hand, lecturers can be connected on-line via tablet pc to view the results of quizzes taken by students. The results of the quizzes provide lecturers with timely feedback on their teaching effectiveness for the lesson. They then could take corrective action if necessary.

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III. Implementation of Connected Learning Pedagogy

A lesson delivery plan was created to guide lecturers in their lesson delivery using the Connected Learning Pedagogy. The lesson delivery plan documents the suggested activity for both students and lecturers using the CLP model. In each stage, the allocated time for the activity and its objectives were documented in the lesson delivery plan. Some follow-up actions are also included in the lesson delivery plan which is especially helpful for new lecturers. Lecturers will use the new lesson delivery plan as a guide to conduct their practical lessons.

Many sharing sessions were conducted to equip lecturers with the knowledge of the pedagogy model, tablet pc literacy and quiz development using the Moodle platform. All laboratories were equipped with a tablet pc which the lecturers used it as a tool to facilitate the learning process. Role play was also used to familiarize lecturers with the new role of facilitating learning in a connected environment using tablet pc.

A scheduled walk-about was carried out 2 weeks after implementation of the CLP to gather feedback from staff and students on implementation issues. Some teething problems such as passwords issues and retrieval of results by class were surfaced. Initially, the view results menu displayed results of all students taking the similar module instead of displaying results by class. With the help of the Technical support team, these issues were quickly resolved.

IV. Survey Results

a) Students Survey 1

After implementing the CLP for three months, a survey was carried out to 244 students. The result of the survey is shown in Figure 3. The survey seeks to gather the impact of CLP on students learning.

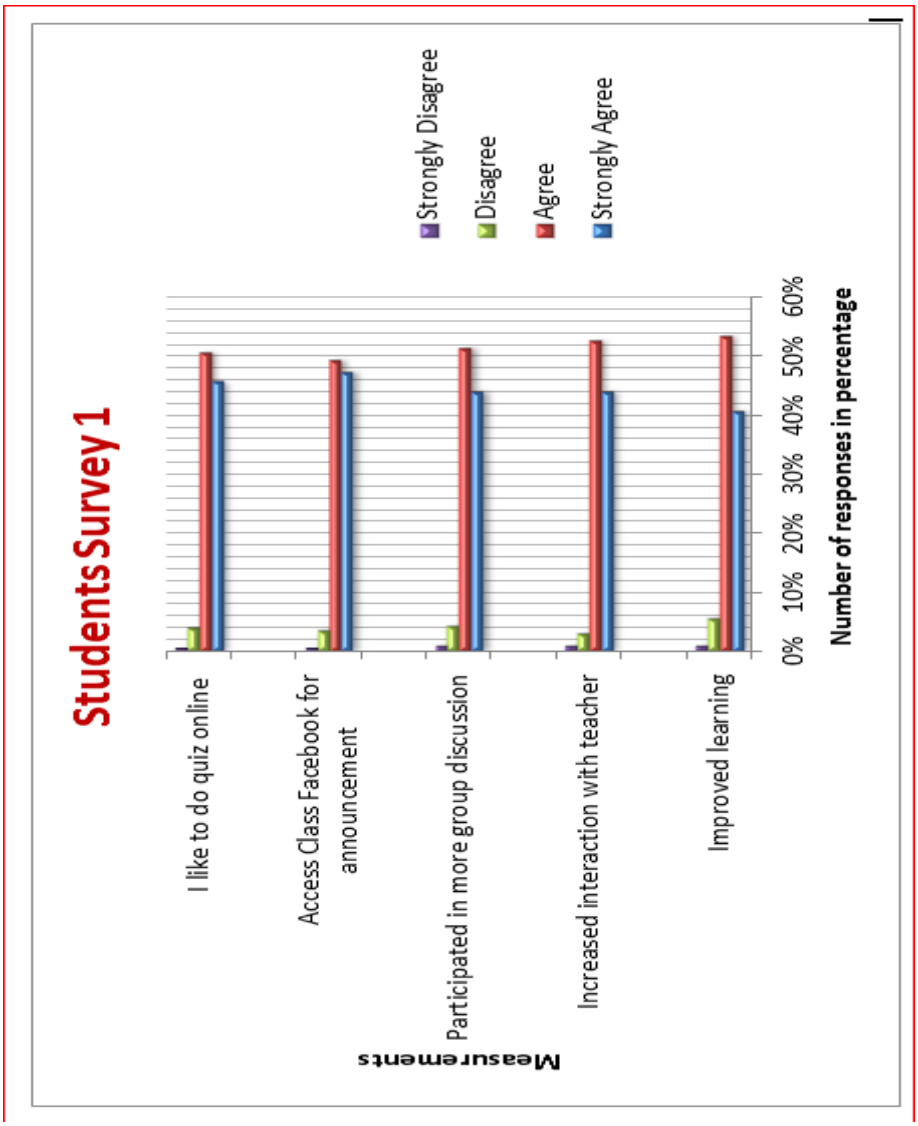


Figure 3 : Student Survey 1 Result

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Students have taken more responsibility in their learning as they reflected that they like to participate in on-line quizzes which provide them with immediate feedback. With the introduction of Class Facebook, students were kept informed of the upcoming activities posted by their lecturers, developing independence. With the introduction of CLP, students have more opportunity to engage in discussion and take responsibility for their own learning, meeting their quest for more autonomy and collaborative learning. More interaction was made possible with the introduction of the tablet pc giving lecturers the mobility to move around the class to facilitate learning

