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The Linguistic Features of Malay Papuan in Indonesia; its History and Distinctive Peculiarities with Malay Indonesian

By Supardi uncen

The University of Cenderawasih, Indonesia

Abstract- Papua Island consists of Papua (Western part of this island) belongs to the country of Indonesia while the other Eastern side is the country of Papua New Guinea (PNG). Let me say that this island is an exceptional spot in this planet which contains approximately thousands of languages. Due to variety of linguistic systems over so many ethnics, a language or dialect must be exercised among citizens. Papua (used to be called Irian Jaya) and its people converse in Bahasa Indonesia as an interactive language, while PNG citizens speak both Pidgin and English as a Second Language. Thus, in order to speak among Papuans, a dialect of Indonesian version has been exercised, which is called Malay Papuan. This paper describes the distinctive features of this dialect version particularly its phonemic, morphemic systems. Prior to that, a glance concept of a dialect in its term and meaning and a brief historical of Malay dialect of Papua are presented.

Keywords: MP (malay papuan); MI (malay indonesian).

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The Linguistic Features of Malay Papuan in Indonesia; its History and Distinctive Peculiarities with Malay Indonesian

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Abstract- Papua Island consists of Papua (Western part of this island) belongs to the country of Indonesia while the other Eastern side is the country of Papua New Guinea (PNG). Let me say that this island is an exceptional spot in this planet which contains approximately thousands of languages. Due to variety of linguistic systems over so many ethnics, a language or dialect must be exercised among citizens. Papua (used to be called Irian Jaya) and its people converse in Bahasa Indonesia as an interactive language, while PNG citizens speak both Pidgin and English as a Second Language. Thus, in order to speak among Papuans, a dialect of Indonesian version has been exercised, which is called Malay Papuan. This paper describes the distinctive features of this dialect version particularly its phonemic, morphemic systems. Prior to that, a glance concept of a dialect in its term and meaning and a brief historical of Malay dialect of Papua are presented.

Keywords: MP (*malay papuan*); MI (*malay indonesian*).

I. INTRODUCTION

Indonesia has so many tribes and languages. Recent research shows that a project of language mapping has already been done by National Language Bureau 2008 and has already identified 442 languages. Up till year 2011, it is noted that there has been significant increase in number of about 72 more languages; therefore the total number is 514 languages (Dendy et al., 2008). This number is still for sure being increased because many areas have not been visited yet to detect the number of languages owned by people living on those lands all over Indonesia archipelago. In the multicultural country like Indonesia, absolutely a language is absolutely needed. National Language "Bahasa Indonesia" is, indeed, a very strong indicator of a unifying language. We could imagine how the people of about 300 million converse each other if there is no language at all.

Every ethnic tribe has its own local languages that influence his way of speaking Bahasa Indonesia. Papua (see the map) with more than 250 languages and cultures may not be impossible to use standard Indonesian soundly due to the variety of linguistic system. A Papuan who is originally from Serui Island (Northern part of Papua) talks to a Javanese, they both could speak fluently in Bahasa Indonesia (Indonesian)

but with different styles of rhythm and pronunciation due to mother tongue influences. The Javanese certainly speak probably standard Indonesian, while Papuans use similar language but it may be different in pronouncing the dialect due to his/her mother tongue interferences. Even between inter-ethnics within Papua itself, they could not share similar accents of Malay Papua because of facing different linguistic systems.

Moreover, all speakers of English are able to communicate each other and to some extent understand each other; nevertheless not two people articulate exactly identical. There are some differences to be considered such as age, sex, state of health, size, personality, emotional state, linguistic system, culture etc. So as to each speaks somewhat in a different way from all others is demonstrated by our capacity to be aware of acquaintances by hearing them talking. Thus, beyond the individual differences, the language of a group of people may show regular variations from that used by other groups of speakers of that language.

II. PAPUA AND PAPUA MALAY; A BRIEF HISTORY

Prior to its liberty in 1963, Papua (Western New Guinea), in fact, has already had cultural interaction with the other communities all the way through Indonesia for centuries. Samaun (1994) states that King of Shrivijaya (Sriwijaya), in the eight century, proposed a souvenir of a cockatoo and a slave name "seng-ki" to the Chinese King. In Chinese conception, this term probably means black-skinned and wooly-haired. He describes further that, the Kingdom of Kertagama shows there is a historical manuscript in it which states that Seram island, a group of islanders of North Ambon in Moluccas, and Onim, a group of dwellers of Kepala Burung (bird head of Papua used to be called Irian Jaya) were under the control of the Kingdom of Majapahit.

Thus, astoundingly, it had been the fact that those wooly-haired persons were also decorated on the Borobudur temple in central Java. This evidence might also be the fact that when the temple was constructed upright in the eight century, people who did the construction and those who stayed around the temple had already acquainted with African Negroes. Nevertheless, based on the relationship between Sriwijaya

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and Majapahit on their political control, in relation to the political status of Irian Jaya between those two kingdoms, it is quite reasonably to assume that the carvings are the sign of the people of Irianese (Kuncaraninggrat, 1963).

There have been other indications as evidence on the inter-cultural acquainted within groups of people in some parts which could be as a proof that the Malay-based culture is still deeply tied there. As the history went on in the past, it indicated that on the North Coast, very much along the coastal areas of some islands along the Pacific and Indian oceans, some symbols can be seen through canoes with outriggers showing some paintings written in Bahasa Melayu (the Malay Language). Bahasa Melayu at that time was used as a lingua franca among traders, that's the time in which this language was introduced to Irian Jaya (the former name of Papua). It can be said that at least there is strong proof that "Malay Ambon or Malay Ternate" has been exercised in Irian Jaya for quite long probably about a century. Thus, it is shown through those facts as more clues in which the Sultan Ternate and Tidore at that time have had a gigantic power over most parts of the region of Irian Jaya particularly the northern part.

From the above notes, it may be assumed that the Malay Ternate was applied Malay language as an interactive language among Irianese and authorities as there had been no other language to unify people with hundreds of linguistic systems (Cappel, 1962; 1969; Lembaga Bahasa Nasional, 1972; Stockhof, 1975; Voorhoeve, 1975). As times went by, finally, the Dutch administration bought West New Guinea from the Sultan of Ternate in 1905, and then in 1911, it handed over the region under the control of the residential authority of Ambon. There had no indication or may be there had been already some studies on the similarities between the Bahasa Indonesia conversed in Irian Jaya or Papua and other dialects in and around Ternate islands and Ambon in Mollucas. It would be interesting to explore deeply for the sake of obtaining more strong evidence on the historical angles as the linguistic references.

III. MALAY PAPUA: A DIALECT

Language of a group of people may show regular variations from that used by other groups of speakers of that language. When English of speakers in different geographical regions and from different social groups show systematic differences, the groups are said to speak different dialects of the same language. This dialect of a single language may thus be defined as mutually intelligible forms of language that differ in systematic ways from each other. It is not easy to decide whether the systematic differences between two speech communities reflect two dialects or two different languages. A rule of- thumb definition can be used: "When dialects become mutually unintelligible- when the

speakers of one dialect group can no longer understand the speakers of another dialect group—these' dialects' become different languages."

However to define mutually intelligible" is itself a difficult task. Danish speaking Danish and Norwegian speaking Norwegian and Swedes speaking Swedish can converse with each other; yet Danish and Norwegian and Swedish are considered separate languages because they are spoken in separate countries and because there are regular differences in their grammars. Similarly, Hinddi and Urdu are mutually intelligible "languages" spoken in Pakistan and India, although the differences between them are not much greater than between the English spoken in America and Australia. On the other hand, the various languages spoken in China, such as Mandarin and Cantonese, although mutually unintelligible, have been referred to as dialects of Chinese because they are spoken within a single country and have a common written system. Malay Papua is as well a dialect of Malay Indonesian because it is spoken in a country with similar written system only has some distinctive characteristics in phonology, morphology, etc. Thus, whatever the boundaries are we could, however, stick to the rule-of-thumb as definition and refer to dialects of one language as mutually intelligible version of the same basic grammar with systematic differences between them.

IV. STANDARD INDONESIAN OR MALAY INDONESIAN VERSUS MALAY PAPUA

The standard Indonesian or Malay Indonesian is officially declared in UUD 45. The national language is Bahasa Indonesia or Indonesian Language or Indonesian. This language has already gained a clear status as a national language or a state language (Halim, 1975 cited in Samaun 1994), or official, technical, public and formal language (Kridalaksana, 1975 cited in Samaun 1994). Together with the National Language, the National Flag and National Anthem are as well stated in the similar National Regulation No 24/2009 about National Flag, National Language and National Anthem. The role of Malay Papua (PM) is very different from Malay of Javanese or other parts of Indonesia. Majority of people in Papua living in cities, coastal areas and in country sides, speak this dialect well. Linguistic history in Papua has noted that there are people living on the highlands and coastal areas with their own linguistic systems. Those from NAN (Non Austronesian) from the Highland of Papua converse their MP different from Austronesian (AN). Interestingly, every tribe has its own characteristics conversing in Malay Papua. For example, somebody originally from Biak Island when he/she speaks MP, we as other Papuans could guest from his/her accent or dialect that he/she is originally from Biak (an island in the Northern part of Papua).

The form of MP can be interpreted differently by other people outside Papua who hear Papuans talking, for example those from Java. They get confuse when they come across sentences such as “*sapi main bold*” and “*sapu tangan sakit*” they think those sentences sound funny. Firstly, “*sapi main bola*” (a cow goes to play ball), how can a cow do this, it is impossible, thus in MP means “sa” is saya, “pi” is pergi, “main” is play and “bola” is ball so in MI means “saya pergi bermain bola” (I go to play ball). Secondly, “*sapu tangan sakit*” (handkerchief is sick), it is impossible of course to make it happen as handkerchief is not a leaving thing. Thus, in MP means “saya punya tangan sakit” (my hand is sick). If we look at MI means “tangan saya sakit”. These are the differences which are there in Papua and in fact,

those who come from outside Papua, to be part of the culture, should learn to adopt and cope with this linguistic situation. Thus, more descriptions of MP and MI linguistic features (Supardi, 2011) are described as follows.

V. SOME DISTINCTIVE LINGUISTIC FEATURES OF MALAY PAPUA (MP)R

a) Phonemic Linguistic System of MP

i. Phonemic Vocal Feature

The total number of vocal in Malay Papua is 5 as normal standard of any language. Those vocals may be put in all positions, as shown below:

Table 1 : Vocal

Vocal	Initial Position		Medial Position		Final Position	
/i/	/ikan/	'ikan'	/pigi/	'pergi'	/pigi/	'pergi'
	/itu/	'itu'	/kitong/	'kami'	/dari/	'dari'
/u/	/urut/	'urut'	/trus/	'terus'	/suru/	'suruh'
	/usut/	'usut'	/bum/	'buruh'	/pintu/	'pintu'
/e/	/emas/	'emas'	/beras/	'beras'	/sore/	'sore'
	/enam/	'enam'	/keras/	'keras'	/sampe/	'sampai'
/a/	/anak/	'anak'	/anak/	'anak'	/sabala/	'sebelas'
	/asin/	'asin'	/sadap/	'sedap'	/sapa/	'siapa'
/o/	/ojek/	'ojek'	/kobon/	'kebon'	/mo/	'mao'
	/ompong/	'ompong'	/doron/	'dorong'	/ko/	'kau'

ii. Phonemic Consonant Feature

Consonant of Malay Papua is entirely not different from consonant of Indonesian phonemic system. Yet, it is identical but somehow it is not similar. The linguistic system of hundreds of vernaculars in

Papua has great intervention on MP; for examples, there is a free variation between /k/ and /ʔ/; /ng/ and /n/; /h/ and /zero/. Below is the consonant phonemic system of MP.

No	Consonant	Phoneme	Examples			
			MP	MI	MP	MI
1.	Bilabial Stop	/b/, /p/	/bola/	'bola'	/sabala/	'sebelas'
	Alveolar Stop	/d/, /t/	/pace/	'bapak'	/sadap/	'sedap'
			/dapa/	'dapat'	/jadi/	'jadi'
Velar Stop	/g/, /k/	/tolon/	'tolong'	/utan/	'hutan'	
		/gajih/	'gaji'	/sagu/	'sagu'	
			/konen/	'kuning'	/bapa/	'bapak'
2.	Affricative	/c/, /j/	/cari/	'cari'	/cacing/	'cacing'
			/jari/	'jari'	/janji/	'janji'
3.	Fricative	/f/, /s/, /h/	/farek/	'ms bodoh'	/	
			/sa/	'saya'	/bebas/	'bebas'
			/h/	'murah'	/gajih/	'gaji'

4.	Nasal	/m/,/n/, /ng/, /ny/	/makan/ ‘makan’ /makam/ ‘makam’ /kangkun/ ‘kangkung /nyanyi/ ‘nyanyi’ /tanya/ ‘tanya’
5.	Allophone	/r/	/rata/ ‘rata’ /dara/ ‘darat’
6.	Lateral	/l/,	/lai/ ‘lain’ /lalat/ ‘lalat’
7.	Semi Vocal	/w/, /y/	/waktu/ /waktu/ /jawab/ ‘jawab’ /yan/ ‘yang’ /sayan/ ‘sayang’

Table 2 : Consonant

iii. *Vowel Change*

Vowel changes that take place in the initial position are presented below. The standard Indonesian pronunciation is listed on the left. The change is shown by -->

- (1) [i --> o] [sial --> soe]
- (2) [ə --> I] [p əcah --> picah]
- (3) [ə --> e] [l əbih --> lebe]
[d əŋ an --> deŋan]
[ə mas --> emas]
[d ə kat --> dekat]
[b ə si --> besi]
- (4) [ə --> o] [s ə nduk --> sondu]
[k ə bun --> kobon]
[p ə rut --> poro]
[p ə nuh --> pono]
[k ə ntut --> konto]
- (5) [ə --> a] [k ə cil --> kacupin]
[p ə rahu --> parau]
[s ə b ə las --> sabala]
[s ə b ə ntar --> sabantar]
[s ə dap --> sadap]
- (6) [a --> e] [gait --> gepe]
- (7) [u --> o] [duit --> doi]
[tuli --> toher]
[putih --> pte]
[kuni --> konen]
- (8) [o --> a] [goŋgoŋ --> ganging]
- (9) [au --> o] [mau --> mo]
[saudara --> sodarah]
[kau --> ko]

iv. *Vowel deletion*

Vowel deletion that can be identified is limited to [] in [cv-]

- [t ɜ rus --> trus]
- [b ɜ lum --> blon]
- [s ɜ p ɜ rempat --> sprampa]
- [s ɜ puluh --> spolu]

v. *Consonant deletion*

The consonant which is deleted here is the /h/ sound in [cv-]. It seems that speakers find it rather difficult to produce that fricative sound in this particular position.

- [hampir --> ampir]
- [hanut --> ano]
- [hutan --> utan]
- [habis --> abis]
- [hancur --> ancor]

vi. *Consonant deletion and vowel insertion*

From the data we can identify two types.

- (1) [- ə r - --> -i-]
[p ə rgi --> pigi --> pi]
- (2) [- ə r - --> -a-]
[t ə rpukul --> tapukul]
[t ə rsentuh --> tasonto]
[t ə rbelah --> tabala]
[t ə rkikis --> takikis --> takiki]
[t ə rgores --> tagores --> tagore]

VI. MORPHEMIC LINGUISTIC SYSTEM OF MP

MP verb is very different from the other Malay verbs, especially the Malay language in the western region of Indonesia. The study (Supardi, 2011) shows that the verb of MP is not built on free morphemes such as affixes and in Indonesian and Malay descent in the western region, but only built on the free morpheme. The data in this study were collected by tapping directly and quoted from the three publications in Papua. The approach used in this study is descriptive structural

approach. There is also the method used is the distributional method. From the analysis result is obtained conclusion. MP's verb form of 1) base morpheme, 2) verbs inflections: (1) prefixation is not productive, (2) lexical reduplication.

MP Verb, from morphological aspect, can be as base morpheme. This verb is 1) combination of prefix *ma(N-)*, *bata-* atau *ke-*, 2) in term of reduplication form; and 3) syntactically bound with aspects: : *kasih*, *dapat*, *ada*, *bisa*, *baku*. Other characteristic is a form which is combined with *tra* (tidak). Besides the characteristic above (Tajuddin, 2005: 68-69) was adding of verb cracteristic as follow: has should a fungtion as a predicate, chronological meaning, and proses.

a) *Verb-Based*

Malay verb is verb-based. Why could it be like that? The question is due to unproductive of the affixation (Supardi, 2011). In Indonesian, this verb could be as formal and informal which is unlimited, on the contrary if we look at MP, there are many of these verbs and found in daily conversation.

- | | | | |
|-----|--------------|--------------|------------|
| (1) | <i>hirup</i> | <i>cutit</i> | <i>lur</i> |
| | <i>cium</i> | <i>ikat</i> | <i>lap</i> |
| | <i>curi</i> | <i>pukul</i> | <i>lot</i> |

b) *Back-ward formation of Verb*

Back-ward formation of verb with affix in this case is very limited. Prefixes are *ma(N-)*, *ba-*, *ta-* dan *ke-*. Result of the form with prefix is considered insufficient. As mentioned above, back-ward formation of verb is result of the integration of four prefixes is also limited. Therefore, data from this description is also very limited.

i. *Morfem Terikat ma (N-)*

Verb could be blended down by adding prefix *ma(N-)* in verb base. It is very hard to find this prefix in daily conversation in MP. In Indonesian (Bahasa Indonesia), this nasalized prefix could be introduced by applying *me (n-)*. Basically, the notion of back-ward formation of verb of prefix *ma (N-)* is similar to prefix *meng-* (Alwi, 1998:119) in Indonesian (BI). The following examples are presented below:

- | | |
|-----|------------------------------|
| (2) | Transitif (Verb) |
| | <i>intip -> mangintip</i> |
| | <i>cari -> mencari</i> |
| (3) | Nontransitif (Verb) |
| | <i>orok -> mangoron</i> |
| | <i>luncur -> maluncu</i> |
| | <i>jerit -> manjeri</i> |

There has been deep research to MP verb with prefix which is accepted. Therefore, this feature of prefix is unproductive as prefix *me(N-)* in Indonesia (BI). Below are the examples of unaccepted forms:

- | | |
|-----|--------------------------------|
| (4) | <i>dorong -> *mandorong</i> |
| | <i>bisu -> *mambisu</i> |

*lucu -> *malucu*

ii. *Bound Morpheme ba-*

MP Verb could be formed by adding prefix *ba-* in verb base. Form of prefix *be-* covers two types : the first type could be put in line with prefix *be-* in Indonesian (see example...)

- | | | |
|-----|----------------------------|-----------|
| (5) | <i>diri -> badiri</i> | 'berdiri' |
| | <i>ribut -> baribut</i> | 'beribut' |

The second type cannot be translated into BI with prefix *ber-*, but with prefix *me(N-)*.

- | | | |
|-----|----------------------------|-------------|
| (6) | <i>basuh -> babasu</i> | 'membasuh' |
| | <i>cukur -> bacukur</i> | 'mencukur' |
| | <i>dorong-> badoron</i> | 'mendorong' |

Some deep results shows that not all forms with prefixes are accepted. Therefore, this feature of prefix is unproductive such as prefix *ba-* in BI. Below are the examples of those of unaccepted forms:

- | | Base Word (BI) | MP | BI |
|-----|--------------------|-----------------|------------|
| (7) | <i>lari -></i> | <i>*balari</i> | 'berlari' |
| | <i>embun -></i> | <i>*baembun</i> | 'berembun' |
| | <i>teman -></i> | <i>*bateman</i> | 'berteman' |

iii. *Bound Morpheme ta-*

Verb could be formed with prefix *ta-*. It could be translated in Indonesian with *ter-*. In daily life, these forms are easily found. The examples are presented below:

- | | | | |
|-----|--------------------|-----------------------|------------|
| (8) | <i>kikis -></i> | <i>takikis/takiki</i> | 'terkikis' |
| | <i>cukur -></i> | <i>tacukur/tacuku</i> | 'tercukur' |
| | <i>talem -></i> | <i>talem</i> | 'terkunci' |

Similar to prefix *ma (N-)* and *ba-*, prefix *ta-* is unproductive or unaccepted, as seen below:

- | | | |
|-----|--------------------|-----------------|
| (9) | <i>lelap -></i> | <i>*talelap</i> |
| | <i>ambil -></i> | <i>*taambil</i> |
| | <i>jaga -></i> | <i>*tajaga</i> |

iv. *Bound Morpheme ke-*

It is found in Javanese influence which is prefix *ke-*. The essence underlying this becomes active transitive such as in the form of *ketawa*, *ketemu*, yet it could become passive transitive like the form of *ketabrak*. In daily life these prefixes are limited. There have been no new forms found. Below are the examples of those prefixes:

- | | | | |
|------|---------------------|---------------------|------------------|
| (10) | <i>tawa -></i> | <i>ketawa (MP)</i> | 'tertawa' (MI) |
| | <i>tabrak -></i> | <i>ketabra (MP)</i> | 'tertabrak' (MI) |
| | <i>temu -></i> | <i>ketemu (MP)</i> | 'bertemu' (MI) |

VII. REDUPLICATION OF LEXICAL VERB

a) *Intransitif active 'ber- ... '*

Lexical reduplication verb with any verb (punctual: such as *batuk*, *kedip*); activity: such as *jalan*,

lari; stative: dengar, tau (tahu); dan static: piker, sandar show active intransitive. In Indonesian, this form is in line with prefixes such as ber-dasar-, ber-dasar-an atau ber-dasar- dasar. Underlying concept inside is active intransitive.

- (11) *jalan-jalan (MP)* 'berjalan-jalan' (MI)
pergi-pergi (MP) 'bepergian' (MI)
sandar-sandar (MP) 'bersandar' (MI)

Below are the examples in sentences:

- (12) *Dong cuma jalan-jalan saja mo (MP).*
'Mereka hanya berjalan-jalan saja (MI)'
- (13) *Ko kenapa sungut-sungut kah (MP).*
'Mengapa kamu bersungut-sungut (MI)'
- (14) *Su satu minggu mama pergi-pergi terus (MP).*
'Sudah seminggu mama berpergian terus-menerus (MI)'
- (15) *Di sana kitong cuma crita-crita saja (MP).*
'Di sana kita hanya bercerita saja (MI)'

Result of the change of word in lexical reduplication form becomes a sentence (12a) and (13a) are not accepted. Sentence (14a) is still cynical, while sentence (15a) still accepted, but meaning has changed.

- (12a) **Dong cuma jalan saja mo.*
'Mereka hanya berjalan-jalan saja'
- (13a) **Ko kenapa sungut kah.*
'Mengapa kamu bersungut-sungut '
- (14a) *?Su satu minggu mama pergi terus.*
'Mama sudah seminggu terus pergi.'
- (15a) *Di sana kitong cuma crita saja.*
'Di sana kita hanya bercerita saja.'

The above descriptions are some samples of the linguistic features, of MP and MI which are obtained by the writer (a Javanese) as a linguist who has an interest in MP.

VIII. CONCLUSION

Malay Papua is a dialect which is unofficially exercised as unifying dialect among hundreds of ethnics in Papua (Western part of New Guinea Island which is a part of Indonesia). Whoever considered his/her as Papuan cannot stay away from this dialect as a part of Papuan's identity (inter-ethnic community's dialect), just as the other parts of Indonesia such as those from Moluccas, North Celebes, West and East Nusa Tenggara, Sumatera, Java, Borneo (Kalimantan), etc. Yet, data shows that, historically, Malay Papua's dialect tends to be directed towards Moluccas and North Celebes (Sulawesi).

The distinctive features of MP on its phonemic and morphemic system are so impressed other people of other tribes outside Papua. When a Papuan goes to visit Jakarta and he/she uses MP to converse, it would probably become a joking if a Javanese listens to a Papuan talking in MP. Sometimes, there would be a kind of a miscommunication among speakers of other cultures. Thus, the important point is to demonstrate this uniqueness of this dialect which is based on the description of its linguistic system, and it would be a good promotion to other tribes throughout the country or other international eyes to be aware of a dialect applied by an extraordinary ethnic group somewhere in this planet.

Map of Papua



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Study of House's Model of Translation Quality Assessment on the Short Story and Its Translated Text

By Shabnam Shakernia

Abstract- House model on comparative ST-TT analysis is leading to the assessment of the quality of the translation, highlighting mismatches or errors. This analysis is through lexical, syntactic and textual means. Her analysis also refers to what information is being conveyed and what the relationship is between sender and receiver. On the process of comparison ST to TT, errors are produced and categorized according to genre and to the situational dimensions of register and genre. These dimensional errors are referred to as covertly erroneous errors. Also, there are overtly erroneous errors which are denotative mismatches or target system errors. Then the translation can be categorized into one of two types: over translation or covert translation. Through the analysis of the translation and the source text, it is possible to determine whether the text is translated covertly or overtly and the translator made the write decision in choosing the type of translation in his rendering. This paper tends to apply her model on a short story named the Grapes of Wrath by John Stein Beck. It is translated by Mohammad Sadegh Shariati. This paper applies House's model on this short story to find out whether the translated works is translated covertly or overtly.

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Abstract- House model on comparative ST-TT analysis is leading to the assessment of the quality of the translation, highlighting mismatches or errors. This analysis is through lexical, syntactic and textual means. Her analysis also refers to what information is being conveyed and what the relationship is between sender and receiver. On the process of comparison ST to TT, errors are produced and categorized according to genre and to the situational dimensions of register and genre. These dimensional errors are referred to as covertly erroneous errors. Also, there are overtly erroneous errors which are denotative mismatches or target system errors. Then the translation can be categorized into one of two types: over translation or covert translation. Through the analysis of the translation and the source text, it is possible to determine whether the text is translated covertly or overtly and the translator made the write decision in choosing the type of translation in his rendering. This paper tends to apply her model on a short story named the Grapes of Wrath by John Stein Beck. It is translated by Mohammad Sadegh Shariati. This paper applies House's model on this short story to find out whether the translated works is translated covertly or overtly.

I. INTRODUCTION

House's (1997) model of translation quality assessment is based on Hallidayan model which is a systematic – functional theory. This model is a systematic comparison of an original and its translation on three different levels: the levels of language/text, register (filed, tenor and mode) and genre. Register is categorized into three parts: Filed refers to the subject matter and social action, Tenor includes the participant relationship. It involves the author's provenance and stance, social role relationship and social attitude. The last one as a mode relates to channel and the degree of participation between addresser and addressee. She believes that the fundamental criterion of translation quality is the equivalence. The first requirement for this equivalence is the function. This function has two components which she calls them ideational and interpersonal. She also uses the other two terms for these components as referential and non – referential. The function of a text can be determined through opening up the linguistic materials based on the situational constraints. House

divided the category of situational dimensions into two sections: dimensions of language user and dimensions of language use. For each part, she uses several subcategories. There are geographical origin, social class and time features for the dimensions of language user. Also she considers medium, participation, social role relationship, social attitude and province features for the dimensions of language use. A textual profile is obtained for the ST by using there situational dimensions, a textual profile for TT is Gotten. There profiles act like a norm against which the quality of the TT is to be measured and the function of ST and TT is matched. Any mismatch along the dimensions is an error. There dimensional errors are called covertly erroneous errors. There are also overtly erroneous errors which result from a mismatch of the denotative meaning of ST and TT elements or from a divergence from the target language system.