b) Students Survey 2

Another survey was carried out 6 months after the implementation of the CLP. In this 2nd survey, open ended questions were deployed to obtain feedback from both staff and students. Students provided both positive feedback and suggestions for improvement which allowed the team to fine-tune the CLP strategy for better lesson delivery.

Many positive feedbacks were received from students. They reflected that quizzes are very useful as they were able to recap what were learned previously. It was a fast and easy way to obtain feedback on their understanding. Some students commented that doing online quizzes is more interesting than doing worksheet in class. Students also mentioned that they were able to attempt tutorial questions even if they forget to bring their tutorial book.

As for tablet pc, students commented that lecturers were more mobile, able to move around to interact with them. They reflected that lesson is more fun with tablet pc and it is a cool and great device.

However, some students commented that time is quite tight to do the online quizzes especially for a 2 hours practical lesson. Another issue raised is that the tablet pc does not support flash player. Some students mentioned that they sometimes experienced system lag problem.

c) Lecturers Feedback

Lecturers' feedback is just as important as students' feedback in the CLP implementation. Hence, a survey was conducted to gather feedback from the lecturers involved in the CLP implementation.

Lecturers reflected that the online quiz is helpful to them as they are able to access the quiz results immediately. With these results, they were able to judge how well their lesson was being delivered and take corrective actions if necessary. They were able to gather information on who were the weaker students and provide additional help promptly.

Having a good implementation framework in place, lecturers were comfortable to deliver lesson using the CLP pedagogy. With the tablet pc, lecturers can connect better with the students. They were able to interact well with the students by going around the class using the Tablet pc to clarify doubts.

Some lecturers commented that it is troublesome to download videos and lesson materials as the tablet pc is kept in the laboratory. Also, sometimes the lesson contents were erased as the tablet pc is shared among many other lecturers. They suggested that all lecturers to be equipped with a tablet pc. In addition, lecturers commented on the security issue of the tablet pc, as it is being left unattended when they were assisting students with the practical experiment. As the tablet pc in use was unable to run program that required flash, they suggested considering other types of tablets that run on different Operating System.

V. Connecting Parents to Students Learning – Prism

We recognize the importance of engaging parents, families and communities in positively influences student educational achievements and attainments. Parents and school partnership are a critical component of successful results. This is particularly true of schools in challenging circumstances where the students face social and economic odds.

If trust and mutual respect between parents, lecturers and students is to be achieved, communications and access to relevant information is important. This will also allow the school to build a strong parent-student-teacher relationship throughout the course of student's study. PRISM serves as a bridge connecting ITE, parents and students through the mobile apps as shown in figure 4.

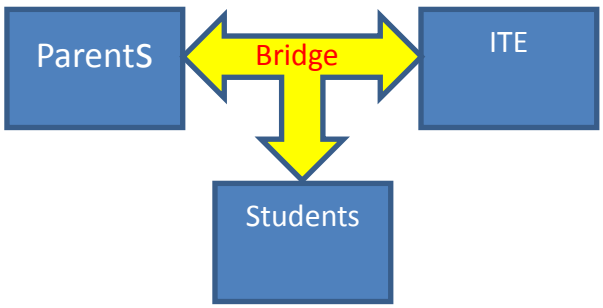


Figure 4 : PRISM Framework

Central to the core of the challenge, the method adopt must meet three important criteria:

1. It will facilitate parents to actively participate in their children academic journey in the College.
2. It should able to complement the hectic lifestyle of the modern day parents.
3. It is envisage that lecturer's time will be better utilized to support teaching and learning, instead of administrative tasks.

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There is the e-portal that the parents can access to information of their child's attendance, timetable and teacher's contacts (email address and telephone number). This is wonderful but there were concerned that its use was limited to those parents with easy daytime access to a laptop or PC.

We therefore investigated the possibility of extending it to use by mobile phone browsers, thus enabling a wider range of parents to access it. But the navigation within a much smaller screen proved a great difficulty.

Building from the idea, we decided to develop a mobile app that can allow parents to access the information needed and remove the navigation difficulty of a browser in a small mobile phone' screen.

a) Ite Prism Mobile App

Initially, we developed a mobile app that allows the parents to access their child's individual timetable and the school vacation. The mobile app was well received by both parents and students through a feedback survey. They requested for additional information to be included in the mobile app. They wanted to see their child's attendance and academic progress in the class too.