House focuses on three aspects of the meaning that are important for translation: a semantic, a pragmatic and a textual aspect. She believes that translation is recontextualization of a text in L1 by a semantically and pragmatically equivalent text in L2. House created a translation typology which she considered it is related more to the translators of the texts we are rendering but, it is essential to know that what kind of translation is suitable for the source text. According to house, there are two types of translation, overt translation and it is not the second original. The addresses of this translation text are not directly addressed. The ST is culture – bound. It is tied to the source language community and culture. It is ST – oriented. Readers know that they are reading a translation. House believes that equivalence has to be chosen at the level of language and text, register and genre. Text function can not be the same in TT and ST because the ST is tied to a special historical event in the source culture or because of the special condition that the ST has in the source culture. For having and adequate translation in overt translation, TT should take a second level function. In overt translation, source text may be divided into two types: overt historically linked STs as non – fictional texts which are related to particular historical facts. These texts focus on specific source receptors in specific occasion such as political discourse. Overt, timeless STs are the other type of

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source text in overt translation which are fictional texts going higher than a particular historical meaning. They are showing language user dimensions. There two types of STs need overt translation and second level function because the function of ST and TT can not be matched and the translator can not transfer the same function from ST and TT because of the purpose of the STs. In overt translation, the work of the translator is important and visible. It is the translator's duty to give target members access to the original text and its cultural impact on source culture members. The translator puts target culture members in a position to observe this text from outside. The second type of translation which proposes by house is covert translation. A covert translation is a translation which enjoys the status of and original ST in the target culture. In fact, covert translation is not ST or TT. It is created in its own right. A covert translation is a translation which is not tied to the source language community and culture. In this translation, Both ST and TT addressees are equally addressed. ST and TT have equivalent purposes. The same function of ST is transferred to TT. However, because these texts are not source – culture bound; in translation they need more attention to the cultural translation and evaluation problems. To remove such difficulties in the differences in the culture and evaluator's duty is to find out whether the application of such a filter is necessary and appropriate. The inappropriate use of a cultural filter leads to the production of a covert version; however, special audiences. This study tends to focus on the two specific House's translation typology, covert and overt translation. Then it applies these two types of translations on a short story and its translated text. In Persian and analyzes the data which are gathering through analyses to find out whether this translated works follows covert translation or overt translation.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

1. Rui Rothe – Neves (2002), in his article "Translation Quality Assessment for Research Purposes an Empirical Approach" stated the model of quality assessment by Houses (1987; 2000) as the most famous example in this field. In her book, a landmark in translation research, House introduces the concern towards a scientific treatment of quality in translation. She also revises empirical studies directed to the reception of the translated text by the target – culture render and brings to the field the very used and still very useful concept of communicative competence. The pragmatic background of her model opened a way to further studies that incorporated cultural aspects to the understanding of translation. But her model was directed towards translation as an L2 classroom exercise, and this puts a serious limit to it as a tool to investigate translations as an end.

2. Herdrun Gerzymisch – Arbogast (2001), in his article "Equivalence parameters and Evaluation" presented the new thoughts for a re – definition of the concept were formulated which no longer viewed" equivalence as an overall encompassing concept but as a concept relative to certain parameters which may vary by individual text which were introduced by House (1997)
3. Malcolm Williams (2001), in his article "The Application of Argumentation Theory to Translation Quality Assessments" presented the model of House (1997) which introduced a detailed non – quantitative, descriptive – explanatory approach to translation quality assessment. House dismisses the idea that translation quality assessment is by nature too subjective. House (1997) mentioned that "Unlike the scientifically based analysis, the evaluative judgment is ultimately not a scientific one, but rather a reflection of a social, political, ethical, moral or personal stance."
4. Jamal Al – Qlnai (2000), in his article "Translation Quality Assessment. Strategies, Parameters and Procedures" introduced objectivity instead of subjective impressionism in judging translation quality through study of House's model (1976). He mentioned as House (1981) describes it, "it seems unlikely that translation quality assessment can ever be objectified in the manner of natural science". He declared House's pragmatic - textual approach as a translation operates not with sentences but with utterances.
5. SARA VIOLA Rodrigues (1996), in her article "Translation Quality tested Juliane House's Analysis" model on ideational and interpersonal English source texts translated into Portuguese from a wide range of provinces. She quoted, "The advantage of knowing House's model then is that besides illuminating the translator's mental operation, it sheds more light on the problematic area of the situational dimensions of a text, pointing to the need for careful choice of lexical items adequate to the text's special topics or province.

III. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The overall purpose of this study is to find out what type of translation which were proposed by House (1997) would be followed in the Persian translated text of the short story by the translator. This study looks for the effects of this approach (overt and covert translation) on the translations of the stories. According, the study seeks answers to the following research questions:

IV. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. Which of these translations (convert and overt translation) is suitable for translating short stories?

2. How are the functions in the TTs of the short stories? Are they compatible to the STs functions or not?
3. What is the role of culture in choosing the appropriate approach for translating short stories?

V. HYPOTHESES

My hypothesis is that covert translation is appropriate for translating short stories.

VI. METHODOLOGY

a) Design

The present study concern qualitative aspect. It is going to be done through comparative ST – TT analysis of House's model which is leading to the assessment of the quality of translation. This analysis is through lexical, syntactic and textual means. It also refers to what information is being conveyed and what the relationship is between sender and receiver. The analysis of the translation and the source text make it possible to determine whether the text is translated covertly or overtly.

b) Material

This study tends to apply this model of House (covert and overt translation) on a short story named

-This translation is not exactly literal translation. It is not word by word translation. So, it is not tied to SL structure. For example, in the first sentence, "We" is not translated separately. Also, "Paupers" mean "very poor people". Here it is just translated "فقير" rather it is translated "آدمهای بسيار فقير". So the translator is not tied to the lexicons of SL. It is important for him to transfer the meaning and the function which it implies in ST into TT. In the next sentence "we have to learn", it is

In this part of the translation, translator doesn't clarify and define the meaning of the words. "Wall Street" may be is not familiar with TT readers. I think the translator thinks this place is known for the readers because of its fame. Rather it is better that he defines it more completely or use a footnote to mention his definition. In the next sentence he translated the "Great Depression" which is in capital as proper names. It shows that it is a common event for ST readers in their culture; however, it is translated word by word in TT without any extra definition. So it makes ambiguity for

The Grapes of Wrath by John Stein Beck which is translated by Mohammad Sadegh Shariati.

c) Procedures

This study is going to be carried out through applying Houses model on comparative ST – TT on the first paragraphs of the ten chapters of this short story. It tends to go over the text through lexical, syntactic and textual means. It also goes through function and cultural factors in the texts. It analyzes the texts and gathers the data word by word and sentence by sentence.

d) Data Analysis

After gathering the data, this paper tends to analyze the data to find out this translation of this short story is following covert or overt translation and what the translator's tendency is in choosing the adequate approach of the translation.

VII. APPLICATION

Paragraph 1, Introduction:

Uncle John said, "We've never been paupers before." "Maybe we have to learn," Tom said. "We never were forced off our land before."

عمو جان گفت: «قبلاً فقير نبوده ايم.»

تام گفت: «شاید ناچار شويم تجربه کنيم. قبلاً هرگز از سرزمين مان رانده نشديم.»

translated" "ناچار شويم تجربه کنيم". It is not word by word; however, just the meaning pragmatically is transferred. The translator pays attention to the TT readers. This translation is not for special audiences and special time or place. He wants a kind of translation has House's covert translation features so it is a covert translation.

In October 1929, Wall Street, the center of finance in the United States, crashed. This was the start of the Great Depression, which lasted through the 1930s.

در اکتبر 1929، وال استريت، مرکز مالی ایالات متحده سقوط کرد. این آغاز رکود بزرگ بود

که تا دهه 1930 به طول انجامید.

the TT readers therefore, in this translation the addresser's geographical and social provenance is not paid attention and as it is considered the divergence from the situational constraints lead to covertly erroneous errors.

Paragraph 1, Chapter 1:

The clouds appeared, but went away again. It seemed they did not even try to make rain. The surface of the earth had formed a dry hard layer.

ابر ها ظاهر شده ولی دوباره رفتند. ظاهراً دیگر نمی فواستند ببارند. در سطح زمین لایه خشک

ممکنی تشکیل شده بود.

This translation is not tied to ST completely. In this part of the texts, "they did not even try to make rain" is translated "دیگر نمی فواستند ببارند" it is not ST oriented and not translated literally. The meaning is transferred pragmatically. The function of ST and TT is compatible. In English, the tense is past perfect; however in Persian,

it is passive past perfect. So based on the translation, this one is covert translation.

Paragraph 1, Chapter 2:

All over the Southwestern states, the owners of the land came onto the land, or more often, someone came for them. All of the owners told their tenants the same thing. "You know the land's getting poorer".

در تمام ایالت‌های غربی، مالکان سرزمین‌ها آمدند، یا کسی جایشان آمد. همه مالکان به

اجاره داران یک چیز می گفتند « می دانید که زمین فقیرتر می شود.»

"کسی جایشان آمد". And in the last sentence "You know the land's getting poorer" is "می دانید زمین فقیرتر می شود" getting is not translated. So, based on the evidence, this translation is not tied to ST. the reader of the TT are paid attention. It is not exactly a translation. The function of ST and TT is compatible. Therefore, it is considered to have a covert translation.

Paragraph 1, Chapter 3:

Highway 66 was the main route for a people in flight from dust and empty land. All day the cars and trucks filled with families and everything they owned streamed along the road.

بزرگراه 66 مسیر اصلی شفصی بود که از فاک و سرزمین پوچ پرواز می کرد. در طول روز

ماشین‌ها و کامیون‌های انباشته از خانواده‌ها و وسایلسان در طول جاده جریان داشت.

According to the evidences, this translation is covert rather overt.

Paragraph 1, Chapter 4:

Joads and Wilsons slowly moved west along 66 as a team. That night they are only pieces of bread, cold and hard, left from breakfast.

خانواده‌های جود و ویلسون به صورت گروهی آراه به طرف جاده غرب در جاده 66 به راه

افتادند آن شب تنها تکه‌های نان، بیات مانده از صیمانه را خوردند.

tries to view ST through the glasses of a target culture member.

Paragraph 1, Chapter 5:

The cars of the migrant people came slowly out of the side roads onto the great cross – country highway. In the daylight, they hurried to the west, and as the dark caught them, they grouped near to shelter and water.

ماشین‌های مهاجرین آهسته از جاده‌های فرعی وارد تقاطع بزرگراه می شدند. در روشنایی

روز به سمت غرب می شتافتند و همینکه تاریکی فرا می رسید نزدیک پناهگاه و آب جمع می شدند

"migrant" so it doesn't need to be mentioned again. Or the word "caught them" in their culture and language is known for the ST readers.

This translation is completely shown that is not stick to the ST. it is a free translation. The meaning is and pragmatically transferred. However, it is not completely semantically transferred. "southwestern states" is translated "ایالت‌های غربی" in which south is not translated. In the next sentence "the owners of the land came onto the land" is just translated to "مالکان به سرزمین‌ها آمدند". Here land is rendered "سرزمین‌ها". A shift happened as the singular noun is translated plural. Because land here means an area of the ground not a country. – "more often" is missed here and not rendered. "Someone came for them" is not translated word by word as "کسی برای آنها آمد", rather it is rendered

This translation is not literal. TT is not tied to ST. However, they have equal concern for source and target language readers. In the first sentence "for a people" is rendered "شفصی". It is not its equivalence; however, it is created in its own right. ST and TT have equivalent purposes. The function of ST keeps equivalent in TT.

This translation is covertly rendered. The focus of the meaning in both ST and TT is kept equivalent; however, TT is not tied to the ST. the translator pays attention to the TT reader as the author of the original does to the ST readers. ST and TT have equivalent purpose. In English text, just by mentioning "west", it is considered the road toward the west part of the area. So it doesn't need for the ST readers to be mentioned. However, the translator through the skill and knowledge

These two texts are equivalent in function and meaning. Each text is compatible for its own readers. In English, it is mentioned "people" as in Persian, it is not rendered because through the Persian readers, they will identify that the meaning of people is hidden in the word

However, in the translated text, it is rendered “**فرا**” **می رسد**” that these two clauses are not equivalent in meaning but they have the same function in ST and TT and for each reader is familiar. So it is translated covertly as TT is not tied to ST.

ST and TT have the same function and purposes. The focus in the structure in ST and TT are the same. ST and TT have pragmatically equal concern for source and target language renders. The focus of the translator is toward TT renders. As he rendered “tenants” “**کشاورزان اجاره دار**”. He clarified this concept for

In fact, in this rendering, ST and TT syntactically and semantically are the same except in two points; first the word “wages” which are rendered “**دستمزد**” has intra – system shift. Wages are plural, however in its rendering, it is singular. And the word “stayed up” is rendered “**ثابت بود**”, they are not semantically equivalent;

The TT is not tied syntactically to the ST. there is a rank shift would happen; several verbs are translated as nouns. The translator goes through the entire paragraph in translating the paragraph not sentence by sentence. He tries to look at ST through the glasses of target readers. This translation is created in its own right. ST and TT functions are kept equivalent. The translator attempts to make the translation readable for the TT

At it is obvious, TT doesn't follow ST in rendering. It is not tied to ST. it is rendered in its own ways to be understandable for the TT readers. On the other side, the same concern is for the source addressees in the viewpoint of ST. Translator looks over the text through the view of TT readers. In the first sentence, the focus of the structure is changed. The place of theme and rheme is changed in English text and its translated text. An intra – system shift is happened. A plural noun is rendered singular in Persian. “Signs” is translated “**تابلوی**”. “People appeared” is missed in translation. So through the above explanation, it is considered that this translation is covert.

Paragraph 1, Chapter 6:

In Kansas and Arkansas, in Oklahoma and Texas and New Mexico, the tractors moved in and pushed the tenants out. Three hundred thousand in California and more come.

در کانزاس و آرکانزاس، در اکلاهاما و تگزاس و نیو مکزیکو، تراکتورها وارد شدند و کشاورزان

اجاره دار را بیرون کردند. سیصد هزار در کالفرنیا هستند و بیشتر می آیند.

the TT readers. In this way, it is considered that this rendering is covert.

Paragraph 1, Chapter 7:

The migrants would work for low wages. They would work for food. And this was good because wages went down and prices stayed up.

مهاجرین با دستمزد کم کار می کردند. برای غذا کار می کردند. و این خوب بود چون دستمزد

پایین می رفت و قیمت ها ثابت بود.

however, they have the same function and purpose. So it is considered that is rendered covertly.

Paragraph 1, Chapter 8:

The companies and banks that owned the large farms also owned the factories that canned the fruit. They paid the pickers low wages and made the price of fresh fruit go down.

شرکت ها و بانکهایی که مالک کزارع یزرگ و همپنین مالک کارخانجاتی بودند که میوه ها را

کمپوت می کردند، به میوه پینان دستمزد کم می دادند و سبب می شدند قیمت میوه خام پایین برود.

readers and dismisses the ambiguity for them. Therefore, this text is rendered covertly.

Paragraph 1, Chapter 9:

Cotton Pickers Wanted said the signs along the road. People appeared, ready to work. They picked the cotton and put it into large bags.

تابلوی کتر جاده می گفت پنبه پین می فوایم. مردم برای کار آماده بودند. آنها پنبه می

پیدند و در کیسه های بزرگ می گذاشتند.

VIII. DISCUSSION

Through the selected paragraphs which it was worked on, the results show that the translator is preferred not to tie to the source language, community and culture. Rather he enjoys the original ST in the target culture. He concentrates on the TT addresses to have readable, adequate and understandable translated text with fewer cultural difficulties and differences. However, through comparing ST and TT, it is recognize that ST and TT functions are kept equivalent. They have the same purposes. Therefore, this translated text tends to have covert translation than overt translation.

IX. CONCLUSION

The comparative ST and TT analysis in House's model is leading to the translation quality assessment. This analysis focuses on lexical, syntactic and textual means. It also focuses on the function of a text which she categorized into ideational and interpersonal function. The fundamental criterion of translation quality is equivalent. She posits that a translation text have a function equivalent to that of its source text. The function is recognized through linguistic materials in the set of situational constraints. Any divergence of these constraints lead the text to have covertly erroneous errors and any mismatches of the denotative meanings of ST and TT elements cause overtly erroneous errors. She proposes a typology for the translation, covert translation and overt translation. Covert translation is a translation which enjoys the status of an original source text in the target culture. Both ST and TT address their receivers directly. It is not tied to source language, culture and community. It is created in its own right. The function of ST is equivalent in TT; however, overt translation is overtly a translation not a second original. It is tied to the source language, culture and community. Original function of the ST doesn't match TT function, so in overt translation, a second level function is created. Choosing overt or covert translation is somehow subjective but on the other side it depends on the text also. If the text is for special purpose, overt translation is proposed. If not, it is based on the status of the text producer to choose whether it is covert or overt translation. In this study, it is shown that short stories are preferred to be cover translation to have the same function of ST for the TT receivers and ST is viewed through the glasses of a target culture member. This translation is more straightforward for the TT receivers and especially preferable for the short stories' translations.

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Class Size and School Climate as Correlates of Secondary School Students' Scholastic Achievement in Itesiwaju Local Government Area of Oyo State, Nigeria

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Abstract- Academic achievement of students especially at the secondary school level is not only a pointer to the effectiveness or otherwise of schools but a major determinant of the future of youths in particular and the nation in general. The medium through which the attainment of individuals and the nation's educational goals can be achieved is learning. Learning outcomes have become a phenomenon of interest to all and this account for the reason why scholars have been working hard to unravel factors that militate against good academic performance. The purpose of this study was to investigate the class size and school climate as correlates of secondary school students' scholastic achievement in Itesiwaju Local Government Area of Oyo State, Nigeria.

Descriptive research design was used in the study. Six hundred respondents were selected from selected secondary schools in Itesiwaju Local Government Area of Oyo State, Nigeria. The respondents were measured with relevant standardized scale (instruments) which include class size scale, school climate scale and student performance scale with strong reliability coefficient and the data obtained was analyzed using Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) statistical analysis of the Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS). Two research hypotheses were raised and answered in the study.

Keywords: *class size, school climate and students' scholastic achievement.*

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Class Size and School Climate as Correlates of Secondary School Students' Scholastic Achievement in Itesiwaju Local Government Area of Oyo State, Nigeria

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Abstract- Academic achievement of students especially at the secondary school level is not only a pointer to the effectiveness or otherwise of schools but a major determinant of the future of youths in particular and the nation in general. The medium through which the attainment of individuals and the nation's educational goals can be achieved is learning. Learning outcomes have become a phenomenon of interest to all and this account for the reason why scholars have been working hard to unravel factors that militate against good academic performance. The purpose of this study was to investigate the class size and school climate as correlates of secondary school students' scholastic achievement in Itesiwaju Local Government Area of Oyo State, Nigeria.

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The result showed that there was significant relationship between the class size and secondary school students' scholastic achievement ($r = .883$; $P < 0.05$) and there was significant relationship between the school climate and secondary school students' scholastic achievement ($r = .755$; $P < 0.05$).

On the strength of these findings, it was stressed and advocated the need for the public and private schools to develop moderate and appropriate class size for the student in the school and that they should make the school climate and environment conducive for the students' scholastic achievement and overall development in the school. This will help in reducing the level of poor students' scholastic achievement and drop out in the school.

Keywords: class size, school climate and students' scholastic achievement.

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I. INTRODUCTION

Academic achievement of students especially at the secondary school level is not only a pointer to the effectiveness or otherwise of schools but a major determinant of the future of youths in particular and the nation in general. The medium through which the attainment of individuals and the nation's educational goals can be achieved is learning. Learning outcomes have become a phenomenon of interest to all and this account for the reason why scholars have been working hard to unravel factors that militate against good academic performance (Aremu & Sokan, 2002). This phenomenon has been variedly referred to in literature as academic achievement, or scholastic functioning. Academic achievement of learners has attracted attention of scholars, parents, policy-makers and planners.

Adeyemo (2001) opined that the major goal of the school is to work towards attainment of academic excellence by students. According to him, the school may have other peripheral objectives; emphasis is always placed on the achievement of sound scholarship. Besides, virtually everybody concerned with education places premium on academic achievement; excellent academic achievement of children is often the expectation of parents (Osiki, 2001). At the outset of an activity, students differ in learning as a function of their prior experiences, personal qualities and social supports. The latter includes the extent that parents and teachers encourage them to learn, facilitate their access to resources necessary for learning, and teach them strategies that enhance skill acquisition and refinement. Parent's academic aspirations for their children influence their children's academic achievements both directly and indirectly (Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara, and Pastorelli, 2001).

Class size is an important factor with respect to academic performance of students. There is a consensus among researchers and educational scholars that, student's achievement decreases as class size increases. The effect of class-size on cognitive achievement has been debated and researched for

many years, this has been inconclusive. Class size refers to educational tools that can be used to describe the average number of students per class in a school. In emphasizing the importance of class-size to the learning teaching process, ALL Nigerian Conference of Principals of Secondary Schools (ANCOPSS) recommended a maximum of forty students per class for efficient and effective teaching.

Adeyemi (2008) in his findings on the influence of class size on the quality of output in secondary schools revealed that schools having an average class-size of 35 and below obtained better results in the secondary school certificate examination (SSCE) than schools having more than 35 students per class. Oguntoye (2011) in his own study found that class-size had negative coefficient with student's academic performance in examination. Earthman (2002) revealed that comfortable classroom temperature and smaller classes enhance teachers' effectiveness and provide opportunities for students to receive individual attention, ask more questions, participate fully in discussion, reduce discipline problems and perform better than students in schools with larger classes. Fafunwa (2010) postulated that there is a gap in the quality of students in crowded classrooms, using inadequate and absolute equipment, disillusioned teachers. These combined deficiencies perhaps affected the student's academic performance. Adeyela (2000) found in her study that large class size is not conducive for serious academic work. Similarly, Egede (2005) pointed out that an alarming class-size of 100 or more students in the secondary schools leave the teacher overworked and therefore unable to exercise patience and positive attitude. They are also reluctant to offer extra time to build and help the intellectually ill students. Ojoawo (2008) in one of his major findings revealed that the class size was found to be negatively related to school academic performance.

Coleman (2002) pointed out that for enthusiastic teachers, "If classes are very large, it is important that as far as possible, the learners should be constantly busy and the tasks should function continuously without repeated intervention from the teacher". Broozer and Rouse (2001) considered finance, class size, teacher quality, length of school year and technology as factors that can improve student's academic outcomes. They suggested that money is crucial when it comes to public schools matters and that small class size yield better achievement. Yara (2010) in his study on class size and academic achievement of student found out that the performance of students in large classes was very low (23%) compared to those students in smaller classes (64%).

In many cases, the quality of the learning environment was strongly correlated with pupils' achievement in mathematics (Carron & Chau, 2006). Two aspects of school climate which are commitment to

school and positive feedback from teachers have been shown to affect students' learning gain in Mathematics (Hoge, Asimeng, Boahene, 2000). The social emotional Aclimate of schools is predictive of mother's reports of their school age children alcohol use and psychiatric problems (Kasen, Johnson & Cohen, 2000).

Furthermore, researchers have found that positive school climate are protective factors for boys and may supply high-risk students with a supportive learning environment, yielding healthy development, as well as preventing antisocial behavior (Haynes, 2000; Kuperminc et al., 2001). School climate research suggests that positive interpersonal relationships and optimal learning opportunities for students in all demographic environments can increase achievement levels and reduce maladaptive behavior (McEvoy & Welker, 2000). Regarding the roles of teachers and administrators, Taylor and Tashakkori (2006) found that a positive school climate is associated with increased job satisfaction for school personnel. Finally, student perspectives are important during the transition from one school level to another. Attending a new school can be frightening for students and this apprehension can adversely affect students' perceptions of their school's climate and learning outcomes. Therefore, research has shown that providing a positive and supportive school climate for students is important for a smooth and easy transition to a new school (Freiberg, 2000).

Previous school climate research supports the conclusion that many factors comprise this complex concept. Furthermore, school climate can play a significant role in providing a healthy and positive school atmosphere. Freiberg (2000) note that the interaction of various school and classroom climate factors can create a fabric of support that enables all members of the school community to teach and learn at optimum levels. It has been found that a positive school climate can yield positive educational and psychological outcomes for students and school personnel. Similarly, a negative climate can prevent optimal learning and development (Freiberg, 2000; Kuperminc et al., 2001; Kuperminc, Leadbeater & Blatt, 2001; Manning & Saddlemire, 2004). Manning and Saddlemire (2004) conclude aspects of school climate, including trust, respect, mutual obligation, and concern for other's welfare can have powerful effects on educators' and learners' interpersonal relationships as well as learners' academic achievement and overall school progress. What children learn about themselves in school through interactions is equally important as the academic knowledge they receive. School climate, if positive, can provide an enriching environment, both for personal growth and academic success.

Research has also revealed a relationship between school climate and student self-concept (Rutter, Felner, Seitsinger, Burns & Bolton 2009). And, a series of studies have shown a relationship between

school climate and student absenteeism (Rumberger, 2007; Sommmmer, 2005) as well as being predictive of rate of student suspension (Crain & Moles, 2002). A growing body of research indicates that positive school climate is a critical dimension linked to effective risk prevention and health promotion efforts as well as teaching and learning (Cohen, 2001; Najaka, et. Al., 2002; Rand Corporation, 2004; Wang, et. al., 2003). Recent research reviews have shown that effective risk prevention and health promotion efforts are correlated with safe, caring, participatory and responsive school climate (Berkowitz & Bier, 2005; Catalano, et. al. 2002; Greenberg, et. al. 2003).

In order to fill the gaps in the literature presented above, the present study concentrates on class size and school climate as correlates of secondary school students' scholastic achievement in Itesiwaju Local Government Area of Oyo State, Nigeria.

a) *Statement of the Problem*

As noted by some researchers, academic achievement difficulties of students have been a recurring concern for secondary school education worldwide for various reasons, including the assumption that an improvement in achievement implies a higher graduation rate and the financial implications of students' scholastic achievement (that is, the academic dismissal of students due to poor scholastic achievement) can have negative effect on the budget of education. In particular, poor scholastic achievement can influence the reputation of a school because academic success is associated with the quality of the school. The alarming rate of failure in our secondary schools is highly embarrassing.

In view of the points above, the study focuses on class size and school climate as correlates of secondary school students' scholastic achievement in Itesiwaju Local Government Area of Oyo State, Nigeria.

b) *Purpose of the Study*

The main purpose of this study is to investigate class size and school climate as correlates of secondary school students' scholastic achievement in Itesiwaju Local Government Area of Oyo State, Nigeria. Specifically, other purposes of the study include to;

1. Examine the relationship between class size and secondary school students' scholastic achievement.
2. Examine the relationship between school climate and secondary school students' scholastic achievement.

c) *Research Hypotheses*

1. There will be no relationship between class size and secondary school students' scholastic achievement.

2. There will be no relationship between school climate and secondary school students' scholastic achievement.

d) *Significance of study*

This study will be highly important to the government at all level, the parents, educational planners, decision and policy makers as well as other stakeholder in education.

However, this study will help the public and private schools to know and ascertain the influence of class size on the students' scholastic achievement, thereby making the stakeholders to develop appropriate strategies in solving the classroom overcrowding in the school and as well enhance the students' scholastic achievement.

The study will provide an insight understanding for the public and private schools to know the effect of school climate on the students' scholastic achievement, thereby making the school stakeholders to develop appropriate ways of improving the school environment for the students in the schools.

Through this study, the students as well as the teachers will be able to know the effect of class size and school climate on the students' scholastic achievement.

The class size and school climate as correlates of students' scholastic achievement will enable the government and the general public to be aware of the effects of these factors and work towards better improvement.

It is important to note that findings in this study will also serve as a source of reference for other researchers who may want to conduct the same or similar study in other subjects or part of the country.