As such, we developed the ITE PRISM (ITE Parents' Real-time Information System on Mobile) as shown in figure 5, mobile app to fully engaged parents in their children's learning, using effective technologies. The innovative approach is able to provide up-to-date 24/7 information to the parents.

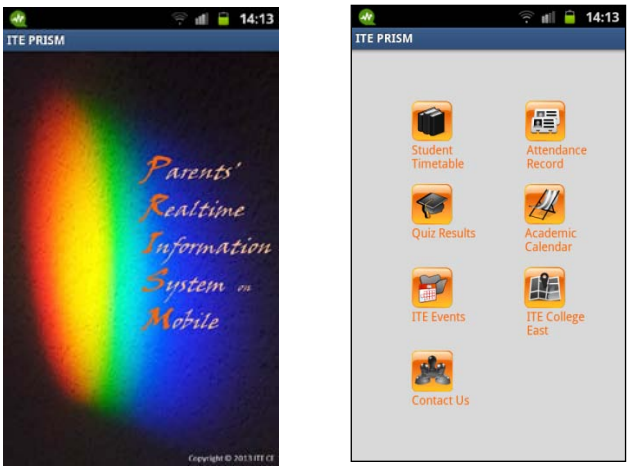


Figure 5 : PRISM

Enabling as many parents as possible to access information is important for parental engagement. The adoption of such an approach enables In addition, these IT developments have allowed both parents and staff access to the same range of data.

From another survey conducted, it shows the effective use of the mobile app also alleviates the access information about their child's progress 24/7. If pressure of face-to-face communication as parents can need to, they can email or call the respective teacher with the teacher's contacts provided within the mobile app. In addition, parents feel that they have timely and appropriate information to be able to help their child's learning. There is also a feeling of ownership in their child's education journey.

The ITE PRSIM mobile app becomes an intelligent reporting of providing real time information on a child's progress, learning and attendance. This direct information sharing allows the parents to be informed in a timely way and at their own convenient time to access the information.

VI. Conclusion

With the adoption of the Connected Learning Pedagogy, a community of ownership of learners was developed, leveraging on the affordances of digital and networked media. More opportunities were created for students to communicate, think together, share ideas and construct meaning by discussing and collaborating. The periodic online quizzes in final stage of CLP not only provide lecturers with feedback on their students' learning but they also serve to help students evaluate their own learning. As students learn to monitor their progress, they become more motivated by their successes and begin to acquire a sense of ownership and responsibility for the role they play in these successes (Kanfer & McCombs, 2000).

PRISM provides a key link for parents to access their child's learning progress, attendance, timetable and teacher's contacts. Through PRISM, a strong parent-student-teacher relationship was built throughout the course of student study. Parents active involvement with their child's education at home and in school brings great rewards and can have a significant impact on their children's lives (Anita Gurian, 2010).

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The recommended size of original research paper is less than seven thousand words, review papers fewer than seven thousands words also.Preparation of research paper or how to write research paper, are major hurdle, while writing manuscript. The research articles and research letters should be fewer than three thousand words, the structure original research paper; sometime review paper should be as follows:

Papers: These are reports of significant research (typically less than 7000 words equivalent, including tables, figures, references), and comprise:

(a)Title should be relevant and commensurate with the theme of the paper.

(b) A brief Summary, "Abstract" (less than 150 words) containing the major results and conclusions.

(c) Up to ten keywords, that precisely identifies the paper's subject, purpose, and focus.

(d) An Introduction, giving necessary background excluding subheadings; objectives must be clearly declared.

(e) Resources and techniques with sufficient complete experimental details (wherever possible by reference) to permit repetition; sources of information must be given and numerical methods must be specified by reference, unless non-standard.

(f) Results should be presented concisely, by well-designed tables and/or figures; the same data may not be used in both; suitable statistical data should be given. All data must be obtained with attention to numerical detail in the planning stage. As reproduced design has been recognized to be important to experiments for a considerable time, the Editor has decided that any paper that appears not to have adequate numerical treatments of the data will be returned un-refereed;

(g) Discussion should cover the implications and consequences, not just recapitulating the results; conclusions should be summarizing.

(h) Brief Acknowledgements.

(i) References in the proper form.

Authors should very cautiously consider the preparation of papers to ensure that they communicate efficiently. Papers are much more likely to be accepted, if they are cautiously designed and laid out, contain few or no errors, are summarizing, and be conventional to the approach and instructions. They will in addition, be published with much less delays than those that require much technical and editorial correction.

The Editorial Board reserves the right to make literary corrections and to make suggestions to improve briefness.

It is vital, that authors take care in submitting a manuscript that is written in simple language and adheres to published guidelines.

Format

Language: The language of publication is UK English. Authors, for whom English is a second language, must have their manuscript efficiently edited by an English-speaking person before submission to make sure that, the English is of high excellence. It is preferable, that manuscripts should be professionally edited.

Standard Usage, Abbreviations, and Units: Spelling and hyphenation should be conventional to The Concise Oxford English Dictionary. Statistics and measurements should at all times be given in figures, e.g. 16 min, except for when the number begins a sentence. When the number does not refer to a unit of measurement it should be spelt in full unless, it is 160 or greater.

Abbreviations supposed to be used carefully. The abbreviated name or expression is supposed to be cited in full at first usage, followed by the conventional abbreviation in parentheses.

Metric SI units are supposed to generally be used excluding where they conflict with current practice or are confusing. For illustration, 1.4 l rather than 1.4 × 10-3 m3, or 4 mm somewhat than 4 × 10-3 m. Chemical formula and solutions must identify the form used, e.g. anhydrous or hydrated, and the concentration must be in clearly defined units. Common species names should be followed by underlines at the first mention. For following use the generic name should be constricted to a single letter, if it is clear.

Structure

All manuscripts submitted to Global Journals Inc. (US), ought to include:

Title: The title page must carry an instructive title that reflects the content, a running title (less than 45 characters together with spaces), names of the authors and co-authors, and the place(s) wherever the work was carried out. The full postal address in addition with the e-mail address of related author must be given. Up to eleven keywords or very brief phrases have to be given to help data retrieval, mining and indexing.

Abstract, used in Original Papers and Reviews:

Optimizing Abstract for Search Engines

Many researchers searching for information online will use search engines such as Google, Yahoo or similar. By optimizing your paper for search engines, you will amplify the chance of someone finding it. This in turn will make it more likely to be viewed and/or cited in a further work. Global Journals Inc. (US) have compiled these guidelines to facilitate you to maximize the web-friendliness of the most public part of your paper.

Key Words

A major linchpin in research work for the writing research paper is the keyword search, which one will employ to find both library and Internet resources.

One must be persistent and creative in using keywords. An effective keyword search requires a strategy and planning a list of possible keywords and phrases to try.

Search engines for most searches, use Boolean searching, which is somewhat different from Internet searches. The Boolean search uses "operators," words (and, or, not, and near) that enable you to expand or narrow your affords. Tips for research paper while preparing research paper are very helpful guideline of research paper.

Choice of key words is first tool of tips to write research paper. Research paper writing is an art.A few tips for deciding as strategically as possible about keyword search:

- One should start brainstorming lists of possible keywords before even begin searching. Think about the most important concepts related to research work. Ask, "What words would a source have to include to be truly valuable in research paper?" Then consider synonyms for the important words.
- It may take the discovery of only one relevant paper to let steer in the right keyword direction because in most databases, the keywords under which a research paper is abstracted are listed with the paper.
- One should avoid outdated words.

Keywords are the key that opens a door to research work sources. Keyword searching is an art in which researcher's skills are bound to improve with experience and time.

Numerical Methods: Numerical methods used should be clear and, where appropriate, supported by references.

Acknowledgements: Please make these as concise as possible.

References

References follow the Harvard scheme of referencing. References in the text should cite the authors' names followed by the time of their publication, unless there are three or more authors when simply the first author's name is quoted followed by et al. unpublished work has to only be cited where necessary, and only in the text. Copies of references in press in other journals have to be supplied with submitted typescripts. It is necessary that all citations and references be carefully checked before submission, as mistakes or omissions will cause delays.

References to information on the World Wide Web can be given, but only if the information is available without charge to readers on an official site. Wikipedia and Similar websites are not allowed where anyone can change the information. Authors will be asked to make available electronic copies of the cited information for inclusion on the Global Journals Inc. (US) homepage at the judgment of the Editorial Board.

The Editorial Board and Global Journals Inc. (US) recommend that, citation of online-published papers and other material should be done via a DOI (digital object identifier). If an author cites anything, which does not have a DOI, they run the risk of the cited material not being noticeable.

The Editorial Board and Global Journals Inc. (US) recommend the use of a tool such as Reference Manager for reference management and formatting.

Tables, Figures and Figure Legends

Tables: Tables should be few in number, cautiously designed, uncrowned, and include only essential data. Each must have an Arabic number, e.g. Table 4, a self-explanatory caption and be on a separate sheet. Vertical lines should not be used.

Figures: Figures are supposed to be submitted as separate files. Always take in a citation in the text for each figure using Arabic numbers, e.g. Fig. 4. Artwork must be submitted online in electronic form by e-mailing them.

Preparation of Electronic Figures for Publication

Even though low quality images are sufficient for review purposes, print publication requires high quality images to prevent the final product being blurred or fuzzy. Submit (or e-mail) EPS (line art) or TIFF (halftone/photographs) files only. MS PowerPoint and Word Graphics are unsuitable for printed pictures. Do not use pixel-oriented software. Scans (TIFF only) should have a resolution of at least 350 dpi (halftone) or 700 to 1100 dpi (line drawings) in relation to the imitation size. Please give the data for figures in black and white or submit a Color Work Agreement Form. EPS files must be saved with fonts embedded (and with a TIFF preview, if possible).