II. METHODOLOGY

a) *Research Design*

The research design used in this study was descriptive study. It is going to ascertain the effects of the independent variables (class size and school climate) on the dependent variable (students' scholastic achievement) without manipulations. However, it is carefully observed and recorded information as it naturally occurred at the time the study was conducted.

b) *Population*

The population for the study comprises of all secondary school students in Itesiwaju Local Government Area of Oyo State, Nigeria.

c) *Sample and Sampling Techniques*

The sample for this study comprises 600 participants which were randomly selected from secondary school students Itesiwaju Local Government Area of Oyo State, Nigeria. Fifteen (15) secondary schools were selected from the Local Government through stratified random sampling techniques. Forty (40) secondary school students were selected from

fifteen (15) selected schools through stratified random techniques balloting. On the whole, six hundred secondary school students were selected.

d) *Instrumentations*

The school climate scales constructed by Sukkyung, Meagan and Michael (2008) was adopted to be used as a measure of school climate questionnaire. It is a twenty items scale with responses anchored base on the four likert points. The estimate of internal consistency of the instrument was 0.81.

The Class size scale constructed by Ogunwuyi (2011) was adopted to be used as a measure of school climate questionnaire. It is a twenty items scale with responses anchored base on the four likert points. The estimate of internal consistency of the instrument was 0.78.

A self constructed scale was used to measure the students' scholastic achievement. The scale was developed questions in English Language, Mathematics and Basic (General) Science. Also, writing of test items was followed by face and content validation. The face and content validation reduced the items from sixty eight to thirty, while item analysis reduced the test items from thirty to twenty five. The twenty five surviving items were administered on thirty students. Kuder-Richardson formula (KR) was applied to the scores in order to measure the internal consistency. The internal consistency coefficient was 0.79; and also a test-retest method was used on the students, with an interval of three weeks, which yielded scores that were paired and analyzed to obtain 0.82 as test-retest reliability coefficient for the test. Again, these were considered high enough to accept the test as a reliable research instrument.

e) *Validity of Instrument*

For content and face validity of the instruments that was designed for the study, the researcher gave the instruments to experts in the field of educational

psychology and experts in the area of Research and Statistics. After all these people had given their suggestions and made necessary correction on the instrument, the researcher then subjected it to the colleague who made the final corrections.

f) *Reliability of Instrument*

After content and face validity of the instruments, twenty (20) copies of the instruments was administered in order to re-establish the psychometric property of the instrument. The cronbach alpha technique was then used to test their reliability to ensure that they are consistent in measuring what they were designed to measure. The results from the analysis carried out yielded the following on each Variable:

1. Class Size Scale: 0.78
2. School Climate Scale: 0.80
3. Scholastic Achievement Scale: 0.76

g) *Procedure for Data Collection*

The instruments were administered to the participants on the day approved by the school authorities for the exercise. The researcher was assisted by trained research assistants in the administration and collection of the instruments. In each of selected school, the administration and collection of instruments were done on the same day of administration. The instrument was administered on the participants in their various schools by the researcher with the support of the trained research assistants in the schools.

h) *Data Analysis*

The Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) statistical analysis was used to analyse the data.

III. RESULTS

Research hypothesis one: There will be no significant relationship between the class size and secondary school students' scholastic achievement

Table 1 : The Summary Table Showing the Relationship between the Class Size and Secondary School Students' Scholastic Achievement

Variable	N	Mean	SD	R	Sig	P
Class size	300	37.15	29.38	.883	.000	Significant P<0.05
Students' Scholastic Achievement	300	67.11	47.93			

The table 1 above showed that there was significant relationship between the class size and secondary school students' scholastic achievement (r=.883; P<0.05). This means that class size influence the level secondary school students' scholastic achievement.

Research hypothesis two: There will be no significant relationship between the school climate and secondary school students' academic performance

Table 2 : The Summary Table Showing the Relationship between the School Climate Secondary School Students' Scholastic achievement

Variable	N	Mean	SD	R	Sig	P
School Climate	300	15.26	16.83	.755	.000	Significant P<0.05
Students' Scholastic Achievement	300	67.11	47.93			

The table 2 above showed that there was significant relationship between the school climate and secondary school students' scholastic achievement ($r=.755$; $P<0.05$). This means that school climate influence the level of secondary school students' scholastic achievement.

IV. DISCUSSION

The result of the first research hypothesis revealed that there was significant relationship between class size and secondary school students' scholastic achievement ($r= .883$; $P<0.05$). This means that class size influence the level of secondary school students' scholastic achievement. This is in line with the studies of Adeyemi (2008) in his findings on the influence of class size on the quality of output in secondary schools revealed that schools having an average class- size of 35 and below obtained better results in the secondary school certificate examination (SSCE) than schools having more than 35 students per class. Oguntoye (2011) in his own study found that class-size had negative coefficient with student's academic performance in examination. Earthman (2002) revealed that comfortable classroom temperature and smaller classes enhance teachers' effectiveness and provide opportunities for students to receive individual attention, ask more questions, participate fully in discussion, reduce discipline problems and perform better than students in schools with larger classes. Fafunwa (2010) postulated that there is a gap in the quality of students in crowded classrooms, using inadequate and absolute equipment, disillusioned teachers. These combined deficiencies perhaps affected the student's academic performance. Adeyela (2000) found in her study that large class size is not conducive for serious academic work. Similarly, Egede (2005) pointed out that an alarming class- size of 100 or more students in the secondary schools leave the teacher overworked and therefore unable to exercise patience and positive attitude. They are also reluctant to offer extra time to build and help the intellectually ill students. Ojoawo (2008) in one of his major findings revealed that the class size was found to be negatively related to school academic performance.

The result of the second research hypothesis revealed that there was significant relationship between school climate and secondary school students' scholastic achievement ($r= .871$; $P<0.05$). This means that school climate influence the level of secondary school students' scholastic achievement. This is in line with the studies of Taylor and Tashakkori (2006) found that a positive school climate is associated with increased job satisfaction for school personnel. Finally, student perspectives are important during the transition from one school level to another. Attending a new school can be frightening for students and this

apprehension can adversely affect students' perceptions of their school's climate and learning outcomes. Therefore, research has shown that providing a positive and supportive school climate for students is important for a smooth and easy transition to a new school (Freiberg, 2000). Previous school climate research supports the conclusion that many factors comprise this complex concept. Furthermore, school climate can play a significant role in providing a healthy and positive school atmosphere. Freiberg (2000) note that the interaction of various school and classroom climate factors can create a fabric of support that enables all members of the school community to teach and learn at optimum levels. It has been found that a positive school climate can yield positive educational and psychological outcomes for students and school personnel. Similarly, a negative climate can prevent optimal learning and development (Freiberg, 2000; Kuperminc et al., 2001; Kuperminc, Leadbeater & Blatt, 2001; Manning & Saddlemire, 2004). Research has also revealed a relationship between school climate and student self-concept (Rutter, Felner, Seitsinger, Burns & Bolton 2009). And, a series of studies have shown a relationship between school climate and student absenteeism (Rumberger, 2007; Sommmmer, 2005) as well as being predictive of rate of student suspension (Crain & Moles, 2002). A growing body of research indicates that positive school climate is a critical dimension linked to effective risk prevention and health promotion efforts as well as teaching and learning (Cohen, 2001; Najaka, et. Al., 2002; Rand Corporation, 2004; Wang, et. al., 2003). Recent research reviews have shown that effective risk prevention and health promotion efforts are correlated with safe, caring, participatory and responsive school climate (Berkowitz & Bier, 2005; Catalano, et. al. 2002; Greenberg, et. al. 2003).

V. CONCLUSION

Base on the findings of this study, persistent poor scholastic achievement of Nigerian secondary school students due to class size and school climate should not continue indefinitely. There is hope that with the improvement of class size and school climate, the situation can be changed for the better. The study discovered that class size and school climate influence significantly the secondary school students' scholastic achievement in the society. As such, it is very crucial to improve these factors (class size and school climate) so as to eradicate the persistent occurrence of poor secondary school students' scholastic achievement in this great country, Nigeria.

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Policy Implementation in Pre-Primary Education in Nigeria

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Abstract- Pre-primary education is considered by many societies and individuals to be beneficial to young children for their educational development from school-entry age. This type of education was given official recognition by the Federal Government of Nigeria in the National Policy on Education. In the policy document, provision is made for a policy on preprimary education stating its objectives and the measures to be taken by government to facilitate the achievement of the policy objectives. It also allowed for private participation in the provision of pre-primary education. This paper examines the implementation of the policy pointing out its shortcomings and some attendant problems, and the way forward.

Keywords: *pre-primary, education, policy implementation and educational development.*

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Policy Implementation in Pre-Primary Education in Nigeria

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Abstract- Pre-primary education is considered by many societies and individuals to be beneficial to young children for their educational development from school-entry age. This type of education was given official recognition by the Federal Government of Nigeria in the National Policy on Education. In the policy document, provision is made for a policy on pre-primary education stating its objectives and the measures to be taken by government to facilitate the achievement of the policy objectives. It also allowed for private participation in the provision of pre-primary education. This paper examines the implementation of the policy pointing out its shortcomings and some attendant problems, and the way forward.

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I. INTRODUCTION

Modern societies show serious concern for the education of their young ones for obvious reasons. It is common practice in most societies to make provision for pre-primary education programmes of various sorts for children below the official school-going age (usually three to five years) mainly to prepare them for education in primary schools.

It should be noted that not all are agreed on the need for or effectiveness of such pre-primary education programmes for subsequent educational development of children. Some early writers on this issue hold the view that young children are not mature enough to learn complex skills demanded by pre-school educational programmes and that the warmth of mother love and the fostering of children's emotional security are more important than any form of educational programme (Robinson & Robinson, 2000). Some contend that pre-primary years should be utilized in firmly grounding the child in his/her sub-culture and that exposing him/her to pre-school programmes which emphasize intellectual skills would impose middle class values on the child and destroy the positive aspects of his/her sub-culture. Furthermore, some leading scholars in pre-primary education have doubted the wisdom in exposing young children very early to formal education, expressing the fear that the short-term academic gains would be offset by the long-term stifling of their motivation and self-initiated learning. In the same vein, (Akinkuotu & Oyeyemi, 2011) cautioned that early academic gains in reading skills associated with formal instruction of

preschoolers could have long-term negative effects on achievement.

Robinson and Robinson (2000) have argued, that beginning early to educate children should not pose any dangers, as it is difficult to see how pleasant experiences, stimulating within reasonable limits, and logically sequenced, can be harmful to mental health or to cognitive development. Moreover, some research evidences indicate that early childhood education have positive influences in children's affective, conceptual and social development in subsequent years.

II. PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION IN NIGERIA

Pre-primary education in the form of nursery school or early childhood education as we know it today in Nigeria is largely a post-colonial development. The semblances of it during the colonial era were the kindergarten and infant classes, which consisted of groups of children considered not yet ready for primary education. As grouping for instruction in schools was not age-based during that period, some children aged six or even more, could be found in some of the infant classes. With the phasing out of infant classes, some parents began to feel the need for nursery schools. The demand for nursery education was, however, very low until recent times (Okoro, 2004).

The idea of pre-primary education was strongly influenced by the stream of thought from Adesina (1977) believed that one major shortcoming of the Third National Development Plan was that it was disturbingly silent on the whole question of pre-school education. The silence became inexplicable in the face of the mounting number of nursery and pre-primary institutions which abounds in the urban areas of the country. The conspicuous omission of policy statements relating to pre-school education according to him, was attributed to the inadequate understanding of the whole concept of pre-school education by the government. Presently, there are so many ill-equipped, sub-standard kindergarten and nursery institutions scattered all over the urban centers and some in the rural centres of Nigeria. Standards or quality is an anathema to most of these pre-primary institutions. Is there inspectorate unit in any of the Ministries of Education in the country solely charged to determine which and which schools are not built on standards, not to talk about the over commercialization of most of them? Most nursery schools even charge higher fees than what many model

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secondary schools and even Federal universities do charge. The extra-ordinarily prohibitive high cost has not been reciprocally matched by an encouraging provision of facilities and basic equipment.

The pre-primary education is the ultimate foundation stone needed by the child to smoothly transit to the formal school system at the primary level. Any shaky foundation here naturally will affect other levels. Ironically, the policy statements on this level of education are a failed one.

In the National Policy on Education (2004) "Policy", the Government committed herself extensively as to the measures she will take to achieve the stated objectives for pre-primary education. Regrettably, however, six years after the last revision (2004) have been made, most of the measures and proposals are still mere paper formalities. While the government proposed assisting private efforts in the establishment of these institutions, what obtains now is a far cry from all expectations. As "the spirit directs" these private individuals, they open these institutions without adequate planning. What we have on the ground are more of "pigry", the aftermath being a systematic mal-adjustment of our young ones. Where even standard ones exist, they are relatively few and concentrated within the urban centres and later become elitist.

The government in the "Policy" further made more undertaken in the area of making provisions in the Teachers Training Colleges for students who want to specialize in pre primary education. In spite of this, it is a known fact that some of these institutions including the Universities, have little or no provisions for this aspect of our educational system. This set-up has led to the drafting of graduates of Colleges of Education who were originally prepared for the secondary schools system to nursery schools. This situation could be better with some institutes of education/departments of our universities bracing up with this challenge.

The "Policy" further states that the medium of instruction should be the mother tongue (MT) or the language of the immediate community (LIC) while orthography and textbooks of Nigerian languages will be produced to aid this. Ironically, however, in most of our existing pre-primary institutions, the medium of instruction is the English language. The centrality of language to the teaching-learning process, the importance of Nigerian languages to the protection, preservation, promotion of Nigerian culture, and inter-ethnic cohesion, the enhancement of human dignity, the necessity of learning a major language for purposes of promoting national unity and integration have constitutional backing in the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria and even justification in the NPE (Emenanjo, 2001). The use therefore of English Language to the neglect of the mother tongue as medium of instruction alienates the child from his culture which the "Policy" is meant to protect. Evidence has

shown that a child learns better and develops faster intellectually, psychologically and cognitively if he is taught with the mother-tongue continuously over a period of time. Ironically, this is not the case presently because most parents want their children to be taught in English language at this level and even measure the standard of education these schools give to their children's ability to speak English language (Alani, 1994).

The failed language policy of the NPE is not just the pre-primary education but also primary and post-primary levels of education and has brought about many criticisms from many language experts. Some of the problematic question posed include: Do not the statements on language constitute just a statement of intent rather than a serious programme for implementation?; if the mother-tongue (MT) or the language of the immediate community (LIC) is considered so important at the pre-primary level as an integral part of the child's culture and the link between the home and the school, why should it be "principally" and not "solely" used at this level?; if the MT or the LIC is considered a very important medium for achieving initial, functional, and permanent empowerment, literacy, and numeracy, why should it be only used "initially" and not throughout the whole of primary education? So many questions but few answers.

III. THE NATIONAL POLICY ON PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION

In the current *National Policy on Education* (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1998) early childhood education is labelled as pre-primary education and is defined as the education given in an educational institution to children aged three to five plus before their entering the primary school. As stated in the policy document, the purpose of pre-primary education includes, among others:

- i. Providing a smooth transition from the home to the school;
- ii. Preparing the child for the primary level of education;
- iii. Providing adequate care and supervision for the children while their parents are at work;
- iv. Inculcating in the child the spirit of enquiry and creativity through the exploration of nature, and the local environment, playing with toys and musical activities, etc.
- v. Teaching the rudiments of numbers, letters, colours, shapes forms, etc. through play, and
- vi. Inculcating social norms.

The document lists a number of measures to be taken by government to ensure the achievement of the objectives of pre-primary education. They include:

- i. Encouraging private efforts in the provision of pre-primary education;
- ii. Making provision in Teacher Training institutions for production of specialist teachers in pre-primary education;
- iii. Ensuring that the medium of instruction will be principally the mother-tongue or the language of the local community;
- iv. Ensuring that the main method of teaching in pre-primary institutions will be through play;
- v. Regulating and controlling the operation of pre-primary education, ensuring adequate training of staff and provision of essential equipment.

In addition to these measures, appropriate levels of Government (State and Local) are required to establish and enforce educational laws that will ensure that established pre-primary schools are well-run, pre-primary teachers well qualified, and other appropriate academic infrastructure provided. Ministries of education are expected to ensure maintenance of high standards.

IV. POLICY IMPLEMENTATION

The official recognition given to pre-primary education in the *National Policy on Education* (Federal Government of Nigeria, 1977) combined with a number of factors to give rise to an expansion in the provision of child care and pre-primary education institution or nursery schools in the country. Nearly all the pre-primary education in the country, however is provided by private proprietors. Some of these establishments go by the names 'day care centres' or 'playgroups' and take care of the children while their parents are at work or go for other engagements but most of them are nursery schools for providing pre-primary education. In some instances a group of parents hire and pay a teacher to take care of their pre-school age children and teach them rudiments of numbers and alphabets. This practice which has almost faded away was mainly for reasons of economy in the early eighties and for the fear by some parents that their children would contract some diseases in the day care centres and nursery schools many of which were sub-standard. Variations in provision make the registration of these institutions somehow difficult for Ministry of Education officials.

Very few of the establishments operate as child-care or child-minding units only; others operate as both child-care units and nursery schools. Most of them accept children aged two into their nursery sections who later transit to the primary sections of the later transit to the primary sections of the same establishments at the age of five or even less.

However, owing to the high demand for pre-primary education by parents, it does not take a long time for newly established pre-primary institutions to grow and develop.

Nowadays nursery schools are located in various places and buildings – campuses of some universities and colleges, premises of some industrial and business organizations, church premises, residential buildings some part or the whole of which are hired for use as nursery schools only or both nursery and primary schools, and so on, while some are set up mainly in some towns as full nursery and primary schools with their own building and premises. The physical structures vary widely in terms of quality and fields from one establishment to another.

With the possible exception of the few nursery schools established by some universities, colleges of education, companies and a few rich individuals, teacher quality is generally low. It is only a few of the nursery schools especially those owned by educational institutions, private companies and wealthy individuals that can afford to engage the services of university graduate teachers and the holders of Nigerian Certificate of Education (NCE) qualifications. Most others employ a few N.C.E. teachers (if any at all), who are usually underpaid, while others employ mainly Grade Two teachers and secondary school leavers with the School Certificate or General Certificate (Ordinary Level) qualification. The nursery schools that engage the services of qualified teachers, especially those owned by private individuals usually charge high fees while those that charge relatively low fees usually employ unqualified teachers. Employing unqualified teachers who receive low pay is a strategy used by many proprietors to make their services affordable to a great majority of parents and at the same time maintain a satisfactory profit margin.

Although the *National Policy on Education* prescribes that the child in the pre-primary institution should be involved in active learning, the document detailing guidelines on provision and management of pre-primary education is silent on the curriculum contents of such an institution (Federal Ministry of Education, 1987). In the absence of such guidelines and copies of the curriculum for pre-primary education, proprietors and teachers resort to curricular of their choice.

The curriculum of a typical nursery school owned by most private individuals includes alphabets, numbers, colouring and story time and, in some cases, rudiments of reading, writing and arithmetic. This emphasis a mostly is on the intellectual development of the children. Much more time is devoted to the learning of alphabets and memorization of facts, information, poems and some short passages from various books in English language than to recreational and social activities. Emphasis is laid on children's intellectual development. This is because the yardstick for assessing the quality or effectiveness of nursery schools by parents seems to be the age at which the children attending them are able to count, recognize the

alphabet, read and, in particular, recite memorized information, poems, verses and passages. The younger the age at which children attending a particular school can do these, the higher the quality of the school is adjudged to be by members of the public, and the more patronage it is likely to receive from parents if the fees charged are not excessive. In the attempt to show how effective their nursery schools are, the proprietors of some combined nursery and primary schools admit children at the age of two and allow them to transit to the primary section of such schools at the age of five or even four, both of which are below the official school-going age. This transition to primary education below the official entry age often receives a nod from those parents who wish to show how fast their children can progress through the educational system, and how intelligent they are.

V. SUGGESTIONS ON THE WAY FORWARD

If pre-school age children in the country are to benefit from the lofty objectives of pre-primary education policy, there is the need for the Federal, State and Local Governments to ensure that relevant facilities are available in both rural and urban areas. The above-mentioned initiative on early childcare undertaken by the UNICEF holds good promise for narrowing the gap in pre-primary education provision between rural and urban areas if vigorously pursued. Various local governments in the country should come to the aid of rural areas as far as the provision of pre-primary education facilities is concerned. Matching grants or any other type of grants could be given to communities to set up such institutions if the government cannot set them up for them unaided (Mexicobi 2006) such communities can then run them at reduced costs to parents. A more even spatial distribution of pre-primary school facilities can be effected by devolving responsibility for that level of education on local governments.

Whether or not local governments are given such roles, there is still the need for Federal or State governments to set up and run few model pre-primary education institutions to serve as a guide to proprietors who are interested in establishing theirs (Aminu, 1990).

There is the need for state ministry education officials to enforce the regulations laid down by the Federal Ministry of Education in regard to the provision of pre-primary education. Effective quality monitoring units should be set up by state Ministries of Education and provided with necessary logistic support to ensure that minimum standards are maintained in both public and private pre-primary institutions. Preschool educational institutions that do not meet the minimum standards specified by any state's Ministry of Education should be closed down, to be reopened only when the provider complies with the laid down standards. The

Federal Government should take positive steps to that programmes for producing teachers who specialize in early childhood education do not only exist in some of the nation's teacher education institutions but are entered into by teacher education candidates. This can be achieved by offering various incentives to such teacher education candidates. In addition, each state of the federation should add on nursery sections in some of their primary schools where the products of such programmes can find employment.

VI. SUMMARY

Available evidence suggests that pre-primary education has a positive influence on educational development of children in later life and some writers on pre-primary education have asserted that investing in it can yield high returns (Barnett, 2006; Rolnick & Grunewald, 2003), common sense dictates, however, that it is not any type of educational experience offered anywhere by any type of teacher that can have such an effect on children. The objectives of pre-primary education in the country can only be achieved if the policy is consistently and effectively implemented. For this to happen, government, especially at the local level, should show more interest in pre-primary education by providing some of the facilities and funds and must make sure that all those measures stated in the policy document aimed at facilitating the achievement of the objectives are put in place. More effective control should be exercised over the establishment of nursery schools. Approvals should be given to building plans of nursery schools before construction work starts in order to standardize some of the infrastructural facilities. These facilities should be inspected and declared adequate before the admission of the first batch of children. Effective measures should be taken to ensure that such facilities are available to children in rural areas. Very importantly, the facilities and activities in these schools should be closely monitored and regularly inspected to enhance the quality of their educational programmes.

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Classroom Interaction: Tension between Belief and Practice, A Case Study of a University Teacher

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Introduction- Teaching is mainly an outcome of a teacher's perception. Whatever teachers do in their classrooms is an outcome of their educational beliefs, whether they are aware of their teaching philosophy or not. Teacher's belief about how better a foreign language can be learned plays a significant role in deciding how they will conduct their classes. English teachers have their beliefs and perceptions about various classroom activities and accordingly they execute these beliefs and knowledge in their classroom practices. But, does it always happen? Very often it is found that their classroom practices bear the poorest samples of their beliefs. This case study investigates a university teacher's beliefs about classroom interaction and her real classroom practices. A questionnaire will be used to elicit the teacher's belief about interaction. Observation of her classes in the light of interactive activities will be done. An attempt will be made to see if there is any mismatch between belief and practice. Does belief change over time through training? Is there anything that resists change?

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Classroom Interaction: Tension between Belief and Practice, A Case study of a University Teacher

Md. Khaled Bin Chowdhury ^α & Md. Abdur Rashid ^ο

I. INTRODUCTION

Teaching is mainly an outcome of a teacher's perception. Whatever teachers do in their classrooms is an outcome of their educational beliefs, whether they are aware of their teaching philosophy or not. Teacher's belief about how better a foreign language can be learned plays a significant role in deciding how they will conduct their classes. English teachers have their beliefs and perceptions about various classroom activities and accordingly they execute these beliefs and knowledge in their classroom practices. But, does it always happen? Very often it is found that their classroom practices bear the poorest samples of their beliefs. This case study investigates a university teacher's beliefs about classroom interaction and her real classroom practices. A questionnaire will be used to elicit the teacher's belief about interaction. Observation of her classes in the light of interactive activities will be done. An attempt will be made to see if there is any mismatch between belief and practice. Does belief change over time through training? Is there anything that resists change?

a) Teachers' Beliefs

Beliefs consist of opinion, knowledge, perceptions and a lot of other constructs. Beliefs are understood, in research literature, in terms of concepts such as, values, preconceptions, theories and images (Woods, 1996; Pajares, 1992). Knowledge is closely linked with belief. Kagan (1992) argues that much of a teacher's professional knowledge can be more accurately regarded as belief. Richards & Lockhart (1994) too maintain that beliefs are built up gradually over time. They argue that beliefs consist of both subjective and objective dimensions, and serve as the background to much of the teachers' decision making and classroom actions.

There is a distinction between knowledge and belief. While knowledge can be equated with facts that are given and shared, beliefs may be contestable. They are very much personalized too. Nespor (1987) maintains that while the two often conflict with each

other, beliefs can be considered to be a form of knowledge. Comparing beliefs with knowledge, Nespor claims that while knowledge is conscious and often changes, beliefs may be unconsciously held, are often tacit and resistant to change.

All beliefs are not fixed. Many beliefs can be changed through constructive enlightening and knowledge. When teachers are open to persuasion and positive thinking, training and sound knowledge can positively change beliefs and consequently bring about change in teaching practice.

On the other hand, some beliefs are fixed. Beliefs with different degrees of strength can be inflexible, and inconsistent (Nespor, 1987). Some teachers' beliefs which are largely derived from their prior experience may adversely affect their learning approach to teaching. Teachers' beliefs filter the ways they conceptualize teaching and themselves as teachers and develop explanations for their own classroom practices which may many times lead to an extremely narrow view of teachers and teaching as well as classroom practices.

b) Interaction

Interactions in language teaching which gained popularity since the 1980s, is explained in many ways by applied linguists. Rivers defines the interactive perspective in language education saying, 'Students achieve facility in using a language when their attention is focused on conveying and receiving authentic message (that is, messages that contain information of interest to both speaker and listener in a situation of importance to both). That is interaction' (Rivers 1987, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001:21). In a communicative class, language teaching content may be specified and organized by patterns of exchange and interactions to meet the purpose of communication which mostly entails spoken form of language (Richards and Rogers, 2001:21). Effective classroom interaction has two implications. The first one concerns a pleasant atmosphere in the classroom with friendly relationships among the participants of the learning process. The second one encourages students to become effective communicators in a foreign language. This can be achieved through various ways: by implementing different student and teacher roles, by

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exposing students to a varied classroom organization, by employing a variety of activities, by helping students to express themselves and by encouraging their use of communication strategies. If the two implications are joined, we get a pleasant classroom atmosphere in which students are trying to communicate in the foreign language. Research has shown (Long et al. 1976 in Nunan 1991, 51) that students use more language functions in pair- and group-work than in other forms of interaction. It has also been proven that students perceive them as the most pleasant ways of learning, because they feel relaxed and subsequently communicate better (Phillips 1983 in Hatch 1992, 93). Such work encourages independent learning and gives some responsibility for learning to students. It approaches real-life communication where students talk to their peers in small groups or pairs.

c) *Where does Interaction fit in CLT?*

Brown (2001, 165) relates interaction to communication, saying, "...interaction is, in fact, the heart of communication: it is what communication is all about". So, when language teaching methodology started to emphasize on the function of language, a new perspective of language teaching came into prominence. So, the designers of CLT syllabus have sought to replace some of the characteristics of structure-based instructions with those more typical of natural acquisition contexts. What Lightbown and Spada (2006, 112-113) say in this connection They say worth quoting. "In communicative and content-based instructions, the emphasis is on the communication of meaning, both between teachers and students, and among the students themselves in group or pair work.....The assumption is that, in focusing on meaning, learners will acquire the language in a way that is similar to natural acquisition." In Bangladesh, CLT was introduced in all levels of English education keeping this objective in mind by the policy makers.

d) *Types of Classroom Interaction*

Generally a language class is expected to have the following types of interaction. They are-

a. Teacher to the whole class. b. Teacher to individual. c. Teacher to small group. d. Student to student. e. Student to the whole class. f. Small group to the whole class. Among these types of interactions two or three are found to dominate the majority of language classes. They are- Teacher to the whole class. Teacher to individual and Student to student. These three types of interaction patterns have the following features and they will be discussed.

e) *Teacher to the whole class*

In this type of interactions, teacher works as director, model and a resource person. Communicative Language Teaching has given a variety of roles to teachers. Breen and Candlin say that the teacher has

three main roles in the Communicative classroom. The first is to act as facilitator of the communicative process; the second is to act as participant and the third to act as an observer and learner" (Breen and Candlin, cited in Nunan, 1998:87).

f) *Teacher to Individual*

In this type of interactions, teachers single out an individual for any of the functions he usually does. Teachers also attend to individual needs. It is done through reassuring, motivating, drawing a student back into the flow of the class, supplying information that a student needs to progress with the work.

g) *Student to Student*

Communicative Language Teaching method has assigned many roles to learners. Breen and Candlin comment, the learners' roles in Communicative Language Teaching in the following terms. The role of learners as negotiators between the self, the learning process, and the learning object – emerges from and interacts with the role of joint negotiator within the group and within the classroom procedure and activities which the group undertakes. The implication for the learner is that he should contribute as much as he gains, and "There by learn in an independent way" (Cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001:166).