For scanned images, the scanning resolution (at final image size) ought to be as follows to ensure good reproduction: line art: >650 dpi; halftones (including gel photographs) : >350 dpi; figures containing both halftone and line images: >650 dpi.

Figure Legends: Self-explanatory legends of all figures should be incorporated separately under the heading 'Legends to Figures'. In the full-text online edition of the journal, figure legends may possibly be truncated in abbreviated links to the full screen version. Therefore, the first 100 characters of any legend should notify the reader, about the key aspects of the figure.

6. AFTER ACCEPTANCE

Upon approval of a paper for publication, the manuscript will be forwarded to the dean, who is responsible for the publication of the Global Journals Inc. (US).

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The corresponding author will receive an e-mail alert containing a link to a website or will be attached. A working e-mail address must therefore be provided for the related author.

Acrobat Reader will be required in order to read this file. This software can be downloaded

(Free of charge) from the following website:

www.adobe.com/products/acrobat/readstep2.html. This will facilitate the file to be opened, read on screen, and printed out in order for any corrections to be added. Further instructions will be sent with the proof.

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Before start writing a good quality Computer Science Research Paper, let us first understand what is Computer Science Research Paper? So, Computer Science Research Paper is the paper which is written by professionals or scientists who are associated to Computer Science and Information Technology, or doing research study in these areas. If you are novel to this field then you can consult about this field from your supervisor or guide.

TECHNIQUES FOR WRITING A GOOD QUALITY RESEARCH PAPER:

1. Choosing the topic: In most cases, the topic is searched by the interest of author but it can be also suggested by the guides. You can have several topics and then you can judge that in which topic or subject you are finding yourself most comfortable. This can be done by asking several questions to yourself, like Will I be able to carry our search in this area? Will I find all necessary recourses to accomplish the search? Will I be able to find all information in this field area? If the answer of these types of questions will be "Yes" then you can choose that topic. In most of the cases, you may have to conduct the surveys and have to visit several places because this field is related to Computer Science and Information Technology. Also, you may have to do a lot of work to find all rise and falls regarding the various data of that subject. Sometimes, detailed information plays a vital role, instead of short information.

2. Evaluators are human: First thing to remember that evaluators are also human being. They are not only meant for rejecting a paper. They are here to evaluate your paper. So, present your Best.

3. Think Like Evaluators: If you are in a confusion or getting demotivated that your paper will be accepted by evaluators or not, then think and try to evaluate your paper like an Evaluator. Try to understand that what an evaluator wants in your research paper and automatically you will have your answer.

4. Make blueprints of paper: The outline is the plan or framework that will help you to arrange your thoughts. It will make your paper logical. But remember that all points of your outline must be related to the topic you have chosen.

5. Ask your Guides: If you are having any difficulty in your research, then do not hesitate to share your difficulty to your guide (if you have any). They will surely help you out and resolve your doubts. If you can't clarify what exactly you require for your work then ask the supervisor to help you with the alternative. He might also provide you the list of essential readings.

6. Use of computer is recommended: As you are doing research in the field of Computer Science, then this point is quite obvious.

7. Use right software: Always use good quality software packages. If you are not capable to judge good software then you can lose quality of your paper unknowingly. There are various software programs available to help you, which you can get through Internet.

8. Use the Internet for help: An excellent start for your paper can be by using the Google. It is an excellent search engine, where you can have your doubts resolved. You may also read some answers for the frequent question how to write my research paper or find model research paper. From the internet library you can download books. If you have all required books make important reading selecting and analyzing the specified information. Then put together research paper sketch out.

9. Use and get big pictures: Always use encyclopedias, Wikipedia to get pictures so that you can go into the depth.

10. Bookmarks are useful: When you read any book or magazine, you generally use bookmarks, right! It is a good habit, which helps to not to lose your continuity. You should always use bookmarks while searching on Internet also, which will make your search easier.

11. Revise what you wrote: When you write anything, always read it, summarize it and then finalize it.

12. Make all efforts: Make all efforts to mention what you are going to write in your paper. That means always have a good start. Try to mention everything in introduction, that what is the need of a particular research paper. Polish your work by good skill of writing and always give an evaluator, what he wants.

13. Have backups: When you are going to do any important thing like making research paper, you should always have backup copies of it either in your computer or in paper. This will help you to not to lose any of your important.

14. Produce good diagrams of your own: Always try to include good charts or diagrams in your paper to improve quality. Using several and unnecessary diagrams will degrade the quality of your paper by creating "hotchpotch." So always, try to make and include those diagrams, which are made by your own to improve readability and understandability of your paper.