Student to student interaction takes place when teachers set language items and groups students into pair or group. It happens because there students are more interested in coding and decoding information than in practicing their knowledge of grammar rules.

h) *Relation between Teachers' Beliefs and Classroom Practice*

Teachers' beliefs in relation to classroom practice are by far the most researched theme in L2 teacher cognition research. Several studies have highlighted the impact of social, psychological and environmental factors such as school requirements, society's expectations, state policies, mandated curriculum, practice of peers, workload and the availability of resources that have affected teachers' practice in the classroom. Such external factors were seen to play a key role in teachers' decisions, planning and instructional content for the six ESL teachers of beginning adult migrants in Burns' (1996) study. Focusing on the relationships between the classroom practice of three novice ESL teachers in Canada and the pedagogical knowledge they obtained during teacher education, Spada & Massey (1992) found that such contextual factors may have been responsible for the differences between teachers' principles and practices. Crookes & Arakaki (1999) discovered that difficult conditions and heavy workloads had a powerful impact on the pedagogical decisions that teachers made. Teachers in their study who worked approximately 50 hours a week were seen to opt for instructional practices

that were suitable for the context, even if this was at the expense of conflicting with the teachers' beliefs. Johnson (1996) also reports on a pre service teacher on a practicum who struggled with contextual demands that were incompatible with her own beliefs about teaching. Richards and Pennington (1998) describe how a group of first year teachers in Hong Kong attempted – without success – to implement communicative principles by fighting against peer pressure to conform, large classes, unmotivated students, examination pressures and resistance to new ways of learning.

There are plenty of studies regarding the mismatch between teachers' beliefs and classroom practices. In a study, Basturkmen, Loewen, & Ellis (2004) found evidence of incongruence between L2 teachers' stated beliefs and their classroom practices related to form-focused instruction. These inconsistencies related mainly to when it was appropriate to focus on form during a meaning-focused lesson and the type of error correction techniques to be employed. Basturkmen et al indicate that it may be better to view the stated beliefs of teachers to be "potentially conflictual rather than inherently inconsistent" (p. 268), suggesting that the differences between beliefs and practices are challenges that teachers need to resolve. This follows from several reports of incongruence between teachers' stated beliefs and observed (or reported) practices in mainstream education (Fang 1996). As Fang notes, such inconsistencies are not unexpected due to the demands and complexities of classroom life which constrain teachers' abilities to provide instruction that aligns perfectly with their beliefs.

II. METHODOLOGY

A longitudinal study of the participant teacher covering two months was done. We observed two of her classes. The second class was held at the interval of one month from the first one. The participant is named Somiya, a pseudonym and she is working as a lecturer in English at a private university in Bangladesh. She achieved mainstream primary, secondary and higher secondary education in Chittagong. She also has graduation and post graduation degree in English from a university, and she has 5 years of teaching experience in total (three years as a lecturer and 2 years as a teacher in an English medium school). The participant teacher has undergone training in CLT.

III. INSTRUMENT

First of all, questionnaire was used to gather the participant's perceptions about interactive language teaching approach. The questionnaire contained questions to collect both qualitative and quantitative data. The opinions in the questionnaires were compared with one another to see if there is any mismatch

between perceptions and classroom practice as well. An interview was arranged to discuss and clarify various points of the questionnaire. Then observations of two classes were arranged and follow up interviews were taken after the observation classes. Each of the classes had 30-35 students. The duration of the first class was 46 minutes. The teacher had sketches of lesson plan. After the class in the stimulated recall session the teacher was asked to reflect on her first teaching and think over how she could improve the same lesson after one month. Another class was arranged and observed after 1 month with the same lesson activities to see whether any improvement has occurred by this time. Before that the researcher had a long discussion with the teacher about the various kinds of communicative activities. The researcher arranged a demonstration class of the same lesson with a different group of students where the participant teacher was invited to observe the class.

IV. FINDINGS

a) *Analysis of the Questionnaire*

Though CLT is the followed method of ELT at the secondary and higher secondary level in Bangladesh and the teaching method being used at university level is not bound to be CLT, the course teachers of ELT are expected to follow CLT as a method without any obligation because it is the method in vogue at universities. The questionnaire and observation centre on some major issues like the following:

1. The knowledge about interaction.
2. The perception about the importance of interaction.
3. Does the teacher's classroom behavior correspond with her belief?
4. What prevents her from executing these activities?

Many of these interactive activities mentioned in the questionnaire are extracted from literature on interactive activities. It is seen that she can correctly identify the majority of interactive activities as student to student types except a few, such as, doing grammar exercise individually and filling in the blanks individually which are in fact, individualistic activities. However, she misses a few important ones, such as, identifying the differences in two pictures. It is true that, many of these activities are teacher controlled and accuracy targeted interactive activities. The teacher opines for three major interaction patterns, such as, student to student, students to students and student to the whole class. The teacher also gives the highest importance to interaction like pair work and group work in the class for developing communicative competence of the learners. She also finds the course book very useful in making the learners communicatively competent. The teacher thinks that it is the responsibility of teachers to motivate the learners to interact with the teachers and other learners in English. The teacher says, "Teachers should try to make the

lesson interesting. Instead of making students humiliated, teachers should correct their mistakes. A friendly environment is very much necessary for a successful language classroom. Teachers should plan their lesson and ensure active student participation”.

The teacher admits that she sometimes engages students in communicative activities. To her fluency is more important than accuracy and to attain it she corrects students not while they are speaking, rather after they have finished speaking. Though she says that she plans her lesson, but when she was asked whether she engaged the students in the interactive activities as required in the lesson plan of that day, she replied in the negative. She said that she omitted the listening part owing to lack of logistic support which was really important for the students. She also said that she left the speaking activities out for the lack of time. In reply to my query about if she sought the logistic support for herself, she said that her classroom was not logistically equipped.

She identifies the following factors as impediments to the execution of the student-student interaction on a 6 point Likert scale. Among the 14 factors which are assumed to be impediments, 7 are marked at the point 6(strongly agree).It is interesting to note that of the 7 , 6 are beyond the control of teachers e.g. serial nos. 1,5,6,8,10 and 12. Only one factor, 13 is what teachers can have something to do through classroom management techniques. The factors 4,and 9 are marked at point 1 (strongly disagree) and 2(slightly disagree) which again conform thematically with the teacher’s views of factors 1,5,6,8,10 and 12. These two factors reveal the fact that the participant teacher believes that teachers are not responsible in any way for not making the lessons interactive. That is, she attributes the non-implementation of interactive activities to the lack of logistic support and policy.

Observation-1

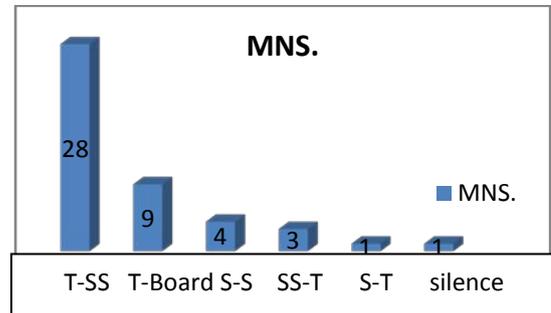
Several elements associated with CLT were initially selected as foci for the classroom observations (a) patterns of activity (for example, pair work, group work). (b) use of communicative tasks and (c) interaction types. The book used by the teacher is New Headway (Pre-intermediate). The activities were communicative in nature. The teacher was not told the focus of the study. Though the class was not audio recorded, a pen and pencil recording of all types of interaction patterns with time taken for each one was recorded meticulously. This method was used by Segovia and Hardison in recording the patterns of interactions in their observations of 3 Thai teachers’ classes in Thailand (2009). The teacher’s class duration was 46 minutes. Some salient features of her class are:-

1. Teacher leaves out the two pair works that entail speaking practice.

2. Teacher monitors while students are doing exercises.
3. Teacher checks answers individually.

The interaction patterns and time taken by the teacher during the class can be shown through a graph-

Graph-1



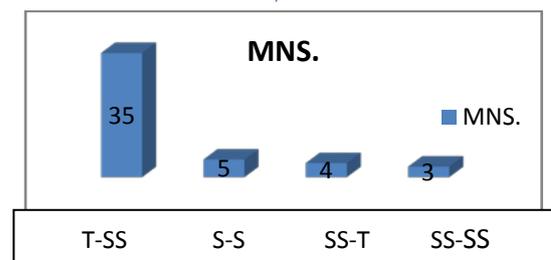
What appears from the interaction patterns is that it is a totally teacher-controlled class with the teacher-student interaction pattern engulfing the most of the class time. Teacher-student interaction and teacher boarding the answers taken together is (28+ 9=37) minutes. The post observation interview revealed the following facts about her class. She also said that she left the speaking activities out for the lack of time and she attributes the non implementation of interactive activities to the lack of logistic support and policy.

Observation-2

The second observation was arranged with the same lesson and activities after one month. The observation of the second class after one month reveals the following phenomenon. The second class almost has the same quality and characteristics with a few exceptions. The teacher’s class duration was 47 minutes.

What appears from the interaction patterns is that the second class has become more teacher-centered than the first one. The teacher-student interaction pattern takes 35 minutes. The difference is that the teacher does not board the answers but provides the answers as a whole class feedback. And she terms this more interactive in the sense that students are getting more oral inputs. Student-student interaction pattern has increased by 1 minute. What is important is that group work is also allotted 3 minutes. The group work was implemented with students comparing their answers with one another.

Graph-2



b) *Findings from class observation and interview*

The class observations reveal the following facts. The student-student interaction has not increased in spite of training, discussion and stimulated recalls with the participant teacher. The teacher was asked to be reflective about her previous teaching practice and asked to improve from the previous ones. These researchers referred to some parts of the class where she could improve her lesson. The teacher agreed that she could have addressed those suggestions to improve her lesson and change her teaching practice to address the students' needs of attaining communicative competence and making the class interactive. The training through demonstration class could not make any conspicuous impact on her teaching practice. Her knowledge and training in CLT also failed to bring any significant change in her behavior. There is plenty of research about the proposition whether teacher education has any impact on teaching behavior. The following research done in this regard can be discussed.

Peacock's (2001) longitudinal study found evidence of the stability of beliefs over time, with key beliefs remaining unchanged even after training. The study found that after three years' of pre-service training, the beliefs of the 146 trainees involved had changed 'very little', with 'far too many' of them still believing that learning an L2 meant 'learning a lot of vocabulary and grammar rules' (p. 186). This finding led Peacock to theorize that detrimental beliefs are more likely to resist change. While student expectations, tradition and syllabus requirements all shaped their beliefs and practices, prior learning and professional experiences were by far the strongest influence. But, the participant teacher here has both knowledge and training in CLT which calls for interactive teaching practice. Though it is a fact that syllabus requirement and testing requirement are key issues for consideration in deciding the teaching practice, she did not refer to these two issues in her reply or interview. Listening and speaking skills are not tested in the examinations. But, do we always test everything we teach in the classes?

In contrast to the above studies, Almarza (1996) too found variability in the way a teacher education program at a British university impacted on four trainee's beliefs. Freeman's (1993) longitudinal study of four high school French and Spanish teachers in the USA reported how a master's degree impacted on in-service teachers' beliefs with some evidence of behavioral change. Sendan & Roberts (1998) and Cabaroglu & Roberts (2000) provide further evidence of the positive effects of teacher education on trainees' beliefs. Sendan & Roberts (1998) report on how over the course of 15 months a trainee's personal theories of effective teaching had altered, by the addition of constructs to his existing belief system and the re-organization of existing constructs. It is true that reflection is an integral part of

an ongoing, cyclical process which brings positive change in teaching practice. As Wallace (1991) argues, it is through repeated cycles of professional development, practice and reflection that professional competence arises. But, reflection alone is found to be ineffective in many cases. Similarly, reflection was also found to be ineffective in this teacher's case study. With reflection teachers' realization of what is implementable in the classroom goes hand in hand. The participant teacher's excuse for non-implementation of interactive techniques such as pair work, group work can be recalled here in this connection. We know that majority of teachers in EFL countries attribute the non-implementation of communicative activities to lack of logistic support in the classrooms. The following study subscribes to this perception:

Sandholtz's (2002) study revealed that teachers regarded hands-on activities that were directly relevant to their teaching situation and which they could utilize in their classrooms as being essential to a teacher development program. They saw little value in learning about techniques and strategies that were impossible to implement. It is therefore necessary for teachers to do something important, and not simply hear about it. Integrating the creation of lesson plans and teaching materials that can be used in their own classrooms as a key part of the in-service is therefore crucial. Hayes (1995) suggests that teacher development sessions should make it possible for teachers to practice new ideas in a non-threatening environment, such as through micro teaching, before expecting them to apply the ideas in their own classrooms. But, this is not always the case for teachers. Many teachers in EFL countries are allergic to change and innovation by nature. They do not themselves want to change. It is the attitude of the teachers that should change first. Otherwise any training can have little impact to change their beliefs and subsequently their classroom behavior. Fullan (1993) argues that innovations fail to be successfully diffused not necessarily because of the suitability of the innovation itself or the method of implementation that was used, but more often because of the attitude of the teachers involved. For successful change to take place, it is the attitude towards change that should first change.

V. CONCLUSION

It is clear from this case study that the participant teacher has correctly identified the communicative activities but her classes are not communicative. To simplify, her classroom practices do not correspond well with her perceptions and beliefs about interactions. The teacher evades the communicative classroom practices, such as, pair work, group work, role play and persists in the traditional teacher-fronted language teaching techniques, such as,

explaining grammar rules, writing answers on the board. We see in this study that teacher education does not help the teacher to make her classes interactive. That is, she is a poor implementer of her knowledge and training. She resists change in her teaching practice. Apart from the practical constraints that thwart change effort, teachers themselves are regarded as being impediments to change. Many teachers do not like to follow other peoples' track and they are reluctant to implement other people's ideas. So, for successful change to take place, it is the attitude towards change that should first change.

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La Représentation Des Concepts “Dieu” et “Diable” Dans Les Expressions Phraséologiques Françaises et Leurs Équivalents en Azerbaïdjanais et en Russe

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Summary- L'un des buts principaux des recherches phraséologiques consiste en l'identification et la description des connotations culturelles nationales - des concepts dans les langues. L'analyse phraséologique nous permet d'avoir une certaine idée de la culture spirituelle du tel ou tel peuple. L'étude comparative de la représentation des concepts uniques dans les langues différentes donne une image linguistique du monde. Dans cet article nous analysons la représentation des concepts “dieu” et “diable” dans les expressions françaises et les équivalents qui existent en russe et en azerbaïdjanais.

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LAREPRESENTATIONDES CONCEPTSDIEUETDIABLEDANSLESEXPRESSIONSPHRASEOLOGIQUESFRA NCAISEETLEURSEQUIVALENTSENAZERBAIDJANAISETENRUSSE

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I. INTRODUCTION

One of the principal goals phraseological research involves the identification and description of national cultural connotations - concepts in languages. The phraseological analysis allows us to have an idea of the spiritual culture of a particular people. The comparative study of representation unique concepts in different languages gives a linguistic picture of the world. In this paper we analyze the representation of concepts "god" and "devil" in french expressions and equivalents that exist in Russian and Azerbaijani.

En Europe occidentale et en France tout particulièrement, la phraséologie constitue un domaine de recherche relativement peu étudié. Le premier linguiste qui a effectué les recherches théoriques de la phraséologie française a été Charles Bally. Après Ch. Bally on peut citer les noms de P.Guiraud, M.Maloux, M.Rat, A. Rey et beaucoup d'autres, mais leurs travaux portent plutôt un caractère pratique. Il existe beaucoup de dictionnaires de locutions et d'expressions phraséologiques, mais il n'y a pas assez de littérature théorique concernant les problèmes de la phraséologie française. Par contre, les problèmes théoriques de la phraséologie en général et de la phraséologie française en particulier, ont été largement éclairés par des linguistes russes V.Vinogradov, V.G.Gak, Y.I.Retsker, G.G.Sokolova, Syreychikova A.A, Z.N.Levit, E.I.Zibutayte, R.L Lyando; V.V. Pototsky, K.D Prikhodko, G.E.Yankelevich etc.

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Au XX-ème siècle la phraséologie a été étudié généralement dans l'aspect descriptive et comparative. Depuis le XXI - ème siècle la phraséologie commence à être étudié dans l'aspect cognitif. L'objet d'étude de la phraséologie cognitive est l'interaction de la langue et de la pensée dans le contexte de l'espace culturel. La phraséologie cognitive considère la langue non seulement comme un moyen de communication et de connaissance, mais comme un phénomène qui reflète la culture de la nation. Cette approche de la langue remonte à W. fon Humboldt qui a promu l'idée de «l'esprit national» qui détermine le développement de la langue.

En effet, toute la réalité autour de nous se reflète en termes de langue. Cette réflexion forme une «connotation culturelle». Les unités linguistiques avec des connotations culturelles sont un matériel très précieux pour la recherche. Le plus clairement les connotations culturelles se manifestent dans les expressions phraséologiques qui reflètent la perception du monde de différentes sociétés humaines. La perception du monde de chaque peuple se forme autour des concepts. Le concept est une notion de base de la phraséologie cognitive. Le mot «concept» provient du latin «conceptus». Le scientifique anglais William Occam a introduit le terme «nomen mentale » pour indiquer les concepts. De cette façon la théorie du conceptualisme a été appelé «nominalisme». Selon Occam, il n'y a pas de concepts universaux, mais concept est une perception individuelle de la réalité (Kurantov A.P., Styajkin N.I. Wilyam Okkam, M., 1978, p.23). La notion de «concept», d'après nous, peut être associée avec les mots suivants de W. fon Humboldt: «comme chaque langue tire sa matière des périodes de l'histoire, l'activité spirituelle visant à l'expression de la pensée s'exprime à l'aide du matériel prêt: il ne crée rien de nouveau, il retransforme ce qu'il existe» (dans le livre de Zvyaginsev V.A. L'histoire de la linguistique de XIX-XX ss., M, 1960, p. 74).

Comme dit le proverbe, «rien de nouveau sous le soleil», - les idées de Occam et Humboldt se développent au XXI-ème siècle dans la linguistique moderne et la notion de «concept» occupe une place

importante dans les oeuvres scientifiques d'un grand nombre de linguistes. Cet intérêt s'explique par le désir des scientifiques d'identifier les spécificités nationales des langues et des cultures modernes pour créer une image linguistique universelle du monde. Malgré que «concept» peut être considéré pour la science cognitive moderne comme une notion déterminée, le contenu de ce mot se diffère sensiblement dans les différentes interprétations des savants. La plupart d'entre eux offrent leur propre interprétation de cette notion. Par exemple, le linguiste russe S. Stepanov estime que «concept est une idée abstraite, associative et affective qui se caractérise par une évaluation» (Stepanov Y.S. Les constantes. Le dictionnaire de la culture russe. M., 1997, p.412). V. Karasik caractérise les concepts comme «entités mentales qui sont stockés dans la mémoire d'un homme conscient comme fragments significatifs de l'expérience». (Karasik V.I. Introduction à la linguistique cognitive. 2004, p.59).

S. Vorkachev définit le concept comme «une unité d'exploitation de la pensée», comme «l'une des connaissances collectives envoyée aux entités spirituelles suprêmes ayant une expression linguistique et marquée par des caractéristiques ethno-culturelles» (Vorkatchev S.G. Le Bonheur comme un concept linguo-culturel M., 2004, p.43). V. Krasnykh définit le concept comme «l'idée la plus abstraite de l'objet culturel qui n'a pas d'image visuelle prototypique, malgré la possibilité d'associations visuelles» (Krasnykh V.V. Le sien parmi les autres. Mythe ou réalité? M., 2003, p.272). N.F. Venzhenovich estime que «le concept - est le phénomène le plus important de la linguistique cognitive, qui s'accumule dans le niveau culturel de chaque langue». (Venzhenovich N.F. Le vecteur linguo-culturel de la phraseologie cognitive. Belgorod. Les matériaux du Conférence Internationale "Europhraz"-2013, p.43).

D'après nous, les concepts peuvent être individuels ou communs, ils peuvent se différer dans les cultures différentes et en même temps ils peuvent avoir des traits communs.

La question des liens entre des mots et des concepts reste aussi l'un des problèmes théoriques importants de la linguistique cognitive. Dans le milieu linguistique il existe une opinion que le concept a toujours une expression verbale, sinon nous ne pouvons pas parler de l'existence de la notion. S. Kuzlyakin estime qu'il serait préférable de supposer que le mot est un moyen d'accès à la connaissance conceptuelle. (Kuzlyakin S.V. Le problème de la création d'un modèle conceptuel dans les recherches linguistiques. Dans la revue "Le russe et l'actualité". Saint Peterbourg, 2005, p.136). On peut dire que la langue est un outil pour ouvrir la porte qui cache la connaissance humaine.

Le concept est une base de la construction pour la phraseologie de chaque langue parce que les idiomes se forment autour des concepts. V.N. Teliya a

déclaré que le but principal de la phraseologie dans tous les systèmes linguistiques c'est de représenter des signes culturels, non seulement synchroniques incorporés dans le système de la langue actuelle, mais aussi des fragments d'histoire transmis de génération en génération. (Teliya V.N. Les connotations culturelles et nationales des phraseologismes. Dans les matériaux du congrès international des slavistes. M., 1993, p.308). Selon nous, l'un des buts principaux des recherches phraseologiques consiste en identification et description des connotations culturelles nationales (en d'autres termes, des concepts) dans les langues. Ainsi, l'analyse phraseologique quelconque donne une certaine idée de la culture spirituelle, révèle la connotation nationale et culturelle des concepts analysés et donne une image complète à tel ou tel concept qui existe dans le système phraseologique mondiale.

L'utilisation combinée des approches contrastives, linguistiques, culturelles et cognitives peut donner une image complète aux particularités nationales et culturelles de la phraseologie d'une langue. Particularités nationales et culturelles d'une langue se manifestent dans les différences de différentes cultures nationales, ainsi que dans la présence des concepts uniques propres à une culture. Les concepts uniques peuvent être identifiés par les unités linguistiques qui n'ont pas d'équivalents, ils sont un indicateur de la notion d'identité nationale dans l'esprit des gens.

Élaboration de principes d'identification et de sélection des concepts est liée à la partie théorique de la linguistique. La description lexicographique des concepts de la culture nationale se rapporte à la partie pratique.

La culture de chaque nation se compose de nombreux éléments, parmi lesquels on peut indiquer identités linguistiques, ethniques, culturelles et religieuses. Chaque composante a ses concepts de caractérisation. Dans cet article nous allons étudier les concepts religieux qui peuvent être attribués aux culturonymes - unités linguistiques, qui fonctionnent comme des éléments de symboles de la culture mondiale. L'identification de ces unités linguistiques dans les langues appartenant aux différents systèmes linguistiques nous permet de voir plus clairement comment tel ou tel concept est représenté dans les langues différentes.

L'approche cognitive dans la phraseologie assure la solution de nombreux problèmes. Tout d'abord il faut parler du rôle de l'approche cognitive dans l'enseignement des langues vivantes. Grâce à cette approche les élèves peuvent maîtriser non seulement une langue étrangère, mais également des particularités nationales et culturelles qui servent de base pour la construction des expressions phraseologiques. La connaissance des facteurs extra-linguistiques qui ont créé l'image d'un phraseologisme

permet à comprendre de profondeur la communion qui existe entre des cultures et des langues. Assimilation des informations extralinguistiques à l'aide de la sémantique des composants culturels nationaux qui forment les phraséologismes améliore les compétences communicatives dans l'apprentissage des langues étrangères et aide à éviter les malentendus et les erreurs lors de la communication avec des locuteurs natifs et fournit la réception et la compréhension, ce qui fait la base de la communication culturelle et linguistique. D'autre part, étude contrastive du fonctionnement spécifique des concepts culturels dans les langues appartenant aux systèmes linguistiques différents donne un riche matériel scientifique pour identifier l'image de la phraséologie unique du monde.

Dans cet article nous allons analyser les expressions phraseologiques formées autour des concepts de base de toutes les religions deistes: dieu et diable. Pour voir comment ces concepts sont présentés en trois langues nous avons décidé de choisir des expressions en français et déterminer leurs équivalents en azerbaïdjanais et en russe. Notre but c'est voir comment telle ou telle connotation est présentée dans les langues comparées, quelles sont les expressions qui existent dans trois langues, lesquelles existent seulement en français. Analyse cognitive de telle ou telle expression suppose les démarches suivantes:

- déterminer le sens initial de l'expression et le source éventuel;
- étudier les changements phonétiques, lexiques et grammaticaux (s'il y en a);
- étudier l'utilisation de l'expression dans la littérature ou dans les autres sources;
- déterminer les synonymes et les variantes créés dans le langage ;
- définir le sens moderne et comparer avec le sens initial ;
- classer les expressions d'après leur structure grammaticale ;
- analyser la structure sémantique des expressions ;
- déterminer les équivalents dans quelques langues (dans notre cas dans la langue azerbaïdjanaise et dans la langue russe)

Comme on le sait, dans toutes les religions deistes il existe deux notions essentielles, qui se trouvent, depuis toujours, dans une opposition éternelle: le Dieu et le diable. Évidemment on s'en est servi dans la langue, pour exprimer différentes émotions vécues dans la vie quotidienne. Les expressions créées à la base de ces deux mots sont très intéressantes, puisqu'elles portent un sens parfois très inattendu. Par exemple, le mot diable ne s'utilise pas toujours au mauvais sens, par contre, le mot Dieu s'utilise parfois comme juron.

D'abord il faudrait bien parler des expressions formées à la base du mot *le dieu*, qui est significatif parmi les expressions d'origine religieuse. Le mot *dieu* a

une origine latine : *Deo - Deus* (842) - *Deu - Dieu* (XI-XII s.). *Deus* contient une racine indoeuropéenne *dei* qui signifie *briller*. Après le mot se transforme en *deiwo* et en *dyew* et commence à désigner le ciel lumineux considéré comme divinité et les êtres célestes par opposition aux hommes, terrestres de nature. C'est la plus ancienne dénomination indoeuropéenne de la divinité, liée à la notion de lumière et on la retrouve en grec dans le nom de Zeus (génétif *Dios*) et dans *dios-«brillant»* (A.Rey. Dictionnaire historique de la langue française, I v., Robert, Paris, 1994, p.602). Ce mot fait partie d'un grand nombre d'expressions phraséologiques.

Il est à noter que nous avons découvert un grand nombre d'expressions à base de deux mots *bon + dieu*. Nous allons les étudier à part pour voir tout le spectre et toute la richesse sémantique de combinaison de ces deux mots :

- *le bon dieu de qn.* – idole, ce qui est admiré par qn.: «*Le visage de « Presse-Pourrie » s'éclaire: Paulette, c'est sa fille unique, son bon dieu »* (J.P. Chabrol, La Dernière cartouche);
- *le bon Dieu - le Dieu:* «*Il parlait toujours du bon Dieu: car il était très pieux... »* (R.Rolland, L'Aube). En russe: **боженька**;
- *bête à (du) bon Dieu:* 1.un petit insecte - coccinelle : «*En un mot le scorpion de Clochemerle, mais un scorpion camouflé en bête à bon Dieu »* (G. Chevallier, Clochemerle). En russe: **божья коровка**;
- 2.un bon homme: «*C'est que vous le connaissez, vous savez quelle bête à bon Dieu ça fait...A force d'être bon il en devient innocent»* (A.Dodet, Jack);
- *brebis du bon Dieu.* Variante phraséologique : *créature du bon Dieu - qn. très bon, positif.* Le premier phraséologisme a un équivalent en azerbaïdjanais: *Allahın fağır quzusu*. Son variante a un équivalent en russe: **божье создание**;
- *mangeur de bon Dieu-* un cafard, un faux dévot, bondieusard;
- *la maison de bon Dieu* – une maison hospitalière;
- *bon Dieu!* – interjection. Équivalent en russe: **Боже мой!**
- *Dieu du bon Dieu!, bon Dieu de bon Dieu! Corps Dieu ! Diable, Merde!* Dans les jurons épithète *bon* joue un rôle phonétique;
- *il n'y a pas de bon Dieu!* (1808) – à propos de cette locution nous avons trouvé les définitions tout à fait différentes. D'après Alain Rey et Sophie Chantreau cela signifie «la chose est certaine, se fera (sous-entendu: le bon Dieu lui-même ne l'empêcherait pas) (A.Rey, S.Chantreau, 2007, p.315). D'après V.Gak c'est «va-t-en!», il n'y a rien à chercher ici (Гак В.Г., Рецкер, p.349);
- *que le bon Dieu le bénisse!* – s'utilise dans le sens propre. Équivalent en russe: **Да благославит его Бог!**

- avoir le bon Dieu dans sa poche – être familier avec le Dieu, avoir un protecteur: «Je ne m'étonne pas des gens qui cherchent à expliquer l'incompréhensible, mais de ceux qui croient avoir trouvé l'explication, de ceux qui ont le bon Dieu dans leur poche » (G.Flaubert, Correspondance);
 - porter le bon Dieu. Variante phraséologique: recevoir le bon Dieu – oecuméniser, communier;
 - manger le bon Dieu: c'est une expression péjorative et méprisante, appartenant au vocabulaire de ceux qui bouffent du cire. Expression a deux sens :1.communier: «Ah bah! Ils sont tous sortis. Madame Couture et sa jeune personne sont allées manger le bon Dieu à Saint-Etienne... » (H. de Balzac, Le père Goriot); 2.prier: «Les Lorilleux, sans aller manger le bon Dieu dans les églises, se piquaient la religion» (E.Zola, l'Assommoir);
 - comme le bon Dieu vous a fait – tout(e) nu(e): «Il y faisait une chaleur de paradis, on aurait pu y vivre comme le bon Dieu vous a fait» (E.Triolet, Les Amants d'Avignon). Référence au Bible : Tous deux étaient nus, l'homme et sa femme, sans se faire mutuellement honte (Genèse, 2 :25);
 - on lui donnerait le bon Dieu sans confession – il est si innocent qu'il va aller au paradis tout vivant: «Imaginez-vous une gamine, si petite, si délicate, blonde et rose comme un petit ange, et douce avec ça, d'une douceur de Sainte-n'y-touche à lui donner le bon Dieu sans confession (E.Zola, La bête humaine). La communion nécessite l'absolution des péchés que la confession fait connaître. L'expression suppose à la personne dont il est question une conscience chargée : aussi s'emploie-t-elle volontiers au conditionnel passé – on lui aurait pourtant donné le bon Dieu sans confession;
 - le bon Dieu lui-même a besoin de cloches – les forts aussi ont besoin de l'aide;
 - mais qu'est-ce que j'ai fait au bon Dieu! – expression de fort dépit devant une situation pénible qu'on juge imméritée: Qu'est-ce qu'on a fait au bon Dieu pour avoir un gosse pareil! En azerbaïdjanais: Allahım nə idi günahım? En russe: в чем я провинился перед Богом!
- D'après la structure grammaticale les expressions, se formant autour du concept *dieu*, peuvent être classées de la façon ci-dessous:
- a) Les expressions nominatives
- hôtel-Dieu - nom donné à l'hôpital principal de plusieurs villes;
 - la maison de Dieu – une église, une cathédrale. En azerbaïdjanais: Allahın evi. En russe: дом божий;
 - la maison de Dieu où l'on ne boit ni ne mange – une maison inhospitalière;
 - bras (main) de Dieu – le destin. En russe: длань Господня;
 - ennemi de Dieu – un homme sans foi, un incrédule;
- c'est un homme de Dieu.Variantes: tout de Dieu, tout en Dieu - se dit d'un homme fort pieux, fort dévot; 2. un prêtre. En azerbaïdjanais et en russe cette expression ne s'utilise qu'au premier sens: Allah adamı (az.) - божий человек (rus.);
 - denier à Dieu – avant cette expression signifiait «l'argent destinée à une bienfaisance», mais actuellement elle signifie «un pourboire» ;
 - dieu tutélaire - un bon génie : «Ah! Figaro, mon ami, tu seras mon ange, mon libérateur, mon dieu tutélaire» (Beaumarchais, le Barbier de Séville) ;
 - maître après Dieu – deuxième, le second. En russe: второй после бога;
 - pain de la parole de Dieu – l'enseignement religieux;
 - sourd à n'entendre pas Dieu tonner – sourd comme un pot, extrêmement sourd;
 - beau comme un dieu – très beau. En russe: красив как Бог;
 - comme un dieu - très bien, parfaitement : Il parle comme un dieu. En russe: как Бог;
 - le Dieu vivant - Dieu, l'Éternel: «Le Dieu vivant m'est témoin que son ange m'a gardé» (Bible, Judith, XIII, 20);
 - le Dieu fort, le Dieu jaloux, le Dieu des armées - noms que Dieu a dans l'Écriture sainte et que les orateurs chrétiens lui donnent souvent en chaire.;
- b) Expressions exclamatives et interjections
- ce n'est pas Dieu possible – ce n'est pas vrai: «Est-ce Dieu possible d'en être réduit à cette misère?» (E.Zola, Germinal);
 - c'est un Dieu! – c'est un magicien, il sait tout faire. En russe: это сам Бог;
 - Dieu vous bénisse, Dieu vous assiste, Dieu vous entende, Dieu vous soit en aide -façons de parler qu'on emploie (ou plutôt qu'on employait, car cette habitude se perd) quand quelqu'un éternue, et aussi pour adoucir le refus qu'on fait à un pauvre de lui donner l'aumône. En azerbaïdjanais: Allah köməyiniz olsun! En russe: Бог в помощь! Бог подаст!;
 - Dieu merci et (a) vous! grâce à Dieu - se dit pour exprimer le contentement. En azerbaïdjanais: Allaha şükür! En russe: Слава Богу!;
 - à Dieu ne plaise! – locution exprimant la crainte: À Dieu ne plaise qu'une vie si précieuse soit tranchée! Cette expression remonte à la Chanson de Roland, sous la forme ne placet Deu (que cela ne plaise pas a Dieu ! qu'il ne le permette pas...);
 - Dieu m'est (m'en est) témoin!Variantes: Devant Dieu, sur mon Dieu - formules d'affirmation. En azerbaïdjanais: Allah şahiddir. En russe: Бог свидетель!
 - Dieu sait (où, comment) - locution qui exprime la négation ou le doute: Dieu sait si j'en ai la pensée,- c'est-à-dire je n'en ai certainement pas la pensée. Dieu sait ce qu'il en arrivera, - c'est-à-dire ce qui arrivera est caché dans l'avenir. En azerbaïdjanais:

- Allah bilir* (*harda, necə*) En russe: **Бог знает** (*эде, как*);
- *Dieu le sait* (XVI s.) - locution qui exprime l'affirmation ou qui indique ce qu'on ignore: Je suis innocent, Dieu le sait. Où serons-nous l'an prochain ? Dieu le sait. En azerbaïdjanais: *Allah bilir*. En russe: **Бог знает**;
 - *Dieu le veuille!* avec *l'aide de Dieu* – si Dieu le permet, les musulmans disent: *Inchaallah!* En azerbaïdjanais: *Allah qoysa!* En russe: **дай Бог! Бог даст!**;
 - *comme il plaît à Dieu!* Variantes: *Dieu vous entende, Plaise à Dieu, plutôt à Dieu!*- locution qui exprime le désir: *Plaise à Dieu qu'il en soit ainsi ! Plût à Dieu qu'il vécût encore !*
 - *Dieu vous garde* - ancienne façon de parler qui s'employait pour saluer quelqu'un en l'abordant : «*Dieu vous gard'*, mon frère. (Molière, Les femmes savantes). En azerbaïdjanais: *Allah (sizi, səni) saxlasın!* En russe: **храни вас Господь (Бог)!**
 - *pour l'amour de Dieu*- dans la seule vue de plaire à Dieu et, par suite, sans aucun intérêt. Cette expression signifie aussi « je vous prie en grâce ». En azerbaïdjanais: *Allah eşkinə!*
 - *comme pour l'amour de Dieu* - ironiquement, exprime qu'une chose a été dite ou faite à contrecœur;
 - *jour de Dieu* - exclamation de colère, d'indignation: «*Jour de Dieu ! je l'étranglerais de mes propres mains, s'il fallait qu'elle forlignât de l'honnêteté de sa mère* » (Molière, George Dandin) ;
 - *ainsi Dieu m'aide* ou *me soit en aide* - vieille formule affirmant avec solennité. En russe: **с божьей помощью**;
 - *Dieu me pardonne* - exclamation par laquelle on s'excuse de quelque chose qu'on a fait ou qu'on allait faire. En azerbaïdjanais: *Allah keçsin günahımnan*. En russe: **да простит меня Бог!** Cette expression exprime aussi surprise, indignation : *Dieu me pardonne, il m'a pris mon argent !*
 - *Dieu me damne !* - sorte de jurement. En azerbaïdjanais: *Allah lənət eləsin!*
 - *Dieux ! Justes dieux ! Grands dieux ! Bons dieux !* - locutions dont on se sert pour exprimer des sentiments très divers. « Quelles grâces, *bons dieux*, ne lui dois-je point rendre ! » (Corneille, Théodore et Héraclius) ;
- c) *Les expressions prädicatives*
- *Jurer (promettre) ses grands dieux* - affirmer avec de grandes protestations: «*Le maire et le juge de paix jurèrent leurs grands dieux que le citoyen Baujard n'avait jamais mis les pieds à Souilly* » (A. Theuriet) ;
 - *être abimé en Dieu* – la divinité, dans l'intimité de laquelle l'esprit pénètre comme en se jetant dans un abîme: «*Plongé, pendant des minutes que je ne*
- comptais plus, dans une muette mais intarissable adoration, je ne sentais plus la terre sous mes genoux ou sous mes pieds, et je m'abîmais en Dieu, comme l'atome flottant dans la chaleur d'un jour d'été s'élève, se noie, se perd dans l'atmosphère, et, devenu transparent comme l'éther, paraît aussi aérien que l'air lui-même et aussi lumineux que la lumière!*» (A. De Lamartine, Les Confidences);
- *être beni des dieux* – être gâté du destin. En russe: **Бог поцеловал в макушку**;
 - *faire à Dieu barbe de feurre* – à l'origine, s'acquitter de la dîme avec des gerbes contenant beaucoup de paille pour bien peu d'épis; puis, par extension, en prendre trop à son aise avec le culte et ses ministres, traiter la religion par-dessous la jambe. *Feurre*, dans cette locution, est susceptible de plusieurs variantes: *foerre, foërre, foarre, fouarre*. Tardivement, on rencontre la locution corrompue *faire à Dieu barbe de foire*;
 - *se faire un dieu de son ventre* – préférer à tout les plaisirs de la table;
 - *se perdre en Dieu* – prier tout le temps;
 - *tenter Dieu* – se jeter dans des embarras, dans des périls, dont on ne peut sortir sans une sorte de miracle: «*C'est ce qui arrive à tous les pécheurs, lorsqu'ils méprisent les précautions qui font éviter les périls où l'on a souvent succombé: ce qui est tenter Dieu de la manière la plus insolente*»- (Nicolas Malebranche, Huitième méditation). En russe: **искушать Бога**;
 - *on n'entendrait pas Dieu tonner* – on dit quand il y a beaucoup de bruit;
 - *cela va comme il plaît à Dieu ; cela va Dieu sait comme* se dit d'une affaire dont la conduite est négligée. En russe: **как бог на душу положит**.
- d) *Les expressions proverbiales*
- *Dieu écrit droit avec des lignes courbes* (proverbe portugais) – cela revient à dire que les voies du seigneur sont impénétrables, ou encore qu'il utilise des moyens pour arriver à des buts qui nous échappent totalement;
 - *Si Dieu n'existait pas, il faudrait l'inventer* (Voltaire, Epîtres) – cette citation de Voltaire probablement signifie que l'homme a besoin de Dieu plus que tout à tel point que si Dieu n'existerait pas l'homme dans sa détresse cherchera à l'inventer. En russe: **если бы Бога не было, его надо было-бы выдумать**;
 - *aux audacieux Dieu prête la main* (proverbe espagnole) Dieu aime et protège les courageux;
 - *Dieu est toujours pour les gros bataillons* – Dieu est avec les forts. Pas d'équivalents en azerbaïdjanais, ni en russe;
 - *à brebis tondue Dieu mesure le vent* – la providence proportionne nos épreuves à nos forces ; Dieu ne nous envoie pas plus

d'épreuves que nous n'en pouvons supporter: «*Je me suis enrhumé horriblement les premiers jours de mon arrivée. Au reste, comme à brebis tondue Dieu mesure le vent, je n'ai plus eu mes douleurs des que je me suis mis à tousser*» (P. Merimée, *Lettres à une inconnue*). En azérbaidjanais: *Allah dağına baxar, qarını yağdırar*;

- *ce que femme veut, Dieu le veut*- c'est-à-dire les femmes viennent ordinairement à bout de ce qu'elles veulent. En russe: **чего хочет женщина, того хочет Бог**;
- *chacun pour soi, Dieu pour tous* – chaque personne doit être responsable pour sa vie, défendre ses intérêts, sous la protection de Dieu, qui veille sur tous les hommes;
- *Dieu donne le boeuf, et non pas la corne* – Dieu donne des grâces, mais il faut que nous nous aidions. Synonyme: aide-toi, le ciel t'aidera. En azérbaidjanais: *səndən hərəkət, məndən bərəkət*;
- *Dieu fait et défait le destin* – tout dépend du Dieu;
- *Dieu nous a (tous) pétris du même limon* (xi^e siècle) – le mot "limon" provient du latin populaire **limōnem* (accusatif de **limo*), du latin classique *limus*, « boue ». Cette expression veut dire que Dieu nous a tous faits semblables, avec les mêmes passions et les mêmes faiblesses. En azérbaidjanais: *hamımız bir xəmərdən yoğurulmuşuq*. En russe: **все мы из одного теста слеплены**;
- *Dieu nous préserve d'un et caetera de notaire* - d'abord cette expression était plus longue: *Dieu nous garde d'un et cetera de notaire et d'un quiproquo d'apothicaire!*
- *Dieu ne veut pas la mort du pécheur* – se dit lorsqu'une personne est prête à oublier le mal qu'une autre personne lui a fait;
- *là où Dieu veut, il pleut* – ce proverbe signifie que la volonté de Dieu n'a pas de limite. En azérbaidjanais: *Allah elədiyini bilir*;
- *l'homme propose et Dieu dispose* (XVs.) – l'être humain peut seulement former des desseins, il ne leur arrive que ce qui plaît à Dieu. En russe: **человек предполагает, Бог располагает**;
- *il y a un Dieu pour les ivrognes* (1766) – il ya une protection qui leur épargne quelque malheur;
- *il faut (il vaut mieux, mieux vaut) s'adresser à Dieu qu'à ses saints* – Il n'y a pas d'intermédiaires entre nous et Dieu;
- *qui donne au pauvre (aux pauvres) prête à Dieu* – citation de Victor Hugo, poète français. C'est-à-dire que Dieu récompense ceux qui font l'aumône;
- *à qui se leve matin, Dieu prête la main* – Dieu favorise les projets des gens actifs et laborieux. En russe: **тому, кто рано встает, Бог подает**;
- *secret de deux, secret de Dieu; secret de trois, secret de tous* – il ne faut pas confier son secret;
- *à toile ourdie Dieu envoie le fil* - la Providence fournit les moyens d'achever l'ouvrage qu'on a commence.

En azérbaidjanais: *Allah min dərd verir, min bir dərman*;

- *la voix du peuple est la voix de Dieu* –

« Le récit précédent suffit

Pour montrer que le peuple est juge récusable ;

En quel sens est donc véritable

Ce que j'ai lu dans certain lieu,

Que sa voix est la voix de Dieu ? » (La Fontaine, *Fables*).

Vox populi est une locution latine qui se traduit le plus souvent par « voix du peuple ». Elle se trouve dans la citation *Vox populi, vox Dei*, généralement traduite par « La voix du peuple est la voix de Dieu », ce qui soulignerait l'importance de l'avis du peuple dans le régime démocratique et dans certaines institutions religieuses. Cette citation a été détournée dans l'expression *Vox populi, populus stupidus*. Cela se rapproche d'ailleurs d'un des premiers textes originaux d'où est extrait cette locution, dans une lettre de Alcuin à Charlemagne en 798 : «*Nec audiendi qui solent dicere, Vox populi, vox Dei, quum tumultuositas vulgi semper insaniae proxima sit*» (The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Quotations, third edition, Oxford University Press, 1993), qui se traduit par « Et ces gens qui continuent à dire que la voix du peuple est la voix de Dieu ne devraient pas être écoutés, car la nature turbulente de la foule est toujours très proche de la folie aissance des saints dans l'Eglise catholique : c'e ». Elle apparaît d'abord pour désigner le mode de recon st la réputation de sainteté dans le peuple chrétien qui fait le saint jusqu'au XIII s. Ensuite, l'Église soumet le cas à un procès en canonisation, dans lequel l'argument de la popularité du saint est une condition indispensable : le rayonnement spirituel du candidat est un signe de sa participation à la sainteté de Dieu et apporte la certitude que son exemple est accessible au reste du peuple chrétien. Dans ce cadre-là, elle signifie plutôt : « Si le peuple pense qu'il est saint, c'est que Dieu doit aussi le penser ».

Outre les expressions citées ci-dessus, le mot « Dieu » a été utilisé dans les cas suivants:

- dans les locutions archaïques conservées où Dieu est joint sans préposition au mot qu'il détermine. Par exemple *le lever-Dieu*, le moment de la messe où le prêtre élève l'hostie.
- Dieu peut désigner l'objet d'un culte. Par exemple : *L'argent est le dieu du jour*.

Faire son dieu, se faire un dieu de quelqu'un ou de quelque chose, avoir pour quelqu'un, pour quelque chose un attachement excessif. Il n'aime que les richesses ; il en *fait son dieu*. « Elle se fait un dieu de ce prince charmant, Et vous doutez encore qu'elle en fasse un amant ? » (Racine, *Alexandre le grand*) ;

- par extension du sens: *les dieux de la terre*, les rois, les puissants du jour: « Ce qui flatte les ambitieux, c'est une image de la toute-puissance qui semble

en faire des dieux sur la terre". (Bossuet, Politique tirée des propres paroles de l'Écriture sainte);

- personnage qui excite l'enthousiasme, la vénération, l'amour. Ils le regardaient comme leur sauveur et leur dieu. Pour eux c'était un dieu. *Vous êtes un dieu*, se dit à quelqu'un dans l'ivresse de l'admiration et de la reconnaissance. Celui qui a une grande supériorité, qui domine. Le dieu de la poésie. Vestris fut surnommé le dieu de la danse.

Les résultats d'analyse quantitative ont montré qu'il y a 92 expressions formées autour du concept "dieu" en français dont 17 expressions ont les équivalents en azérbaidjanais et 30 en ont en russe.

Le deuxième concept productif autour duquel est formé un grand nombre d'expressions phraséologiques est le concept «diable». Le mot *diabole* est un emprunt très ancien (881) au latin chrétien *diabolus* "démon", lui-même pris au grec ecclésiastique *diabolos* de même sens. Le mot existait déjà en grec classique comme adjectif signifiant "qui désunit, qui inspire la haine ou l'envie", substantive au sens de «calomniateur, homme médisant»; il est dérivé du verbe *diaballein* «jeter entre, insérer», employé ensuite péjorativement, d'où au figure «desunir, séparer», «accuser, calomnier» et «tromper». *Diaballein* est composé de *dia* "à travers" et de *ballein* «jeter», «mettre» (A.Rey, Dictionnaire historique de la langue française, I v., Robert, Paris, 1994). Dans le français ce mot est passé sous la forme *diavole* refaite en *diabole* à la fin du X^e siècle, avec le sens de «démon»; plus familier que démon, il possède un registre plus riche et varié. Dès le XI^e siècle ce mot commence à être employé dans les expressions et les locutions proverbiales au sens essentiellement négatif, parfois au sens neutre, aux interjections etc. D'après leur structure grammaticale on peut classer ces expressions dans les groupes suivants:

II. LES EXPRESSIONS NOMINATIVES

a) *avocat du diable* - cette expression a deux sens

- i. *celui qui défend une cause généralement considérée comme mauvaise*: "Tout le haut clergé était là, les cardinaux en robes rouges, l'avocat du diable en velours noir..." (A.Dodet, Lettres de mon Moulin);
2. celui qui prend le contrepied d'une accusation, d'une critique habituelle. Cette expression est empruntée au droit ecclésiastique. C'est le nom familier du Promoteur de la foi chargé de contester la sainteté, d'opposer des objections à une canonisation. C'est donc celui qui discute toujours les mérites, allègue l'éventualité du mal. Dans le langage courant, l'avocat du diable n'est plus celui qui met en cause le bien en évoquant l'oeuvre du Malin. L'expression est remotivée plus simplement avec la valeur de « celui qui défend ce que les autres croient être le mal ».

Balsac reprend la locution à propos de Satan lui-même: « *Attendu que ces gueux-là sont menteurs comme des marchands de salade, dit Satan à son ministre, charge quelque damné de répondre à leur plaidoyers...Astaroth tire de son gousset un filet en épervier...Il comptait y pêcher quelque grand homme, pour en faire l'avocat du Diable* » (Balsac, la Comédie du diable). En russe: *адвокат дьявола*;

- *affaire du diable* – une affaire très difficile à résoudre. Cette expression a une expression synonymique: *le diable et ses cornes*. En azérbaidjanais: *şeytan əməli* ;
- *au diable Vauvert* - extrêmement loin: «C'est comme ça qu'on va parfois chercher une femme et l'amour *au diable Vauvert*, quand vous avez votre bonheur à côté de vous » (E.Triolet, Le Rendez-vous des étrangers). Cette expression provient de la locution *faire le diable de Veauvert* qui signifiait depuis le XV^e siècle « s'agiter comme un beau diable ». Il y a beaucoup de versions à propos de cette expression. On dit qu'il est en rapport à l'abbaye de Vauvert, maison de Chartreux située au sud de Paris, non loin de l'actuel Denfert et qui existait dès l'époque de Saint Loïs. Il existe encore château de Vauvert, situé non loin, à Gentilly. Les exégètes du XIX^e s. se sont emparés de ce toponyme et l'ont décoré à plaisir d'anecdotes diaboliques. Il est à noter que Vauvert est aussi un sanctuaire dédié à la Vierge, à Nîmes, et détruit par les protestants. Tous ces explications, forgées pour expliquer cette expression par l'éloignement très relatif de l'abbaye ou du château, ne peuvent s'appliquer qu'à l'expression ancienne: *faire le diable de Vauvert*, variante de *faire le diable à quatre*. Même si une légende des diables de Vauvert a suscité cette expression, elle a dû être sélectionnée pour renforcer *faire le diable* à cause des sens figures de vert, notamment « emporté ». Le passage à la valeur de « grande distance », au XIX^e s. suppose l'emprunt de l'expression: *diabole vauvert* détachée de son contexte et choisie pour son signifiant (au diable+ à vauvert, qui évoque à vau l'eau, à vau de route, et surtout à *vau de vent*, courant jusqu'au XIX^e s.) (A.Rey,S.Chantreau.p.310). L'expression est devenue dans l'usage courant: *au diable vert*;
- *bastringue de tous les diables* – boucan, tapage; désordre bruyant. Le mot «bastringue» signifiait auparavant «une machine utilisée dans l'industrie des toiles imprimées», qui probablement faisait beaucoup de bruit;
- *un bon diable* – un bon homme, un brave homme. Cette expression n'est pas fréquente en français moderne;
- *beauté du diable* – beauté que confère la jeunesse, la fraîcheur, à qui n'a pas d'autres agréments. L'expression évoque le charme irresistible confère

par le démon pour susciter la tentation: «*Moins riche que lui, mais fille unique, et assez jolie comme on l'est à seize ans, quand on est fraîche et parée de ce qu'on appelle en France la beauté du diable*» (G. Sand, Consuello). Equivalent en russe : **дьявольская красота**;

- c'est la *poupée du diable* - femme mal habillée, sale;
- c'est le *diable à confesser* - se dit d'un aveu difficile à obtenir, d'une chose presque impossible;
- c'est le *diable et son train* - une suite de difficultés, d'ennuis. L'expression a vieilli avec les emplois généraux de train « suite (d'objets ou de personnes) », et notamment « suite de serviteurs ». Le train du diable, ici, est le cortège qui le suit, mais l'expression est renforcée par le sens de « bruit, tapage », que l'on trouve encore, justement dans l'expression un train d'enfer: « *Ah ! fit l'autre désappointé, c'est rien qu'un grand dieu des routes. Je pensais que c'était au moins quelque gars qui arrête le sang ou bien qui conjure les tourtes. Le diable et son train...* » (G.Guevremont, Le Survenant);
- *diable coiffé* – une femme méchante, une chipie, une mégère. Equivalent en russe: **сатана в юбке**;
- *diable déchaîné* – un homme qui agit (se déplace) comme un fou. Equivalent en russe: **как дьявол с цепи сорвался**;
- *diable dans un bénitier* (1791) - un homme qui n'est pas bien dans sa peau. Fait allusion à l'agitation du démon mis en contact avec les symboles divins. Equivalent en russe : **как дьявол в чистилище**;
- *les diables bleus* – de l'anglais "the blue devils" - le cafard, la tristesse;
- *un grand diable* – un homme de grande taille, un escogriffe. Cette expression s'utilise avec une connotation sympathique;
- *un méchant diable* – un homme méchant;
- *messe du diable* – un interrogatoire;
- *un pauvre diable* (1611) – un pauvre homme, un malchanceux;
- *à porter le diable en terre* – être triste et désolé. Cette expression un peu désuète suppose ironiquement que le diable est un proche parent ou du moins une connaissance chère, dont on regrette amèrement la mort: «*La musique est pleine de caractère, mais triste à porter le diable en terre, comme toutes les musiques de montagnards* » (P.Mérimée);
- *à la diable* (1735) – sans soin, d'une manière désordonnée. Expression adverbiale qui tend à vieillir. *Diable* comporte ici la même valeur que lorsqu'il se dit des enfants turbulents. «*Formant le rideau de fond du quartier de cavalerie, les écuries s'accotaient l'une à l'autre, constructions banales et fragiles, bâties à la diable, de sable et de crachat* » (G.Courteline, Les Gaités de l'escadron);