15. Use of direct quotes: When you do research relevant to literature, history or current affairs then use of quotes become essential but if study is relevant to science then use of quotes is not preferable.

16. Use proper verb tense: Use proper verb tenses in your paper. Use past tense, to present those events that happened. Use present tense to indicate events that are going on. Use future tense to indicate future happening events. Use of improper and wrong tenses will confuse the evaluator. Avoid the sentences that are incomplete.

17. Never use online paper: If you are getting any paper on Internet, then never use it as your research paper because it might be possible that evaluator has already seen it or maybe it is outdated version.

18. Pick a good study spot: To do your research studies always try to pick a spot, which is quiet. Every spot is not for studies. Spot that suits you choose it and proceed further.

19. Know what you know: Always try to know, what you know by making objectives. Else, you will be confused and cannot achieve your target.

20. Use good quality grammar: Always use a good quality grammar and use words that will throw positive impact on evaluator. Use of good quality grammar does not mean to use tough words, that for each word the evaluator has to go through dictionary. Do not start sentence with a conjunction. Do not fragment sentences. Eliminate one-word sentences. Ignore passive voice. Do not ever use a big word when a diminutive one would suffice. Verbs have to be in agreement with their subjects. Prepositions are not expressions to finish sentences with. It is incorrect to ever divide an infinitive. Avoid clichés like the disease. Also, always shun irritating alliteration. Use language that is simple and straight forward. put together a neat summary.

21. Arrangement of information: Each section of the main body should start with an opening sentence and there should be a changeover at the end of the section. Give only valid and powerful arguments to your topic. You may also maintain your arguments with records.

22. Never start in last minute: Always start at right time and give enough time to research work. Leaving everything to the last minute will degrade your paper and spoil your work.

23. Multitasking in research is not good: Doing several things at the same time proves bad habit in case of research activity. Research is an area, where everything has a particular time slot. Divide your research work in parts and do particular part in particular time slot.

24. Never copy others' work: Never copy others' work and give it your name because if evaluator has seen it anywhere you will be in trouble.

25. Take proper rest and food: No matter how many hours you spend for your research activity, if you are not taking care of your health then all your efforts will be in vain. For a quality research, study is must, and this can be done by taking proper rest and food.

26. Go for seminars: Attend seminars if the topic is relevant to your research area. Utilize all your resources.



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27. Refresh your mind after intervals: Try to give rest to your mind by listening to soft music or by sleeping in intervals. This will also improve your memory.

28. Make colleagues: Always try to make colleagues. No matter how sharper or intelligent you are, if you make colleagues you can have several ideas, which will be helpful for your research.

29. Think technically: Always think technically. If anything happens, then search its reasons, its benefits, and demerits.

30. Think and then print: When you will go to print your paper, notice that tables are not be split, headings are not detached from their descriptions, and page sequence is maintained.

31. Adding unnecessary information: Do not add unnecessary information, like, I have used MS Excel to draw graph. Do not add irrelevant and inappropriate material. These all will create superfluous. Foreign terminology and phrases are not apropos. One should NEVER take a broad view. Analogy in script is like feathers on a snake. Not at all use a large word when a very small one would be sufficient. Use words properly, regardless of how others use them. Remove quotations. Puns are for kids, not grunt readers. Amplification is a billion times of inferior quality than sarcasm.

32. Never oversimplify everything: To add material in your research paper, never go for oversimplification. This will definitely irritate the evaluator. Be more or less specific. Also too, by no means, ever use rhythmic redundancies. Contractions aren't essential and shouldn't be there used. Comparisons are as terrible as clichés. Give up ampersands and abbreviations, and so on. Remove commas, that are, not necessary. Parenthetical words however should be together with this in commas. Understatement is all the time the complete best way to put onward earth-shaking thoughts. Give a detailed literary review.

33. Report concluded results: Use concluded results. From raw data, filter the results and then conclude your studies based on measurements and observations taken. Significant figures and appropriate number of decimal places should be used. Parenthetical remarks are prohibitive. Proofread carefully at final stage. In the end give outline to your arguments. Spot out perspectives of further study of this subject. Justify your conclusion by at the bottom of them with sufficient justifications and examples.

34. After conclusion: Once you have concluded your research, the next most important step is to present your findings. Presentation is extremely important as it is the definite medium though which your research is going to be in print to the rest of the crowd. Care should be taken to categorize your thoughts well and present them in a logical and neat manner. A good quality research paper format is essential because it serves to highlight your research paper and bring to light all necessary aspects in your research.

Informal Guidelines of Research Paper Writing

Key points to remember:

- Submit all work in its final form.
- Write your paper in the form, which is presented in the guidelines using the template.
- Please note the criterion for grading the final paper by peer-reviewers.

Final Points:

A purpose of organizing a research paper is to let people to interpret your effort selectively. The journal requires the following sections, submitted in the order listed, each section to start on a new page.