- (*un froid*) *du diable, de tous les diables* (1789) – extrême, excessif, terrible. S'emploie avec des noms exprimant une action ou un phénomène capable d'intensité, plus rarement avec un nom concret. L'expression a une valeur plaisante, comme la précédente et suggère que la chose qualifiée a un caractère comiquement excessif, résultant de quelque action surnaturelle: « *Le soir, il entra à la boîte, et, comme, cette nuit-là, il fit un froid du diable, il en sortit avec une angine couenneuse qui nécessita son transport d'urgence à l'hôpital militaire* ». (G.Courteline, Les Gaités de l'escadron);
- *potin, raffut du diable* – grand bruit fait par des personnes qui parlent fort, crient, se disputent : « *Tout cela avait commencé par faire un raffut du diable, l'agitation des conversations, des protestations. Les agents étaient venus plusieurs fois engueuler leurs pensionnaires* » (L.Aragon, Beaux quart.);
- *pont du diable, passage du diable* – ce sont les noms de quelques localités de difficile accès;

b) Les expressions prädicatives

- *avoir le diable au corps* - déployer une énergie, une activité intense, une vivacité surhumaine. Au XVI s. on disait *avoir le diable à dos*. A partir du XIV s. cette expression s'employait sous diverses formes- *el corps, es corps, ou corps*. Ce sémantisme correspond à l'image de la possession, par laquelle on attribue à une puissance extérieure à l'homme la cause d'une activité irrépressible et jugée excessive ou peu naturelle. La métaphore de l'homme possédé et « agi » menace toute explication des troubles du comportement. Ici, le diable est le moteur du corps : «*Ce jour-là la mer avait le diable au corps, et la grotte avait l'air d'une chaudière bouillante* » (P.Mérimée). Synonymes: *se sentir le diable dans le ventre* – déployer une activité intense, se laisser aller à ses passions, ne pas être maître de ses passions; *le diable le berce* - se dit d'un homme inquiet et agité, et aussi d'un homme qu'une passion captive en une sorte d'extase. Equivalent en russe: **как будто дьявол вселился**;
- *avoir le diable à ses trousses* - courir à toute vitesse. Souvent on dit : *courir comme si on avait le diable à ses trousses*. Expression synonymique : *aller (comme) le diable*. Equivalent en russe: **как будто черти гонятся**;
- *il avalerait (mangerait) le diable et ses cornes* - il est très malin;
- *avoir un mal de diable (de cinq cents diables)* – faire qch. avec difficulté, à peine : «*Pendant trente ans, savez-vous, je me levais régulièrement à quatre heures du matin ! J'ai eu un mal des cinq cents diables à faire ma fortune* » (G.Flaubert. L'éducation sentimentale);

- *bruler la chandelle au diable* – appeler le diable au secours ; flatter un pouvoir injuste pour en obtenir quelque chose;
- *mener un train de diable* – faire beaucoup de bruit;
- *moucher la chandelle comme le diable moucha sa mère* locution qui vient, dit-on, de ce qu'un scélérat nommé le diable, ayant demandé à voir sa mère avant d'être exécuté, lui emporta, en l'embrassant, le nez avec les dents, lui reprochant la mauvaise éducation qu'il avait reçue d'elle, ou plutôt de ce que le diable, sous prétexte de moucher sa mère, lui fait quelque mauvais tour;
- *dire le diable de qn.* – en dire beaucoup de mal;
- *être battu du diable* – être sans repos : «*Beaucoup d'esprit et de grâce dans l'esprit, mais sans cesse battu du diable par son ambition, ses vues* » (Mémoires complets et authentiques du duc de Saint-Simon);
- *faire le diable contre qn.* – lui faire le plus de mal qu'on peut;
- *faire des mines de cinq cents diables* – faire un mauvais accueil: «*Mais cette fois, après Lutzen et Bautzen au lieu de se radoucir, les gens vous faisaient des mines de cinq cents diables; on ne pouvait rien en obtenir que par la force, enfin on se serait cru en Espagne ou en Vendée*» (Erckmann-Chatrian, l'Invasion);
- *faire la part du diable* – ne pas juger avec trop de rigueur les actions, la conduite d'une personne, et tenir compte de la faiblesse humaine;
- *se faire un sang du diable* – s'énervé: «*Le lendemain Raoul arriva à l'heure du dîner. Ma vieille logeuse avait préparé un poulet, elle s'était fait beaucoup de mauvais sang pour nous, et maintenant voulait fêter notre retour*» (E.Triolet, Personne ne m'aime);
- *faire des trafics des cinq cents diables* : «*- Ou donc est-il allé, ce chinois-là? dit madame Vauquer. - Est-ce qu'on sait? Il fait des trafics des cinq cents diables* (H. de Balzac, le Père Goriot). Expression synonymique : *aller au diable (à tous les diables, aux cent mille diables, à cinq cents diables)* (1835) - très loin, le plus loin possible: «*Si les choses s'étaient mieux tournées la vie aurait été bonne pour tous. Hé non, ce n'était pas la faute d'Antoine, c'était la faute de Leonie, sa fille à lui, celle qui était partie aux cinq cents diables* » (P.Gamarrà, Rosalie Brousse). Cette expression reprend le moyen français *au deable, au dyable soit* (XVs.) qui voue qqn au diable et, au figuré, l'écarte. S'emploie avec les verbes exprimant la situation dans l'espace (*habiter, loger,*) ou le déplacement (*s'en aller au diable (à tous les diables)*) et ne correspond alors qu'à l'idée de grand éloignement, de difficulté d'accès. Avec des verbes comme *envoyer (envoyer au diable)* la valeur sémantique devient «dans le lieu d'où l'on ne revient pas » (ce qui renforcée par un numéral *aux cent* *mille diables, à cinq cents diables*, dont la nature n'est d'ailleurs pas explicable (alors que à tous les diables s'impose);
- *habiter (loger) au diable* - habiter très loin. Equivalent en russe: **жить у черта на куличках**;
- *loger le diable dans sa bourse* – n'avoir plus d'argent: «*Fanny Beaupré s'était levée, et le jeune clerc, qui se vit comme elle l'objet de l'attention de toute la table, n'osa pas se retirer en disant que sa bourse logeait le diable* (H. de Balzac, Un Début dans la vie). A propos de cette expression il y a quelques versions dont une est qu'avant les pièces d'argent avaient l'image du roi et au revers l'image de croix. Puisque le diable a peur de croix, on disait «qu'il habitait dans les bourses vides »;
- *rester au diable* – s'éterniser, rester longtemps : «*Je m'en vais, dit-il. Je reste au diable*» (E.Zola, l'Assommoir);
- *tirer le diable par la queue* (1654 r.) – avoir de la peine à trouver de quoi vivre ; vivre avec des ressources insuffisantes. L'image de base est sans doute celle de l'homme qui essaie de retenir le diable qu'il a sollicité, à qui il a demandé une aide. Mais la formule *par la queue* signifie dans plusieurs expressions du XVII s. à l'envers, *par la fin* (égorcher l'anguille par la queue, brider son cheval par la queue). *Tirer le diable par la queue* pourrait bien être du même type et correspondre à «emmener, attirer le diable maladroitement, en s'y prenant à l'envers »: «*Le pauvre Joseph ne mangeait pas tous les jours à sa faim; à ce moment-là, il tirait le diable par la queue et avait du mal à joindre les deux bouts*» (M.Duran, José);
- *le diable pourrait mourir que je n'heriterais pas de ses cornes* (1752) – personne ne me donne rien;
- *il mangerait le diable et ses cornes* : 1. il devorerait tout ;2. il s'attaquerait à tout, rien ne lui fait peur. Dans ces expressions *les cornes* symbolisent la force expressive, bien diminuée par un usage trop fréquent du mot diable en locutions;
- *cela est torché à la diable* – cela est fait grossièrement;
- *faire un ramdam du diable* – faire du bruit insupportable;
- *cela se fera si le diable ne s'en mele* – c'est-à-dire pour peu qu'il n'y ait pas impossibilité;
- *cela ne se fera pas si le diable ne s'en mêle* - c'est-à-dire s'il ne survient pas quelque facilité inespérée;
- *c'est le diable* (1970) – c'est extrêmement difficile. Le diable a ici une valeur d'adjectif intensif. Dans le même sens, on rencontre : *c'est bien le diable, si...*Le négatif, ce n'est pas le diable, s'emploie absolument pour « ce n'est pas très difficile ». On notera que le diable évoque ici la difficulté, les complications et, encore une fois, l'activité intense, desordonnée, mais non pas le mal : « *C'est bien le*



- *diable si je ne trouve pas dans ce village un bistrot* » (J.Romains, Les Hommes de bonne volonté, t.V);
- *le diable ne le lui ferait pas faire, ne l'en ferait pas démordre*, - se dit d'un homme entêté, obstinément attaché à ses sentiments;
- *ce n'est pas le diable* – ce n'est pas la peine: «*Et bien! Quoi, Fauchery, ce n'est pas le diable! Répétait Nana, tâtant le terrain, voulant savoir ou en étaient les choses entre le mari et l'amant*» (E.Zola);
- *ne pas valoir le diable* - être sans valeur ;
- *faire le diable à quatre* – faire beaucoup de bruit en s'agitant. L'expression ne semble plus ancienne que le XVII s., son explication par les diableries médiévales à quatre personnages, qui remonte au XVIII s. et a été recopiée depuis, est très douteuse : deux siècles séparent les dernières diableries des premiers exemples attestés de l'expression. En outre, la syntaxe et le sens ne semblent pas concorder. *Faire à quatre* signifie en français moderne « être quatre pour le faire », alors que l'expression correspond à « s'agiter comme quatre diables ». Plus suggestive est l'expression *faire d'un diable quatre* (1458) qui renforce *faire d'un diable deux* (XIII s.) « aggraver la situation par une deuxième faute » et signifie « rendre le mal en l'aggravant ». Avec ce sens, la préposition à s'explique mal. On peut noter que à *quart* ou à *quartier* signifiait au XVI s. « à part, à l'écart », ce qui aurait pu susciter la forme : à *quatre* : «*Le mari, à ce qu'ils disent, est un jaloux qui ne veut pas qu'on fasse l'amour à sa femme, et il ferait le diable à quatre si cela venait à ses oreilles* » (Molière, George Dandin, I, 2);
- *le diable est bien fin* – se dit par avertissement à une personne pour qu'elle prenne garde à elle et qu'elle ne se laisse pas aller aux tentations, ni séduire ni suborner ;
- *le diable ne lui ferait pas faire cette chose* – on aurait bien de la peine à lui faire faire cette chose;
- *le diable n'y perd rien* – se dit d'une personne qui ne maîtrise ou ne contient ses sentiments qu'en apparence ou passagèrement, et aussi d'une personne qui dissimule ses souffrances. «*Vous saviez bien que vous seriez vengé sans coup férir, et que le diable n'y perdrait rien* » (Courier, Lettres de France et d'Italie) ;
- *que diable allait-il faire dans cette galère?*- Cette expression est emprunté d'une comédie de Molière « Les Fourberies de Scapin » : «*Scapin : C'est à vous, Monsieur, d'aviser promptement aux moyens de sauver des fers un fils que vous aimez avec tant de tendresse. Géronte : Que diable allait-il faire dans cette galère? Scapin : Une méchante destinée conduit quelquefois les personnes*». (Acte II, Scène VII. Molière, Les Fourberies de Scapin) ;
- *vendre son âme au diable* - faire quelque chose de mal, contre l'humanisme. Synonyme : *signer un*

- pacte avec le diable*. En russe: **продать душу дьяволу**;
- *quand le diable y serait* - même devant les plus grandes difficultés .L'expression vieillie;
- *on dirait que le diable s'en mele* – on dit d'une chose impossible à faire, qu'elle se
- *fera si le diable s'en mêle*. En azerbaïdjanais: **şeytan əməli** ;
- *se donner au diable (à tous les diables)*. - se dit lorsqu'on se donne beaucoup de mal, beaucoup de mouvement et de peine pour quelque chose : «*L'adjudant et sa troupe se donnaient au diable; déjà ils regardaient sérieusement du côté de la plaine, comme disposés à s'en retourner par où ils étaient venus* » (P.Mérimée, M.Falcone) ;
- *n'être pas si diable qu'on est noir* – ne pas être si méchant qu'on le dit ou qu'on le paraît. Synonyme : *il ne faut pas faire d'un diable deux*. En russe: **не так страшен черт, как его малюют**;
- *crever l'oeil au diable* - faire quelque chose en dépit de l'envie, s'avancer malgré les envieux;
- *le diable n'y verrait goutte*- se dit d'une affaire bien embrouillée. Synonyme: *le diable y perd son latin*. En russe: **сам черт не разберет**;

Il regarde le diable sur le poirier, il est louche-c'est-à-dire il a le regard aussi mal assuré que s'il eût aperçu tout à coup le diable sur un poirier.

III. EXPRESSIONS EXCLAMATIVES ET INTERJECTIONS

- *au diable l'avarice!* - accompagne la décision de faire une dépense ;
- *que diable!* - exclamation servant à attirer l'attention, à stimuler quelqu'un. Son sens est très différent de celui de *diable!* employé seul, qui marque l'étonnement (admiratif ou indigné), et résulte de l'insertion de *diable* dans une phrase interrogative (*que diable faisait-là ?* mais aussi *qui diable a bien pu lui dire ?* etc.) où il renforce l'intensité de la question. *Que* est alors pronom interrogatif, *que diable!* exclamatif conserve cette valeur intensive : «*Mais que diable, ce sont là les éléments, mon cher Sorel, êtes-vous tout à fait un écolier ?*» (Stendhal, Le Rouge et le Noir). En russe: **какого черта!**
- *le diable m'emporte si...!* – renforce une promesse, un engagement : «*Mais je ne sais pas l'histoire, parce que je ne sais rien. Le diable m'emporte si j'ai rien appris* » (Diderot, Le Neveu de Rameau). En russe : **черт бы меня побрал...**
- *que le diable t'emporte!* – exclamation répandue dans la langue classique, et qui, par sa fréquence, avait perdu sa valeur initiale de malédiction. Ce type d'exclamation, qui voue son objet au démon ou à la maladie a cédé la place à la simple expression de l'éloignement- va t'en promener! En russe: **черт бы тебя побрал!**

- *par le diable ! par tous les diables !* – jurement assez faible, diable permettant d'éviter le nom de Dieu : « *Comment ! avec ton mal de gorge tu as fait remplir ta gourde.- Oui ; mais, de par tous les diables, c'est de la tisane* » (Diderot, Jacques le Fataliste). En russe: **к черту, ко всем чертям!**
- *fi au diable !* - exclamation de mépris, d'aversion, de chagrin;
- *que diable, qui diable?* – est attesté depuis le XIV s. pour « que, qui... », avec une idée de perplexité (invocation discrète du diable).

IV. LES EXPRESSIONS COMPARATIVES

- *comme un beau diable* – avec une énergie extrême. S'emploi avec des verbes désignant des actions susceptibles de forte intensité (courir, sauter, se démener, crier): « *Actuellement je ne suis plus qu'un romancier, j'ai quitté "Le Figaro" et ne suis pas d'une façon effective au journal de Villemessant contre lequel je me débats comme un beau diable pour ne pas donner d'articles* » (E.Zola, Correspondence);
- *comme un diable sorti d'une boîte* - inopinément, brusquement. En russe: **как черт из табакерки**;
- *comme diable en miracle ou en miracles* - sans raison : « *Le personnel entre le cardinal de Noailles et les évêques de la Rochelle et de Luçon, où celui de Gap s'était fourré depuis comme diable en miracles* » (Mémoires complets et authentiques du duc de Saint-Simon);
- *s'agiter (se débattre, se demener) comme un diable dans un benitier* (1791) - renforcement du précédent, qui fait allusion à l'agitation du démon mis en contact avec les symboles divins;
- *crier comme le diable* – crier comme un fou;
- *il fait comme le valet du diable*. Variante: *il est comme le valet du diable* - cela se dit quand quelqu'un fait plus qu'on ne lui commande;
- *méchant comme le diable* – très méchant. En russe: **злой как черт** ;
- *se battre comme un diable (des diables)* – battre fort.

V. LES EXPRESSIONS PROVERBIALES

- *aux mariages et aux morts le diable fait son effort* – c'est-à-dire à chaque mariage, à chaque mort les caquets et les médisances vont grand train;
- *on ne peut peigner un diable qui n'a pas de cheveux* – à propos de quelque chose d'impossible à obtenir de quelqu'un qui en est dépourvu, réponse d'un débiteur au créancier obstiné, ne pas pouvoir obtenir un remboursement de qn. qui n'est pas solvable;
- *quand on parle du diable on en voit les cornes* - on utilise ce proverbe plutôt courtois quand quelqu'un apparaît alors qu'il était justement le cœur de la

conversation. En azerbaïdjanais: *şeytanın adını çək, qulağını bur* ;

- *le diable était beau quand il était jeune* – c'est-à-dire la jeunesse a toujours quelque beauté, même dans les personnes laides. Référence à l'histoire biblique, de l'ange qui était beau, avant d'être déchu : « Tu t'es enorgueilli de ta beauté, tu as laissé ta splendeur corrompre ta sagesse. Je te précipite à terre... »(Ezéchiel 28 :17);
- *le diable peut citer l'Écriture pour ses besoins* – cela signifie qu'une personne mal intentionnée peut cacher ses intentions malveillantes derrière de belles paroles ;
- *quand une personne est assise, les mains inoccupées, elle a sept diables dans son giron, et elle en berce un huitième* (proverbe islandais) – quand il n'y a rien à faire des idées folles viennent ;
- *quand le diable deviant vieux, il se fait ermite* – un comportement pieux et rangé
- dans un âge avancé peut souvent correspondre à un repentir tardif et a une jeunesse agitée ;
- *c'est le diable qui bat sa femme et marie sa fille* – se dit quand il pleut et qu'il fait du soleil en même temps ;
- *ce qui vient du diable retourne à l'enfer* – un mal acquis ne profite pas
- *le diable n'est pas toujours à la porte d'un pauvre homme*- c'est-à-dire on n'a pas toujours le malheur, la mauvaise chance contre soi ;
- *il vaut mieux tuer le diable que non pas que le diable vous tue*, ou, comme on dit plus souvent aujourd'hui, que *si le diable vous tue*, c'est-à-dire il vaut mieux dans la défense personnelle infliger à l'adversaire le mal qu'il veut faire. En azerbaïdjanais : *qara mənı basınca, mən qararı basım*;
- *les menteurs sont les enfants du diable* - mensonge vient du diable ;
- *le diable est aux vaches, est bien aux vaches*, c'est-à-dire tout est en confusion, ou bien il y a de la discorde.

Le mot « diable », employé comme complément déterminatif, est augmentatif et signifie extrême, excessif: *C'est un désordre du diable. Je lui veux un mal de diable. Avoir une peur de diable. Il fait un froid, un vent de tous les diables.*

Suivi d'un complément déterminé, «diable» signifie - singulier, bizarre, méchant, dangereux, etc. ; ou plutôt, gardant sa signification propre, il se construit avec la préposition de et un substantif, comme bonhomme, faquin, coquin : ce bonhomme de paysan, coquin de valet: *Un diable d'homme. Ces diables de gens. Un diable de ménage.* On remarquera que, en cet emploi, diable, si le substantif construit est féminin, devient adjectif : «*Cette diable de femme. Quelle diable de cérémonie !*» (Hamilton, Mémoires du chevalier de Grammont). Comme le diable, à côté de sa malice, peut

avoir quelque qualité, diable a été pris pour exprimer quelque chose de peu blâmable, ou même quelque chose de louable: *Un grand diable*, - un homme grand et dégingandé. *Un bon diable*, - un homme facile, de joyeuse humeur.

Il est à noter qu'en même temps il existe un certain nombre d'expressions contenant les deux mots « dieu » et « diable » à la fois :

- *donner une chandelle à Dieu et une au diable* – se ménager les partis opposés ;
- *ne connaître ni Dieu ni diable* – n'avoir aucun scrupule ;
- *ne craindre ni Dieu ni diable* – n'être arrêté par aucune crainte. Se dit d'un méchant homme ou d'un homme déterminé que rien n'arrête. En russe : **не бояться ни черта, ни дьявола;**
- *ne croire ni à Dieu, ni à diable*- être athée. En russe : **не верит ни в черта, ни в дьявола;**
- *devoir à Dieu et à diable* – avoir beaucoup de dettes. En russe : **быть в долгу и у черта, и у дьявола;**
- *veille Dieu, veille diable, je le ferai* - c'est-à-dire malgré tous les obstacles : « Soyez sûr, quelque chose qu'ils fassent, qu'homme, Dieu, ange, ni diable ne m'en feront pas dire davantage » (D'Alambert, Lettre à Voltaire, 20 janv. 1758).

Nous avons enregistré 121 expressions phraseologiques qui reflètent le concept « diable » en français, dont 18 ont des équivalents phraseologiques en russe et 2 en azerbaïdjanais.

La recherche effectuée nous a montré que les concepts "dieu" et "diable" sont bien présents dans la langue française, mais ils ont ses particularités nationales puisqu'ils n'ont pas autant d'équivalents en russe et en azerbaïdjanais. Parmi 92 expressions formées autour du concept "dieu" seulement 30 ont les équivalents en russe et 17 en ont en azerbaïdjanais. Parmi 121 expressions reflétant le concept "diable" seulement 20 expressions ont les équivalents en russe et 4 en azerbaïdjanais.

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India's Readiness on Innovation and Economic Growth: A Strategic Analysis

By Girish Srivastava & Dr. S. Chatterjee

Abstract- India enjoys a glorious path of educational excellence right from its ancient age. Nation has shown its supremacy in almost all the major markets of the world in Information and Communication Technology sector especially in the past two decades. Despite the fact that country has several success stories on card, it is still lagging in innovation and requires to excel better to maintain the rhythm of a sustained growth. The present education system, needs to be further strengthened to provide requisite impetus to produce more number of innovators and also facilitate the creation of the right eco-system. The present study has attempted to understand the policy initiatives of government and other agencies and also study the gap areas to provide suggestive measures for policy makers to create effective manpower motivate and encourage the growth engine of the innovation.

Keywords: innovation, technology.

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India's Readiness on Innovation and Economic Growth: A Strategic Analysis

Girish Srivastava ^α & Dr. S. Chatterjee ^σ

Abstract- India enjoys a glorious path of educational excellence right from its ancient age. Nation has shown its supremacy in almost all the major markets of the world in Information and Communication Technology sector especially in the past two decades. Despite the fact that country has several success stories on card, it is still lagging in innovation and requires to excel better to maintain the rhythm of a sustained growth. The present education system, needs to be further strengthened to provide requisite impetuosity to produce more number of innovators and also facilitate the creation of the right eco-system. The present study has attempted to understand the policy initiatives of government and other agencies and also study the gap areas to provide suggestive measures for policy makers to create effective manpower motivate and encourage the growth engine of the innovation.

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I. INTRODUCTION

Gurudev Ravindranath Tagore said "the highest education is that which does not merely give us information but makes our life in harmony with all existence." India is pioneer in education, knowledge and learning since ancient times. India has contributed the world, the concepts of zero, decimal and Pythagoras theorem. Importance of education in the country had been established from 3 century BC. The country had created most advanced universities including Taxila, Vikramshila and Nalanda, which served as a melting-pot of knowledge attracting global students to learn mathematics, medicine, astrology, fine arts, philosophy and architecture.

A striking example of India's fore-sighted approach to education was Nalanda (5 to 13 century BC). This university emerged as the most prominent destination for higher education, not only for India but also for the neighboring South Asian region. The campus constituted eight colleges, including a multi-storied facility to accommodate the needs to the various courses on offer. The institute had well-charted curriculum in varied disciplines and also developed excellent educational infrastructure to provide a conducive environment for learning. Nalanda is an excellent example of a well - thought out holistic campus

constituting a residential cum institutional complex, accommodating around 10,000 students and teachers during its times.

Despite having a glorious past, India lacks in translating its innovation driven economy in last two centuries. India had created a fairly good number of institutes in higher education and also created infrastructure to provide education to the substantial number of students. The quality of the students graduated from these institutes was not adequate and need enhanced skill sets in order to count them as quality work force. The monitoring mechanism of higher education system needs thorough overhauling to provide desired objective of quality workforce. Regulatory framework should be strengthened to create effective accreditation process to ensure quality education from higher education organizations. India's educational system is passing through an interesting crossroad with numerous opportunities as well as unprecedented challenges to attain the goal of a knowledge based economy. India is faced with the challenge of not only creating infrastructure to meet this demand, but at the same time ensure quality. A holistic and in depth analysis of the existing education would be needed to understand various measures required to be made to evolve a road map for effective and efficient eco-system conducive for innovation driven economy.

This article has attempted to study the existing education system in India and analyze the short comings so that policy and strategy measures could be devised required to further strengthen the system to promote the innovation from the school level.

II. EXISTING EDUCATIONAL INFRASTRUCTURE

India has a vast higher education network. India is the third largest education system in the world after China and US as per the enrolment records. Renowned universities like Calcutta University, Visva Bharti University (Shantiniketan and Sriniketan), Banaras Hindu University, Allahabad University, Jamia Millia Islamia to name a few were established during the pre-independence era. Despite such a lineage, only a handful of higher education institutes (HEIs) have been able to make a global mark. The emergence of institutions in higher education has come up during post independence era, which thereby created a global impact as well as bringing prominence on the world map. Indian Institutes of Technology (IIT), Indian Institutes of

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Management (IIM), and Jawaharlal Nehru University were included in the list of the world's top 200 universities published by The Times Higher Education during 2005 and 2006. Moreover, Birla Institute of Technology and Science (BITS) - Pilani was listed among the top 20 science and technology schools in Asia by Asiaweek. The Indian School of Business (ISB), Hyderabad was at 15th position in global MBA rankings by the Financial Times of London in 2009, while the All India Institute of Medical Sciences (AIIMS) has been recognized as a global leader in medical research and treatment.

Though, higher education in India has recorded an impressive growth, the standards of a majority of institutes are, however, poor. Large number of small institutes is operating with un-viable models. Deficiencies of the system has resulted in the churning out of graduates lacking skill sets to find suitable employment despite acute shortage of skilled manpower in various sectors. An effort has thus been made to examine the possible options to create viable physical infrastructure for institutions offering higher education in this study.

India is a fast growing democracy. Having suitably skilled man-power is important to fuel the growth of the service sector. India is striving for a position of leadership, competing with economies of Brazil, Russia and China. To achieve this objective, the country has to ensure the development of adequately developed human resource to drive the economy and attain global excellence.

Education is a force that fuels global economies. Quality and quantity of the skilled manpower determine the competency of the society in the global market. Higher education is no longer a luxury; it is essential to national, social and economic development. Higher Education provides people with an opportunity to reflect on the critical social, economic, cultural, moral and spiritual issues facing humanity. It contributes to national development through dissemination of specialized knowledge and skills. Being at the apex of the educational pyramid, it plays a key role in producing quality teachers for the country's education. In the context of unprecedented need of explosion in knowledge, higher education has to be dynamic as ever, constantly entering uncharted areas¹.

The National Policy on Education-1986, revised in 1992 (NPE) stated that in Higher Education in general and Technical Education in particular, steps would be taken to facilitate inter-regional mobility by providing equal access to every Indian of requisite merit regardless of his origins. The universal character of Universities and other Institutions of Higher Education was to be underscored. Special measures would be taken in the areas of research and development and science and technology to establish network arrangements between different Institutions in the

country to pool their resources in such a way that participation in projects of national importance could be made accessible.

Approach paper of XII Plan indicated that there must be a strategic shift from mere expansion to improvement in quality higher education. The focus should be not only on larger enrollment, but also on the quality of the expansion. An additional enrollment of 10 million could be targeted, during the Twelfth-Plan period, in higher education equivalent to 3 million additional seats for each age cohort entering the higher education system. This would significantly increase the Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) bringing it broadly in line with the global average.