The introduction will be compiled from reference matter and will reflect the design processes or outline of basis that direct you to make study. As you will carry out the process of study, the method and process section will be constructed as like that. The result segment will show related statistics in nearly sequential order and will direct the reviewers next to the similar intellectual paths throughout the data that you took to carry out your study. The discussion section will provide understanding of the data and projections as to the implication of the results. The use of good quality references all through the paper will give the effort trustworthiness by representing an alertness of prior workings.

Writing a research paper is not an easy job no matter how trouble-free the actual research or concept. Practice, excellent preparation, and controlled record keeping are the only means to make straightforward the progression.

General style:

Specific editorial column necessities for compliance of a manuscript will always take over from directions in these general guidelines.

To make a paper clear

· Adhere to recommended page limits

Mistakes to evade

- Insertion a title at the foot of a page with the subsequent text on the next page
- Separating a table/chart or figure - impound each figure/table to a single page
- Submitting a manuscript with pages out of sequence

In every sections of your document

· Use standard writing style including articles ("a", "the," etc.)

· Keep on paying attention on the research topic of the paper

· Use paragraphs to split each significant point (excluding for the abstract)

· Align the primary line of each section

· Present your points in sound order

· Use present tense to report well accepted

· Use past tense to describe specific results

· Shun familiar wording, don't address the reviewer directly, and don't use slang, slang language, or superlatives

· Shun use of extra pictures - include only those figures essential to presenting results

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Abstract:

The summary should be two hundred words or less. It should briefly and clearly explain the key findings reported in the manuscript--must have precise statistics. It should not have abnormal acronyms or abbreviations. It should be logical in itself. Shun citing references at this point.

An abstract is a brief distinct paragraph summary of finished work or work in development. In a minute or less a reviewer can be taught the foundation behind the study, common approach to the problem, relevant results, and significant conclusions or new questions.

Write your summary when your paper is completed because how can you write the summary of anything which is not yet written? Wealth of terminology is very essential in abstract. Yet, use comprehensive sentences and do not let go readability for briefness. You can maintain it succinct by phrasing sentences so that they provide more than lone rationale. The author can at this moment go straight to shortening the outcome. Sum up the study, with the subsequent elements in any summary. Try to maintain the initial two items to no more than one ruling each.

- Reason of the study - theory, overall issue, purpose
- Fundamental goal
- To the point depiction of the research
- Consequences, including definite statistics - if the consequences are quantitative in nature, account quantitative data; results of any numerical analysis should be reported
- Significant conclusions or questions that track from the research(es)

Approach:

- Single section, and succinct
- As a outline of job done, it is always written in past tense
- A conceptual should situate on its own, and not submit to any other part of the paper such as a form or table
- Center on shortening results - bound background information to a verdict or two, if completely necessary
- What you account in an conceptual must be regular with what you reported in the manuscript
- Exact spelling, clearness of sentences and phrases, and appropriate reporting of quantities (proper units, important statistics) are just as significant in an abstract as they are anywhere else

Introduction:

The **Introduction** should "introduce" the manuscript. The reviewer should be presented with sufficient background information to be capable to comprehend and calculate the purpose of your study without having to submit to other works. The basis for the study should be offered. Give most important references but shun difficult to make a comprehensive appraisal of the topic. In the introduction, describe the problem visibly. If the problem is not acknowledged in a logical, reasonable way, the reviewer will have no attention in your result. Speak in common terms about techniques used to explain the problem, if needed, but do not present any particulars about the protocols here. Following approach can create a valuable beginning:

- Explain the value (significance) of the study
- Shield the model - why did you employ this particular system or method? What is its compensation? You strength remark on its appropriateness from a abstract point of vision as well as point out sensible reasons for using it.
- Present a justification. Status your particular theory (es) or aim(s), and describe the logic that led you to choose them.
- Very for a short time explain the tentative propose and how it skilled the declared objectives.

Approach:

- Use past tense except for when referring to recognized facts. After all, the manuscript will be submitted after the entire job is done.
- Sort out your thoughts; manufacture one key point with every section. If you make the four points listed above, you will need a least of four paragraphs.

- Present surroundings information only as desirable in order hold up a situation. The reviewer does not desire to read the whole thing you know about a topic.
- Shape the theory/purpose specifically - do not take a broad view.
- As always, give awareness to spelling, simplicity and correctness of sentences and phrases.

Procedures (Methods and Materials):

This part is supposed to be the easiest to carve if you have good skills. A sound written Procedures segment allows a capable scientist to replacement your results. Present precise information about your supplies. The suppliers and clarity of reagents can be helpful bits of information. Present methods in sequential order but linked methodologies can be grouped as a segment. Be concise when relating the protocols. Attempt for the least amount of information that would permit another capable scientist to spare your outcome but be cautious that vital information is integrated. The use of subheadings is suggested and ought to be synchronized with the results section. When a technique is used that has been well described in another object, mention the specific item describing a way but draw the basic principle while stating the situation. The purpose is to text all particular resources and broad procedures, so that another person may use some or all of the methods in one more study or referee the scientific value of your work. It is not to be a step by step report of the whole thing you did, nor is a methods section a set of orders.

Materials:

- Explain materials individually only if the study is so complex that it saves liberty this way.
- Embrace particular materials, and any tools or provisions that are not frequently found in laboratories.
- Do not take in frequently found.
- If use of a definite type of tools.
- Materials may be reported in a part section or else they may be recognized along with your measures.

Methods:

- Report the method (not particulars of each process that engaged the same methodology)
- Describe the method entirely
- To be succinct, present methods under headings dedicated to specific dealings or groups of measures
- Simplify - details how procedures were completed not how they were exclusively performed on a particular day.
- If well known procedures were used, account the procedure by name, possibly with reference, and that's all.

Approach:

- It is embarrassed or not possible to use vigorous voice when documenting methods with no using first person, which would focus the reviewer's interest on the researcher rather than the job. As a result when script up the methods most authors use third person passive voice.
- Use standard style in this and in every other part of the paper - avoid familiar lists, and use full sentences.

What to keep away from

- Resources and methods are not a set of information.
- Skip all descriptive information and surroundings - save it for the argument.
- Leave out information that is immaterial to a third party.

Results:

The principle of a results segment is to present and demonstrate your conclusion. Create this part a entirely objective details of the outcome, and save all understanding for the discussion.

The page length of this segment is set by the sum and types of data to be reported. Carry on to be to the point, by means of statistics and tables, if suitable, to present consequences most efficiently.You must obviously differentiate material that would usually be incorporated in a study editorial from any unprocessed data or additional appendix matter that would not be available. In fact, such matter should not be submitted at all except requested by the instructor.



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Content

- Sum up your conclusion in text and demonstrate them, if suitable, with figures and tables.
- In manuscript, explain each of your consequences, point the reader to remarks that are most appropriate.
- Present a background, such as by describing the question that was addressed by creation an exacting study.
- Explain results of control experiments and comprise remarks that are not accessible in a prescribed figure or table, if appropriate.
- Examine your data, then prepare the analyzed (transformed) data in the form of a figure (graph), table, or in manuscript form.

What to stay away from

- Do not discuss or infer your outcome, report surroundings information, or try to explain anything.
- Not at all, take in raw data or intermediate calculations in a research manuscript.
- Do not present the similar data more than once.
- Manuscript should complement any figures or tables, not duplicate the identical information.
- Never confuse figures with tables - there is a difference.

Approach

- As forever, use past tense when you submit to your results, and put the whole thing in a reasonable order.
- Put figures and tables, appropriately numbered, in order at the end of the report
- If you desire, you may place your figures and tables properly within the text of your results part.

Figures and tables

- If you put figures and tables at the end of the details, make certain that they are visibly distinguished from any attach appendix materials, such as raw facts
- Despite of position, each figure must be numbered one after the other and complete with subtitle
- In spite of position, each table must be titled, numbered one after the other and complete with heading
- All figure and table must be adequately complete that it could situate on its own, divide from text

Discussion:

The Discussion is expected the trickiest segment to write and describe. A lot of papers submitted for journal are discarded based on problems with the Discussion. There is no head of state for how long a argument should be. Position your understanding of the outcome visibly to lead the reviewer through your conclusions, and then finish the paper with a summing up of the implication of the study. The purpose here is to offer an understanding of your results and hold up for all of your conclusions, using facts from your research and generally accepted information, if suitable. The implication of result should be visibly described. Infer your data in the conversation in suitable depth. This means that when you clarify an observable fact you must explain mechanisms that may account for the observation. If your results vary from your prospect, make clear why that may have happened. If your results agree, then explain the theory that the proof supported. It is never suitable to just state that the data approved with prospect, and let it drop at that.

- Make a decision if each premise is supported, discarded, or if you cannot make a conclusion with assurance. Do not just dismiss a study or part of a study as "uncertain."
- Research papers are not acknowledged if the work is imperfect. Draw what conclusions you can based upon the results that you have, and take care of the study as a finished work
- You may propose future guidelines, such as how the experiment might be personalized to accomplish a new idea.
- Give details all of your remarks as much as possible, focus on mechanisms.
- Make a decision if the tentative design sufficiently addressed the theory, and whether or not it was correctly restricted.
- Try to present substitute explanations if sensible alternatives be present.
- One research will not counter an overall question, so maintain the large picture in mind, where do you go next? The best studies unlock new avenues of study. What questions remain?
- Recommendations for detailed papers will offer supplementary suggestions.

Approach:

- When you refer to information, differentiate data generated by your own studies from available information
- Submit to work done by specific persons (including you) in past tense.
- Submit to generally acknowledged facts and main beliefs in present tense.

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References	Complete and correct format, well organized	Beside the point, Incomplete	Wrong format and structuring

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