III. PRESENT STATUS OF GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Access to higher education is measured by GER in higher education, which measures the access level by taking the ratio of persons in all age group enrolled in various programmes to total population in age group of 18 to 23. Government has set a target of increasing the GER from the level of about 12% to 15% by the end of XI Five Year Plan and to 30% by 2020.

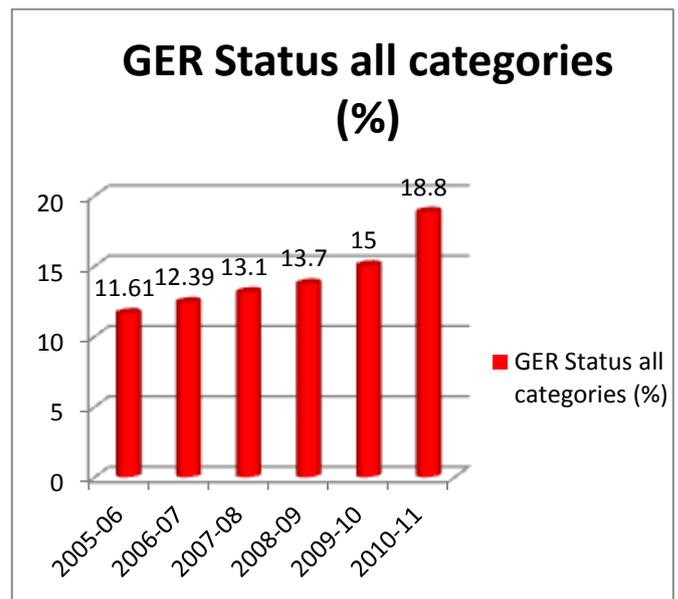


Figure 1 : GER Status

It may be seen from the Figure 1 that in Higher Education, the GER of the country has increased to 18.8% in 2011-12 from 11.55% in 2005-06 indicating increase of 6.45 % point². The phenomenal growth of 3.35 % point in GER has been witnessed between 2010-11 to 2011-12, which clearly show that higher education system is more or less on track and the trend required to be continued to achieve the target of 30% GER by 2020.

Table 1 : Structure of Education system in India

Age (yr)	Standard	Education	
5-6	-	Pre-primary	
6-14	I to VIII	Elementary Education	
		Formal	Non-formal
		Primary school and Upper primary school	
15-16	IX to X	Secondary Education	Technical Education/ITI
		Formal school	
17-18	XI to XII	Senior Secondary Education	Polytechnics
		Formal school	
Higher Education/ Undergraduate course			
19-23	XIII to XV	BA/BSC/BCOM/BED (3yrs) + PG Univ. (2yrs) & BE/BTECH, MBBS (4 yrs)	
> 24	> XVII	MTECH/MD/MS/PhD	
		Formal University	Open University

a) Structure of education in India

The Constitution of India underlines education as one of the fundamental rights (Constitution of India Part III, article 21) as per the 86th Constitutional Amendment Act. Education forms part of the 'concurrent list' of the constitution. Our education structure can be categorized into 3 heads: elementary, secondary and higher education (Table 1)³, which is commonly referred to as 10 + 2 + 3 model.

The government has introduced the Right to Education Bill, which mandates free and compulsory education for all children between ages of 6-14 years. The Constitutional Amendment Act, 2002 inserted Article 21-A in the Constitution of India to provide free and compulsory education of all children in the age group of six to fourteen years as a Fundamental Right in such a manner as the State may, by law, determine.

The Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education (RTE) Act, 2009⁴, which represents the consequential legislation envisaged under Article 21-A, means that every child has a right to full time elementary education of satisfactory and equitable quality in a formal school which satisfies certain essential norms and standards. Every child shall be liable to pursue and complete elementary education. It will be the responsibilities of the government to ensure compulsory education to those children, whose parents are unable to pay the requisite expenses of the education. 'Compulsory education' casts an obligation on the appropriate Government and local authorities to provide and ensure admission, attendance and completion of elementary education by all children in the 6-14 yrs age groups. A rights based framework has thus been implemented that casts a legal obligation on the Central and State Governments to implement this fundamental child right as enshrined in the Article 21A of the Constitution, in accordance with the provisions of the RTE Act.

IV. FACTORS CONTRIBUTE TO THE EVOLUTION OF EDUCATION SECTOR

a) Growth of the services sector

India, after becoming a trillion dollar economy, has seen a gradual decrease in manual jobs and an increase in jobs requiring intellectual capabilities. The growth story overall and services of world and India began from almost the same level of around 4-5 % in 2000. But over the years, India's overall and services growth rates have outpaced those of the world. Interestingly, unlike world services growth, which has been moving in tandem with its overall growth with mild see-saw movements over the years, India's services growth has been consistently above its overall growth in the last decade except for 2003. Thus, this sector has been pulling up the growth of the Indian economy for more than a decade with a great amount of stability. The share of services in India's GDP at factor cost increased from 33.3 % in 1950-1 to 56.5 % in 2012-13 as per Advance Estimates. Including construction, the share would increase to 64.8 % in 2012-13.⁵

b) Demographic profile

The population in the age group ranging from 15-24 years constitutes approximately 19% of the total population of the country, making higher education an attractive proposition for the nation. India has a demographic advantage with 70% of its population between 10-60 years of age, unlike the developed economies where the population in the working age group is shrinking at an accelerated pace, leading to higher dependency ratios. As per the census of 2011, 31.2% of the population was below the age of 15. There is thus, a very strong domestic demand for higher education, which has contributed to the expansion of educational infrastructure on a large scale in diverse fields of science, engineering, architecture, management, technology and health care⁶.

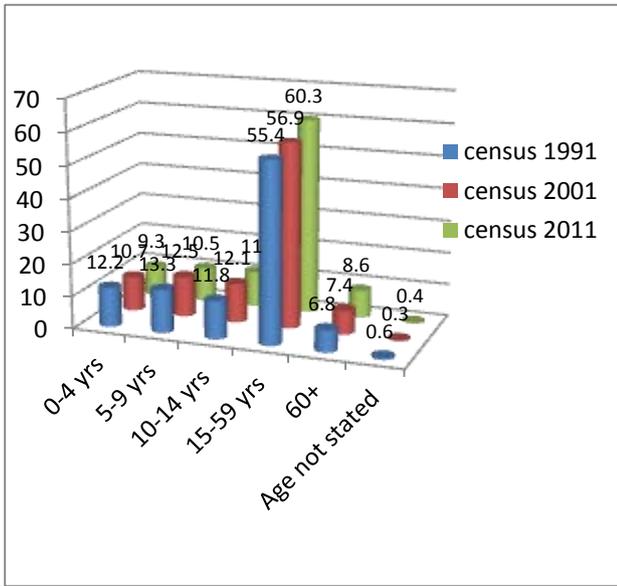


Figure 2 : Percentage of population in selected age groups⁶: 1991-2011

c) *Rising Income*

Rising income levels and increased purchasing power parity have together contributed in reducing the number of households in the lower income bracket of Indian society. The average household disposable income is likely to increase at a CAGR of 3.6% for the rural areas and 5.8% for the urban areas between 2005 and 2025. The average consumption in the mid income bracket (consuming and climbers category) is also expected to increase considerably with a CAGR of around 20% from INR1.8 trillion (INR180,0000 Millions) to INR11.1 trillion (INR1,110,0000 Millions) during the period of 2005 to 2015 in the urban areas⁷. On the other hand, the rural areas are likely to grow at only half the rate (when compared with urban areas) with a CAGR of around 10% from INR1.3 trillion (INR130,0000 Millions) to INR3.5 trillion (INR350,0000 Millions) during the same time period.

d) *Shortage of skilled manpower*

According to the estimates only quarter of all the graduates from Indian colleges are employable and about 80% of the job seekers are without professional qualification. The education system is not structured to produce students equipped with a skill-set that would be desirable in the job market. It is crucial for the education system to provide facilities to rectify this. During the Twelfth Five Year Plan, the intake of technical education institutions needs to grow at an estimated 15% annually, to meet the skilled manpower requirement of our growing economy⁸.

e) *Focus on Higher Education*

Higher education is critical for developing a modern economy, a just society and a vibrant polity. It

equips young people with skills relevant for the labour market and the opportunity for social mobility. It provides people already in employment with skills to negotiate rapidly evolving career requirements. It prepares all to be responsible citizens who value a democratic and pluralistic society. Thus, the nation creates an intellectual repository of human capital to meet the country's needs and shapes its future. Indeed, higher education is the principal site at which our national goals, developmental priorities and civic values can be examined and refined.

It is estimated that developed economies and even China will face a shortage of about 40 million highly skilled workers by 2020, while, based on current projections of higher education, India is likely to see some surplus of graduates in 2020. Thus, India could capture a higher share of global knowledge based work, for example by increasing its exports of knowledge intensive goods and services, if there is focus on higher education and its quality is globally benchmarked. The country cannot afford to lose time. The demographic bulge evident in India's population pyramid is encountering lower fertility rates, leading to a rapid slowdown in population growth rates and a looming decline of the population in the prime educable age up to 25 years within the next couple of decades^{7,8}.

Despite considerable progress during the Eleventh Plan, less than one-fifth of the estimated 120 million potential students are enrolled in HEIs in India, well below the world average of 26%. Wide disparities exist in enrolment percentages among the States and between urban and rural areas while disadvantaged sections of society and women have significantly lower enrolments than the national average. The pressure to increase access to affordable education is steadily increasing with the number of eligible students set to double by 2020⁹. At the same time, significant problems exist in the quality of education provided. The sector is plagued by a shortage of well-trained faculty, poor infrastructure and outdated and irrelevant curricula. The use of technology in higher education remains limited and standards of research and teaching at Indian universities are far below international standards with no Indian university featured in any of the rankings of the top 200 institutions globally.

V. GROWTH TRENDS

Higher education in India has experienced phenomenal growth of since independence. The Universities increased by 29 times, whereas, the Colleges have increased by 71times since the time of independence. Similarly, the enrollment has also registered tremendous growth. At the beginning of Academic year 2011-12, the total number of students enrolled in the formal system like Universities and Colleges, in Technical Education, Institutes and its

intake had substantially been increased¹⁰. The statistical overview of the higher education system, showed in Table 2, indicated the phenomenal growth in academic Institutions as well as in intake, enrolment etc. since independence¹¹.

Table 2 : Statistical Overview of Higher Education System Growth

No. of Institutions/ Enrolment	2010-11	2011-12
Universities	523	574
Colleges	33023	35539
AICTE approved Technical Institutions	11809	13507
Distance Teaching Universities/ Institutions	200	200
Enrolment in the Universities and Colleges(in Millions)	16.98	20.33
Enrolment in Open Distance Learning(ODL) System(in Millions)	3.745	3.856
Enrolment in Post School Diploma/PG Diploma(in Millions)	1.86	2.302
Intake in AICTE approved Technical Programmes (in Millions)	2.62	3.01

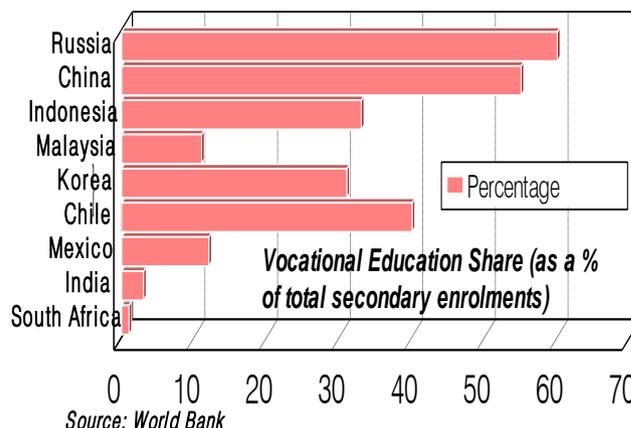
The growth of higher education in India since independence was substantial. The 20 Universities at the time of independence had increased by 29 times to 574, where number of Colleges (500) had enhanced to 71times (i.e. 35539)¹⁰.

At the national level vocational education in India comes under the purview of All India Council for Vocational Education (AICVE), under the aegis of Ministry of Human Resource Development (MHRD). AICVE is responsible for planning, coordinating and guiding the programme at the national level. The State Councils for Vocational Education (SCVE) functions state level. Vocational education in India refers to courses offered post secondary through a centrally sponsored scheme termed as "vocationalization of secondary education". The purpose of vocational education would be:

- Enhance individual employability
- Reduce the disparity between demand and supply of skilled manpower
- Provide alternatives for those pursuing higher education without particular objective or goal.
- There are around 6,800 schools (almost all under the public sector) offering vocational education. Around 4,00,000 students are enrolled in these schools. This enrolment utilizes merely 40% of the capacity of these institutes. The vocational education institutes are managing to attract a mere

3% of the 14 Million students in grades 11 and 12. These institutes offer over 100 courses in the field of agriculture, business and commerce, humanities, engineering and technology, home science, health and para medical skills¹².

Table 3 : International scenario of vocational secondary education



As compared to other countries the number of students entering vocational education in India appears to be rather low at 3% of the total secondary enrolments. In order to give a boost to vocational education, government proposed a scheme to target students, in the tenth five year plan that would include early school dropouts, skilled and semi skilled workers and unemployed youth of the country. The scheme provided for ITIs, polytechnics and the NGOs to deliver courses to these students. The informal sector contributes to nearly 59% of the GDP and employs nearly 91.4% of the work force¹³. This sector needs to be targeted for vocational training.

A major restructuring of the vocational education system is required to ensure that it responds efficiently to the needs of the growing economy like India. There is also a need to encourage private sector participation in management and curriculum design of the vocational education to bring about a system that allows graduates from these institutes to directly get absorbed in the labour market.

VI. INITIATIVES IN THE TWELFTH FIVE YEAR PLAN FOR HIGHER EDUCATION

The expansion undertaken in the Eleventh Plan had enhanced the rising aspirations of young people, improved schooling, jobs created with economic growth. It was realized that the skill-based technical change would require higher levels of education. Indian higher education moved from 'elite' to 'mass' higher education (threshold of 15% GER) during the Eleventh Plan, and the trend is now moving towards universal higher education (threshold of 50 % GER). It was felt

necessary to offer a wider, diverse range of education, where student should acquire skills in multiple disciplines along with a solid core set of skills. Further expansion will therefore require a re-examination of the design, organisation, definition, and purpose of higher education to embrace these needs.

The Twelfth Plan strives to create diverse education opportunities to cater to the growing number of students passing out of higher secondary classes on the one hand and the diverse needs of the economy and society on the other. Four key principles would, therefore, drive the strategy for higher education expansion in the Twelfth Plan. Firstly, expansion must focus on locations, States, subject areas/disciplines, and types of institutions where current capacity is low, instead of creating additional capacity across the board. Secondly, it was ensured that expansion must be aligned to the country's economy. A variety of HEIs offering innovative and relevant curricula, therefore, designed to serve different segments of the job market or provide avenues for self-employment must be developed. Specific emphasis must be given to the expansion of skill-based programmes in higher education.

Thirdly, the relative strengths of different types of institutions were harnessed to serve different needs. Central institutions were assisted to become quality-leading institutions. State institutions would support to expand further and simultaneously address equity issues and improve quality. The philanthropic sector was invited and incentivised to infuse more funds and build larger, sustainable and higher quality private institutions. New models of Public-Private Partnership (PPP) in higher education were encouraged not only for technology intensive education but also for multidisciplinary and research-based education. Open and distance-learning was used to widen access in a cost-effective and flexible manner. Fourthly, overall, expansion would carefully plan to provide better access to the poor and disadvantaged social groups and first generation learners from backward areas.

a) *Develop Central Institutions as Quality- Leading Institutions*

The salient features of Twelfth Plan initiatives as under:

- i. Enrolment in existing Central institutions would be targeted from 0.6 Million to 1.2 Million students. Central fund would be used to create only research and innovation based institutions or exemplar institutions.
- ii. Older Central institutions would be financially supported to redevelop campuses to achieve scale and build state-of-the-art facilities. In some cases, multiple campuses would be encouraged to enable economies of scale and institutional efficiency. The campuses were chosen for up-gradation to IIT-level

includes ISM Dhanbad, BESU Shibpur and NIFFT Ranchi. HEIs with potential credential in falling in the UTs under the administrative control of Central Government would also be upgraded. These institutes are PEC University of Technology and Chandigarh College of Architecture.

- iii. Enrolment in Central institutions would be role models for other institutions in all aspects including governance, infrastructure, faculty and curricula. They can help define new building technologies in infrastructural development, use of fixed-cost and time EPC contracts and PPP models for the basic infrastructure. They could assist other institutions to improve standards, especially in the States or regions where they are located. New Central institutions could build vibrant innovation clusters along with State and private institutions and other enterprises.
- iv. Central funding to State for higher education, its reach and its impact were insignificant. These funds were poorly being utilised in the past due to bureaucratic complicacy, inefficient monitoring and poor quality of outcomes. State higher education would get significantly more Central funding during the Twelfth Plan. Central funding would be done on a State-specific basis for higher education and to be allocated for the State's higher education system as a whole. The fund would however continue flow to individual universities and colleges via the University Grants Commission (UGC) as earlier. Allocation and flow of Central funds to State universities and colleges would be worked out through a consultative process. The UGC would play a strategic role in allocation and disbursal of Central funds, and also strategic investment plans as proposed by institutions on a selective basis.
- v. The strategic shift in Twelfth Plan includes enabling a State system-wide planning perspective and benefit from the synergy in spending by the Central and State Government. The States would develop comprehensive State higher education plans that utilise an interconnected strategy to address issues of expansion, equity and excellence together. Central funding would be linked to academic, administrative and financial reforms of State higher education. The funding to be provided through a flagship programme: Rashtriya Uchcha Shiksha Abhiyan (RUSA).

VII. GAP IN EDUCATION INFRASTRUCTURE

India has one of the largest higher education systems in the world, with 25.9 million students enrolled in more than 45,000 degree and diploma institutions in the country. It has witnessed particularly high growth in the last decade, with enrollment of students increasing

at a CAGR of 10.8% and institutions at a CAGR of 9%. India's higher education networks are also robust with over 25,000 colleges and 500 universities and university-level institutions. While the gross enrolment ratio (GER) has seen close to a seventy fold increase in the past six decades, the number of teachers has seen slightly over a twenty fold increase. This has resulted in a pupil to teacher ratio of 40, which is double the global average¹⁰.

However, despite the increase in enrolment, the GER at 18% in Eleventh Five Year Plan is still lower than the average for Asian countries at 22% and the world average at 23.2%. India is still way behind when compared to countries such as USA at 83%, Sweden at 82% and Norway at 80%. The Government intends to achieve enrollment of 35.9 million students in higher education institutions, with a GER of 25.2% at the end of the Twelfth Five Year Plan. These would be achieved through the co-existence of multiple types of institutions including research-centric, teaching and vocation-focused ones.

A historic increase in the total planned outlay in higher education has been allocated during the Twelfth Five Year plan to meet this colossal demand. Policies interventions such as the integrated township policy make the provision of education institutions mandatory. The manifestation of some education centric real estate formats have thus emerged. Some of such initiatives were "Knowledge clusters", e.g. Rajiv Gandhi Education city to foster a development of institutes with shared facilities, Lavasa, being developed as a "city with education as its back-bone". Information, communication and technology (ICT) is a welcome development considering the challenges in monitoring the quality of physical infrastructure. It has played a crucial role in dramatically increasing outreach without bearing the cost of construction or maintenance for physical infrastructure. Structured initiatives such as education development index monitor the progress of efforts under various schemes for schools.

In contrast, measures available to monitor the quality of higher education institutes are still limited. Nearly 40% of colleges under the purview of UGC do not receive any assistance as they do not fulfill the minimum quality requirement specified under section 12 (b) (for physical infrastructure and human resources). The UGC has set up the National Assessment and Accreditation Council (NAAC), which functions as an autonomous rating agency. Ironically, there is no regulation that mandates this accreditation, which to date remains a voluntary effort, initiated by the institute itself. These developments have brought India's educational status to an interesting crossroad with numerous opportunities as well as unprecedented challenges to attain the goal of a knowledge based economy. India is faced with the challenge of not only creating infrastructure to meet this demand, but at the same time ensure quality¹⁴.

VIII. CHALLENGES TO THE INDIAN HIGHER EDUCATION

India achieved 18% of Gross Enrollment Ratio (GER) during the Eleventh Plan period (2007–2012)¹⁵. At the beginning of the Plan period GER was 12.3%. The Government has also provided the desired thrust to boost higher education in its Five Year Plans. India's higher education system, however, faces challenges on three fronts¹⁶:

1. Expansion: India's GER of 18% was much below the world average of 27%, as well as that of other emerging countries such as China (26%) and Brazil (36%) in 2010.
2. Excellence:
 - Faculty shortage - 40% and 35% shortage of faculty in state and central universities, respectively.
 - Accredited institutions - 62% of universities and 90% of colleges were average or below average in 2010, on the basis of their NAAC accreditation.
 - Low citation impact - India's relative citation impact is half the world average.
3. Equity :
 - wide disparity exists in the Gross Attendance Ratio (GAR) and GER of higher education across states and in urban and rural areas and gender- and community-wise
 - Inter-state disparity - 48% in Delhi vs. 9% in Assam.
 - Urban-rural divide - 30% in urban areas vs. 11% in rural areas.
 - Differences across communities - 14.8% for OBCs, 11.6% for SCs, 7.7% for STs and 9.6% for Muslims.
 - Gender disparity - 15% for females vs. 19% for males.

IX. POLICY REFORMS TO ENCOURAGE INNOVATION

Improvement in higher education will boost the restructuring of academic programmes to cater to modern market demands; domestic and global linkages with employers and external advisory resource support groups. Greater emphasis on recruitment of adequate and good quality teachers and complete revamping of teaching methods by shifting from traditional repetitive experiments to open-ended design-oriented work for encouraging invention and research would be important policy measures. The compulsory interactive seminar-tutorials, broadening the content of Science and engineering programmes to strengthen fundamental concepts, improving learning opportunities and conditions by updating text books and learning material, and improving self-directed learning with modern aids and development of IT network would be other few key strategic measures would boost the conducive educational eco-system.

Several legislative initiatives have been initiated by the Government through reforms and policy measures to improve the eco-system. Following legislative proposals to reform in Higher Education are in active consideration¹⁷:

- i. Higher Education and Research Bill 2011:- The Bill would establish an over-arching authority called National Commission for Higher Education and Research for determining, maintaining and coordinating standards in Higher Education. The Bill was introduced in the Rajya Sabha on 28.12.2011. The Department related Parliamentary Standing Committee (PSC) had submitted its report on the Bill, which was under examination in the Ministry.
- ii. The Educational Tribunals Bill, 2011:- The Bill would provide a mechanism for adjudication of disputes involving stake-holders in the higher education sector including students, teachers, employees of higher educational institutions universities and institutions and statutory regulatory authorities, so as to reduce litigation in courts involving universities and higher education institutions. The Bill was examined for certain amendments to define the Central Educational Institutions. The requisite amendment was made to satisfy the definition indicated in the Central Educational Institutions (Reservation in Admission) Act, 2006. This Bill was introduced in Parliament on 3rd May, 2010 and was passed by the Lok Sabha on 26th August, 2010.
- iii. The Prohibition of Unfair Practices in Technical Education Institutions, Medical Educational Institutions, and Universities Bill, 2010:- This Bill would prohibit certain unfair practices of medical and professional educational institutions and universities to protect the interests of students and applicants seeking admission to such institutions and for allied matters. It would ensure the institution to mandatorily publish the relevant information on its website in the form of prospectus in addition to publication of a printed prospectus. This Bill would modify and amend the clauses relating to adjudication of penalties etc. by National Education Tribunal and State Educational Tribunals, so as to de-link the Bill from the Educational Tribunal Bill, 2010 and restore adjudication of penalties to civil courts. This Bill was introduced in Parliament on 3rd May, 2010 and was referred to the Parliamentary Standing Committee on Human Resource Development. Amendments made were a mechanism for redressal of grievances of applicants for admission, students, teachers and other employees of the higher educational institution and the time limit specified for the redressal of such grievances. It would be mandatory to disclose adherence to reservations provisions in public funded institutions and policy frame work in place in private un-aided institutions to account for addressing equity concerns. The Bill ensured punishments and penalties for nonadherence to the clauses.
- iv. The National Accreditation Regulatory Authority for Higher Educational Institutions Bill, 2010:- The Bill ensures mandatory accreditation of all higher educational institutions through accreditation agencies registered by a regulatory authority created for the purpose at the national level. It is also proposed that higher education institutions established by State Governments will apply to accreditation agencies owned and controlled by such State Governments only. This Bill was introduced in Parliament on 3rd May, 2010 and subsequently referred to Parliamentary Standing Committee on Human Resource Development (HRD). The composition of the Authority proposed under the Bill had been expanded by increasing the number of Members to 8 and providing representation to OBCs, minorities, SC, ST and women.
- v. The National Academic Depository Bill, 2011:- The Bill provides for creation of a National Electronic Database of academic awards and its maintenance by an authorized depository and has been introduced in the Lok Sabha on 5.9.2011 and was referred to the Parliamentary Standing Committee on HRD. The Report of the PSC has been received and official amendments are being finalized.
- vi. The Universities for Research and Innovation Bill, 2012: The Bill ensures the establishment and incorporation of Universities for Research and innovation to promote synergies between teaching and research and to create institutions universally recognised for quality in teaching, learning and research. The Bill was introduced in Parliament (Lok Sabha) on 21.05.2012. The Department related Parliamentary Standing Committee (PSC) has submitted its report on the Bill and the same is under examination in the Ministry.
- vii. The Foreign Educational Institutions (Regulation of Entry and Operations) Bill, 2010:- The Bill seeks to regulate of entry and operations of Foreign Educational Institutions, including technical and medical institutions, imparting or intending to impart higher education in India. The Bill was introduced in the Lok Sabha on 3.5.2010. Department related Parliamentary Standing Committee (PSC) has submitted its report on the Bill. Based on the recommendation of the PSC certain amendments has been carried out in the Bill which are under finalisation.
- viii. National Institute of Technology (Amendment) Act, 2010:- To make National Institute of Technology Act, 2007 more comprehensive and effective. Following amendments were proposed :-

1. Existing transitional provisions of the NIT Act, 2007 to be strengthened.
2. Representation to be given from nearby premier Central Institution in the Board of Governors of NITs.
3. 10 new NITs located in the States of Sikkim, Arunachal Pradesh, Manipur, Nagaland, Meghalaya, Mizoram, Uttarakhand, Delhi, Goa and Pondicherry to be introduced as Institutions of National Importance.
4. To amend the procedure for appointment of Deputy Director in NITs; and
5. To incorporate Indian Institutes of Science Education and Research (IISERs) in the NIT Act by making suitable provision in the NIT Act, 2007. The NIT (Amendment) Act, 2012 received assent of the President of India on the 7th June, 2012 and since then the 10 new NITs and five IISERs are functioning under the ambit of the NIT Act, 2007.
6. Indian Institute of Information Technology Bill, 2013: To ensure uniformity and autonomy in governance in respect of all the IIITs, as also to declare them as institutions of national importance a Bill, namely, Indian Institutes of Information Technology Bill, 2013 has been formulated and introduced in the Lok Sabha on 18.03.2013. The Bill will be a novel experiment as both the Central Government institutions and the institutions recognises the need to develop new knowledge in information technology and to provide manpower of global standards development of industries set up in partnership with the State Government and industry are sought to be covered under a single legislation. It recognises the need to develop new knowledge in information technology and to provide manpower of global standards for the information technology industry which would in turn contribute to the development of industries.

X. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIVE MEASURES TO ADDRESS THE GAP AREAS

India is still at a nascent stage in comparison to many of its global peers in the field of innovation. The challenges being faced by the Indian companies in recent years require major transformation to generate innovative capabilities to excel better in the current era of the knowledge economy. Innovation in present context is about creation of new economic value with breakthrough ideas, which would be widely adopted. Innovation could perhaps evolve when love and passion are mixed with certain development. Steve Jobs could do that as he was intensely in love with calligraphy¹⁷.

India's traditional education system evolved from a risk-averse society, preferred comfort zones. The

system tends to be hierarchical and respectful socially to break out of well-trodden paths. Experts felt that physically Indian are poorly nutritious, habitant of pollution ridden and cramped spaces. Indian carries historical baggage, dwelling in past glories. These are however true for other Asian countries, which are far ahead of us in innovation. Indian is habituated to play safe and pursue well-defined paths rather than attempt new experimentation. It hardly accepts difference of opinion or the diversity in thought level. India could not yet harvest adequate experience from large-scale failures and success. In other successful nation, from every failure people see the capacity to make new progress¹⁷.

The promise of sustainable and inclusive innovation comes from start-ups and social enterprises, as they are more flexible, have higher risk-taking capabilities and are driven by passion. Innovation is happening in literature, music and performance arts attributed to the right brain. In last two decades, Indian literature, cinema and music had a huge upsurge and having global appeal and relevance. In the social and creative sectors, India is far ahead of industry because these sectors are able to take a longer view of time, and innovation requires time.

Unfortunately, in traditional Indian organizations always maintain hierarchies. Academic institutes, research organization, public sector and even most of the private companies always follow the stereo type bureaucratic processes, thus discourage change and hence deprived of innovative ideas. Application of better solutions meeting new requirements, inarticulate needs, and catering existing market demands requires innovation. This could be accomplished through evolving effective products, processes, services, technologies, or ideas that are readily available to markets, governments and society¹⁷.

India's higher education system requires to look into all these aspects. The forthcoming system should be better aligned to industry and global practices. The system needs more transparency and inclusive by the end of Twelfth Plan period. The Twelfth Plan initiatives are expected to create an enabling regulatory environment and effective implementation, monitoring and quality assurance mechanisms. Following would be suggestive measures to address the gap and challenges:

- a) *Merit-based student financing:* To ensure admissions to meritorious students independent of financial background
- b) *Internationalization of education:* To entail aligning different aspects of education (curriculum, faculty, etc) to international standards
- c) *More Fund to research and development:* India's R&D spending needs to be enhanced many fold. India's total R&D budget is less than \$3 billion

whereas General Motors alone has an annual R&D budget of \$10 billion¹⁸.

- d) *Encourage more researchers*: lower no. of students going for higher education and research.
- e) *Enabling a research environment*: To involve creating adequate means of research funding and practical application of research.
- f) *High quality faculty*: To create a conducive environment and provide incentives to attract and retain high quality faculty.
- g) *Improved technology for education delivery*: To leverage technology for enhancing the teaching-learning experience to ensure better outcomes.
- h) *Employability*: To ensure effective linkages of education-industry to ensure a highly employable talent pool.
- i) *Private sector participation*: Private sector has played an instrumental role in the growth of the education sector. Private institutions now account for 64% of the total number of institutions and 59% of enrollment in the country, as compared to 43% and 33%, respectively, a decade ago. The private sector can be expected to play an instrumental role in the achievement of these outcomes through the creation of knowledge networks, research and innovation centers, corporate-backed institutions, and support for faculty development.
- j) *Lack of faith and initiatives*: Indian software companies have been upgrading old products but not developing new lines and developing technology needs creation of culture that encourages risk-taking and innovation.
- k) *Poor implementation*: Lot of good ideas are available, however, implementation of these ideas and will power is lacking.

Disclaimer

The views expressed in this article are those of the authors and do not represent the official views of the Government of India. Article has been prepared in consultation with stakeholders from various Ministries, public and private companies, academic and research institutes, and also national and international experts. While the views and perspectives of stakeholders are reflected throughout the article, all analyses, findings and recommendations are solely those of the authors. The facts and figures, data used in this article are indicative and informative and are extracted from Annual Reports and sponsored Reports of the various Ministries, Industry associations etc. Validation of these data is challenging. Use of the data and recommendations are the responsibility of the users of the article.

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Critical Fidelity and Catholic School Leadership in Jordan

By Rev. Fr. Imad Twal

American University of Madaba, Jordan

Introduction- John Sullivan's paper "*Critical Fidelity and Catholic School Leadership*" will be included in the work by Springer entitled *Faith Based Learning, Teaching & Leadership*, to be published in (2013). Principally, the article calls for *Unity in Diversity: we are one in faith but different in culture and vision. We are One in Christ but different in minds and hearts. Let's be Catholic, universal principal and locally applied.* I believe that the article makes many valid observations that speak to actuality of Catholic School leadership particularly in my native country of Jordan.

A critical analysis of fidelity to Church Teaching in the context of Catholic School leadership is of countless value. Usually the issues surrounding adherence to the dogmatic teachings of the Church by those in educational leadership have been taboo. One is simply not allowed to study, evaluate, analyze, or criticize the faith tradition. In the oriental and Semitic mentality we are Homo religious which means that in theory we believe everything said by the religious authorities, Christian and Islamic, is true. (Magister dixit, Master said).

This attitude came to be as a result of Religious education, adherence to the Catechism and the leading role in the community of the Parish priest. The parish priest was the teacher, leader and minister and was responsible for the decisions that must be made in a Catholic institution. This pre-council Vatican II mentality of rigid adherence to authority is ingrained in the minds of many of our Catholic Leaders as well as the laity.

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Critical Fidelity and Catholic School Leadership in Jordan

Rev. Fr. Imad Twal

I. INTRODUCTION

John Sullivan's paper "*Critical Fidelity and Catholic School Leadership*" will be included in the work by Springer entitled *Faith Based Learning, Teaching & Leadership*, to be published in (2013). Principally, the article calls for *Unity in Diversity: we are one in faith but different in culture and vision. We are One in Christ but different in minds and hearts. Let's be Catholic, universal principal and locally applied.* I believe that the article makes many valid observations that speak to actuality of Catholic School leadership particularly in my native country of Jordan.

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This attitude came to be as a result of Religious education, adherence to the Catechism and the leading role in the community of the Parish priest. The parish priest was the teacher, leader and minister and was responsible for the decisions that must be made in a Catholic institution. This pre-council Vatican II mentality of rigid adherence to authority is ingrained in the minds of many of our Catholic Leaders as well as the laity.

Rigidity and static thinking lacks the dynamism required for life: of ideas, of institutions, of people. Technology has cracked open the world of today. Thoughts and ideas run through our society like the currents of a river keeping it alive and fertile. Catholic faith with its long held traditions, laws, rules, pronouncements and clear polices remains constant. However- critical analysis of those traditions, laws etc. in the context of the free flowing society in which we live must be possible if the Church is to remain relevant.

Catholic educational institutions will benefit from such critical analysis and the resultant implications. Such flexibility, open discussion and criticism can lead

to improvement and development. That said there is no call to jettison Church Teaching and Tradition. On the contrary, there is a need for a better understanding of the Magisterium on the part of those in Educational leadership. Catholic leaders are thirsty for a better grounding in Catholic Teaching precisely so that they can adopt and adapt new trends, methods, experiences and skills within their own culture and context. Being critical doesn't necessarily mean a lack of fidelity rather it points to the tension that is at the heart and essence of education in general and most particularly catholic education.

For believers, there is a natural tension in performing a critique of the church's mission and vision. On the one side there is a traditional and clerical way of thinking and in the other side secular but faithful leaders with theological backgrounds. An urgent transformation and Metanoia (conversion in Greek) is needed on both sides. The local church needs to be open to the ways of the new world and the lay Catholic leaders need to embrace a solid theological background to properly witness Christ in the world. As our Blessed Pope John Paul the II said: "*We are not the sum of our weaknesses and failures; we are the sum of the Father's love for us and our real capacity to become the image of His Son Jesus*".

Critical thinking in the area of education, whether in Catholic, or non-Catholic contexts, is meant to be a bridge, and not a creator of tension. The critiques are not directed to the essence of the mission of the Catholic Church, nor at the sacred and holy teachings and preaching, but rather related to the pronouncements and polices of the Church's leaders. It is not so much a negative as a positive where in lay people can be more fully involved. Lay Catholic leaders in Jordan are well prepared academically and socially, but feel that they lack the deep theological understanding necessary for proper engagement with the Church. They are good Catholics but they feel weakly prepared when it comes to the theological demands of the faith. The call by Vatican II for *aggiornamento* (bringing up to date) of the Church can only be accomplished if the leaders of the Church both lay and clerical have the proper grounding in theological dimensions, educational methods and theories of the 21st century. Included also must be spiritual nourishment and proper formation to be as Christ: King (leader), prophet (teacher) and Priest (sacrament).

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Modeling fidelity has nothing to do with inquiries and research. If the traditional ways and methods are held above any comment or criticism there is no opportunity for growth and development in the area of Catholic education. However- fidelity has everything to do with the Catholic Educational Project which must reflect and model its values and promote its ethos. Catholic leaders are expected to ensure that faith forms their choices and practices and that fidelity to the mission is purposefully integrated in to the project improvised as one goes along.

My experience as a parish priest in addition to being an educator has taught me that there are institutional aspects incorporated into the implementation of the school mission that can hinder rather than advance its vision. At these times true loyalty to the institution would be exhibited by questioning rather than blind adherence allowing inspiration and improvement.

As leaders of Catholic schools we are required to arbitrate between our faith traditions and the educational environment. The threat to the institution lies in favoring one side over the other rather than seeking equilibrium. Faith traditions and contemporary cultures should not be contradictory but complementary. As decision makers we need not only think with the church but for the church in order to boost and expand its role in the communities.

Thinking with and thinking for the church can be sources of tension. As leaders we need to be sensitive to the demands and the dynamic of the church's teachings (in which manner they are received, interpreted and lived by people). There are those who accept the teaching of the Church unquestionably (although fewer and fewer) making it the responsibility of Catholic leadership to be careful when placing strictures so that the faithful are not placed in an impossible position of being unable to live in society. As leaders we have the responsibility to form bounds between the contemporary culture requirements, practices and ways of thinking. Rarely will we find a community without clashes and disagreements and the possibility exists that settlements attained could be outside the mind of the Church. In this case pastoral necessity dictates that catholic leaders work towards broadening their horizon for study and research.

The Catholic Church should not be static, but dynamic. The Church must assume the role of teacher and student. The Catholic Church is the mother of the Catholic school; it needs to stand by its key working principles, as well act as a bridge between *what is* and *what should be*. The Church exists in the lives of human beings, the world of reality and so must be eminently practical bringing together theory and practice. For that to happen the faith and religious traditions should get up from their isolation and open themselves to public examination; otherwise they will cease to be relevant in

people's lives. Leadership must understand that the changes that come with keeping the institution relevant is sacred work and is rightly to be undertaken.

Educators and educational leadership is of the very essence of Catholicism. It is the true job of the Church to reframe, reinterpret, and assess in order to formulate imaginative, creative, appropriate, effective and workable solutions that advance the institution. Catholic school leadership must be given the opportunity to be critically faithful. A relationship of trust could replace the tension that currently exists leading to a mutually beneficial climate of cooperation.

The Catholic leader of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries must be aware of the new role expected of him. Catholic schools are facing enculturation leading to diminished effectiveness as centers of the faith. Catholic leaders who cannot speak critically and knowledgeably about the faith will be ill equipped to manage the current demands and challenges of modern life. Undeniably tension between the church and the culture will increase and affect the implementation of the Church's mission. Catholic leaders need to open the doors and develop reformed models that can be followed. They need to be free to adapt their work to the needs of society so that current and future generation will grow in the faith under their leadership.

In sum, I believe that Catholic School leaders should model fidelity to the faith tradition. They must go about their work from within the context of a properly understood theological tradition.



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Peculiar Features of Verbal Formulations in School Mathematics

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I. INTRODUCTION

To exteriorize the contents of school mathematics various semiotic and symbolic means are used [11], [12]. They allow of fixing - in the expanded or minimized form - the gist of separate objects of assimilation: certain concepts, mathematical facts (axioms, theorems, formulas, etc.), modes of activity (rules, algorithms, method of solving problems and proving mathematical statements) as well as their integrity - a fragment of a systematic scientific theory.

The text (from the Latin *textus* – tissue, texture, and web) is the most important way of the expanded reification of mathematical content formed by means of natural language. Being reflected in the text the essence of concept, mathematical fact or mode of activity as well as scientific knowledge about their system acquires semiotic-symbolic reality of life. It is the shell of the text through which the content analysis of scientific and academic noesis is made. Textbooks, manuals, tutorials and other media represent texts in their visual modality. In their aural modality the texts are delivered by the teacher in the classroom or by the speaker in audio, visual, and virtual modes of learning.

Since the concept of "text" covers two different aspects of the language fixation of mathematical content - at the level of individual object assimilation and at the level of system of knowledge, one should distinguish between these cases by entering two different terms into circulation. In the first case, when the text reflects the essence of a particular object of assimilation, it is appropriate to use the term "object-based (oriented) text". In the second case, when the text is a discrete part of a scientific theory, namely - a theme from the school course of mathematics, it is appropriate to use the term "instructional text". It is clear that an educational text may contain one or more object-based texts as its components.

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II. TYPES OF OBJECT-BASED TEXTS

In the school course of mathematics the object-based texts are:

- For concepts – *formulations* of various types of definitions and concept *descriptions* which are a verbal fixation of the results (or the progress and results) of certain concept disclosure techniques application;
- For math facts - *formulation* of axioms, theorems, properties, characteristics and *descriptions* (verbal equivalents) formulas, correlations, etc;
- For mathematical operations - the formulation of rules, algorithms, heuristic schemes and unstructured descriptions of the methods of proving mathematical statements, the ways of mathematical problems solving and more.

III. THE SPECIFICITY OF THE WORDING

The logical structure of the formulation depends on the type and characteristics of the object of learning, the essence of which it captures. In its turn, the logical structure of the formulation defines the stylistic design of the corresponding object-based text.

a) *The formulations of definitions*

We consider it right to differentiate between strict and lax formulations. A strict formulation is a logically structured and stylistically perfect text that is constructed according to certain rules of logics and natural language. A strict formulation is devoid of redundancies and expressive content, it is concise and meaningful, its every word being an important text component. Stylistic modifications are allowed, but limited in number. A lax formulation (a correct wording made by the pupils in their own words) can be not logically structured and stylistically imperfect. In the instructional process such kind of formulation has certain didactic functions, both – at the stage of the assimilation object introduction and at the other stages of its mastery by the students. In our opinion, didactically balanced use of lax wording along with the strict wording should be institutionalized in school practice.

i. *The structure of the strict wording of the definition*

General logical structure of a strict formulation of the concept definition reflects the signified concept, a

generic term, species differences, and the relationship between them [7]. It can be represented by the following scheme:

the signified concept → generic term → species differences.

However, the text which is the wording of the definition in its certain stylistic modification can be built in different ways, by inductive as well as deductive principle. In the first case, the text reflects the verbal passage from the particular to the general, and in the second case – vice versa. For example, in textbooks, manuals, tutorials on the methods of teaching mathematics, and reference books [1], [3], [9] the following definitions of the term "Rhombus" can be found:

"A Rhombus is a Parallelogram in which all sides are equal";

"A Rhombus is a Parallelogram with four equal sides, like a square that's leaning";

"A Parallelogram, in which all sides are equal, is called a Rhombus";

"If all sides of a Parallelogram are equal, a Parallelogram is called a Rhombus".

The first two formulations of the definition of a Rhombus directly reflect the logical structure of a general definition of the concept, thus reflecting inductive reasoning - from the signified concept to the generic concept. Therefore, they should be called *inductive formulations of concepts definitions*. The third and the fourth formulations of the rhombus definition also meet the general logical structure of the concept definition, but reflect a different mental progress, which is fundamentally different from the previous one. Here deductive reasoning follows the principle - from the generic concept, the content of which is separated by some specific features of the signified concept, to the signified concept as a subspecies of the generic concept. This suggests that general logical structure is indirectly reproduced in such definition and relevant texts may be called *deductive formulations of concepts definitions*.

ii. *Content identical definitions*

In the definition of a rhombus the contents of the texts match as the rhombus is defined through the same generic shape - a parallelogram and they employ the same specific properties - the equality of all sides of a parallelogram. However, semiotic-symbolic components of these object-oriented texts are different - the wordings of the above definitions do not match the form of text construction. We can say that in this case the inductive and deductive formulations of the concept definition are identical in their content but semiotically different. Hence, they are to be considered to be various semiotic-symbolic means of the concept essence reification.

iii. *Content-different definitions*

It is not only semiotically different but content-different definitions of the same concept which are used in school mathematics. If, for example, the concept of rhombus is determined through a generic term "rectangle" and the related specific properties, then we will have a semantically different definition. It is clear that semiotic-symbolic components of content-different definitions can differ, although the relevant object-oriented text can be built the same way - by inductive or deductive principle.

Thus, different notions of school math can be exteriorized with the help of several semiotic-symbolic means which are text-definitions formed by means of natural language. Fluency in these semiotic-symbolic means should be considered as one of the parameters of a formed concept.

iv. *Methods that replace or supplement the concept defining procedure*

In cases when the essential features of the concept have not been sufficiently studied or there is no particular need to do it, one of six techniques that complement or replace the definition are used. These include [7, p. 356]: a) pointing at the object, b) explanation – the disclosure of the concept through the etymology of its name, c) description – the disclosure of the nature through examples, d) characteristics – concentrating on characteristic features, properties, concepts, and e) comparison – disclosure of the concept through its comparison with other concepts e) distinction – disclosure of this concept through the properties of a contradictory notion.

The progress and the results of the use of such methods of definition are fixed in descriptive texts. They are fundamentally different from texts-definitions both - in their structure which is often not clearly marked, and in their contextual and semiotic-symbolic components. Thus, in teaching mathematics descriptive texts appear as specific semiotic-symbolic means.

b) *Formulation of mathematical facts*

In the dictionary of logical terms [7] the notion of "fact" (from the Latin *faktum* - *done, what is done*) is defined as real, actually existing, non-fictional phenomenon or event, something what actually happened, theoretical basis for generalization and conclusion. Mathematical facts that are taught in high school mathematics include axioms, theorems, and formulas. School mathematics is not a strict deductive theory, although it also has content elements which are constructed deductively and the idea of axiomatic construction of mathematics is supported in it.

Those classes of math facts, which are the theorems in deductive theory, in the school course are divided into at least three groups.

The key facts that are most important for the deployment of the logic of the course and teaching high

school students mathematical operations are established as a result of the proof. These facts are usually called theorems, although it is not necessarily that this term is used to designate them. For example, the signs of divisibility are not called theorems.

Some basic math facts are introduced into school math without proof. In this case, the students are said that the proofs of such facts exist as they are, but their consideration for one reason or another is postponed. For example, in school basic algebra properties of functions are introduced without proof, and in the geometry course almost all formulas of the volume of geometric bodies are introduced without proof.

Students can encounter some properties of mathematical objects and their attributes in the process of solving problems. These auxiliary facts are usually provided a situational meaning. Students are not required to memorize them. Basic math facts are usually placed in the theoretical part of the tutorial. For students it is them which are the main targets of assimilation.

i. *Common and different features in the definitions of concepts and formulations of mathematical facts*

Object-based text containing formulations of axioms, theorems, properties, characteristics, and so on have both common and different concepts with text-definitions. Common properties are displayed at the component level - the formulations of mathematical facts are also contextual and semiotic-symbolic components that are subject to certain logical structure. A semiotic-symbolic component - the possibility to exteriorize the meaning of mathematical facts through various text shells - is common.

The features which are different are generated not only through a diversity of objects that describe the formulation of definitions of concepts and formulation of mathematical facts. From the standpoint of semiotic approach the most significant difference we see is that the texts-formulations of mathematical facts may reflect some of the information about the object both openly and covertly.

ii. *Peculiarities of covert information in the formulation of a mathematical fact.*

In the formulation of mathematical facts (axioms, theorems, formulas, etc.) covert information can be of three kinds.

Covert information of the first type

Covert information of the first type is present in each formulation of mathematical facts taught in school mathematics. It is associated with an indirect reflection of the so-called explanatory mathematical fact. The illuminative part of the theorem is a set of objects from which the subset, the elements of which have to do with the conclusion of the theorem, is differentiated.

In each theorem that defines equality or similarity of triangles an illuminative part is a set of pairs of triangles, rather than any other their number. In this set the focus is made on a subset of such pairs of triangles in which the sides and corners are in some relations which are specified in the theorem. Thus, according to the third premise of the signs of equality of triangles in this subset each pair of triangles must have respectively equal sides. It is for these pairs of triangles - the elements of this subset, that the conclusion of the theorem in which the relations of equality are made is established.

Covert information of the second type

Information of the second kind becomes covert when a mathematical formulation of the fact is categorical (affirmative) in its construction. It's the matter of common knowledge that each mathematical fact contains premise and conclusion. They are related to each other either by the relation of implication "If A..., then B..." or by the relation of equivalence "If A..., then B... and if B...then A..." when the mathematical fact maintains certain criteria (necessary and sufficient conditions) [3], [10].

The text membrane of the fact which has an expanded linear structure has a form of an implication. Typically, it contains the words "if", "then" which serve as specific signs and specific punctuation marks allowing of separating the text of the premise from the text of the conclusion of theorem. Moreover, the text of the premise precedes the text of the conclusion. For example, in textbooks every sign-theorem of equality or similarity of triangles has this type of formulation. *The text membrane of the fact which has an unexpanded nonlinear structure* also has a form of an implication. But in this case the text of the premise follows the text of the conclusion and concerning the two words "if" and "then" the first one is usually present and it fully performs the functions of them both. An example of this type of text is the formulation of the third sign of the equality of triangles: "The triangles are equal if their corresponding sides are equal". A categorical (confirming) form of the formulation can be called a *textual semi-expanded shell of the mathematical fact*. It does not contain sign-words "if", "then", the conclusion of the fact has an expanded form and the premise has a minimized form as a rule. Here lies veiled information of the second type. Its recognition largely depends on what type of the verbal structure of the fact - linear or nonlinear, is realized in the text.

For example, a categorical formulation of the theorem about vertical angles "Vertical angles are equal" is the text of the linear type where the premise of the theorem precedes the conclusion. However, the identification of covert information, particularly about where exactly the premise of this theorem lies is quite difficult for the students.

It turns out that most of the theorems the categorical formulations of which are based on a linear type, present more difficulties for the students when deploying the premise than those theorems, the text shells of which have a non-linear type [12]. The fact is that the linguistic peculiarities of the nonlinear type object-based text mostly require the use of reverse designs, otherwise, most categorical formulations of nonlinear type will transform into inverse formulations. Additionally, the use of inverse structures in the formulations leads to a particular semantic distinction of premise and conclusion of the mathematical fact which facilitates their detection.

For example, the affirmative formulation of the divisibility properties of number 10 can be built as a text of a nonlinear type. In particular, it can acquire the following formulation: "The number with "0" as the last digit in its record can be divided into 10", "The number with the record ending in "0" can be divided into 10". There is hidden information of the second type in both formulations. It's much harder to remove it from the first text than from the second.

Covert information of the third type

The fact that the information is covert is permeated by a categorical (affirmative) structure of the formulation of mathematical facts. We associate its essence with the convolute meanings which appear in interpreting the terminology used in the text. For example, in the premise of the Pythagorean Theorem firstly a subset of right-angled triangles is distinguished from the set of triangles, and secondly it is implicitly stated that one side of the triangle has a length which is longer than the lengths of its two other sides. In the conclusion of this theorem there has been fixed the existence of the dependence among the lengths of the sides of the triangle, but not among any of its other elements. In addition, the conclusion reveals the formal meaning of the dependence of the length of the longest side of the triangle on the lengths of its two other sides.

Just as texts-definitions, texts-formulations of mathematical facts which have differences in content and semiotic-symbolic components should be considered to be different semiotic-symbolic means, even when they are identically built. For example, semiotic-symbolic components of the listed properties of divisibility of a number by 10, though built on a non-linear type, differ significantly, thus, these object texts are different semiotic-symbolic means. A categorical formulation of the Divisibility by 10, which is also a sample of a non-linear text - "Those and only those numbers ending with a zero are divided by 10", is different in its content from the formulated properties, and thus it is also a certain semiotic-symbolic means. So, math facts from the school course of mathematics, as well as the concepts of this course may be openly exteriorized by several semiotic-symbolic means, which

are text formulations formed by means of natural language. The fluency of operating these semiotic-symbolic means should be one of the indicators of the mathematical fact assimilation.

iii. *Shells of mathematical formulas*

It is not only formulas that can be used to fix the expanded language content of mathematical formulas but also the object-based texts- descriptions. For example, a verbal analogue of the formula of the square of the sum of two numbers is: "Square of the sum of two numbers is the sum of the squares and twice the product of the given numbers" can be considered the formulation. However, reorganizing it in a less concise text and putting separate semantic units of the text in different sentences, we get a text-description of this formula. Here is an example: "The formula of the square of the sum of two numbers asserts the equality of two expressions. The first expression reflects the symbolic record of the square of the sum of two numbers. The second expression symbolically reflects the result of raising the sum of two numbers to a square. The second expression has three terms the square of the first term, twice the product of the first and second numbers and the square of the second number".

c) *The structure of the text-description of mathematical facts*

Texts-descriptions of mathematical facts also have contextual and semiotic- symbolic components. Understanding of such texts is largely dependent on the structural features of its iconic and symbolic component. In most cases this component comprises two parts - confirming and explanatory ones. The explanations, with the help of which the hidden meanings are ejected and placed the necessary emphasis on, make the text-description of the formula a rather powerful didactic tool. It is clear that the semiotic-symbolic component of the text-description may be realized in different ways with one and the same semantic component. As a result, each object-based text will act as a separate language semiotic-symbolic means.

d) *Formulations of the methods of operations*

In a general sense a method of operation is a system of consecutive activities and operations, the implementation of which results in an outcome that meets the aims of the operation and is adequate. Methods are the most fundamental types of operation that come from the knowledge of the most general laws of objective reality and specific patterns of an object, phenomenon, and the process under research [7]. To indicate those types of operations that are more specific and are used for different specific purposes the term "way" is used. For example, in the methodology of teaching mathematics they distinguish: general methods of mathematics (axiomatic or deductive reasoning, equations and inequalities, coordinate,

vector, etc.), methods of proving mathematical statements in which the deductive method is used, methods for solving certain class of problems (a method of the variables substitution in solving biquadratics, a method of using an auxiliary element in geometric problems, etc.). All these ways of operations are the objects of assimilation into the school course of mathematics.

In the structure of the ways of operation they differentiate content (epistemological) and operational (activity-based) components. The content component of the way of operation is a system of knowledge which includes: initial knowledge about the object and its properties, the final knowledge of the results of operations with the object, knowledge of the operating mode of activities (actions and operations which in a definite sequence realize the way of operation), knowledge of subject-practical means needed to perform the activity, the guidance system of the choice of some ways of operation among the others. The operating component of the operation mode associated with the direct performance of its actions.

The acquisition of the semantic component of the way of operations by the students is characterized by such new constructions in their personal experience as knowledge, and mastery of the operational component is reflected in skills.

i. *Structure of the operation way formulation*

The wording of the rules, algorithms, and heuristic schemes in school mathematics are also contextual and semiotic-symbolic components that are subject to certain logical structure. In general terms, it can be represented as:

the object → *operations with the object* → *the result*.

The deployment of this scheme in the text of formulation can occur both in the linear and nonlinear modes. If the text has a linear structure it describes the actions with the object and then – the obtained result. If the text has a nonlinear structure everything is done vice versa.

Most of the rules, algorithms, and heuristic schemes of school mathematics which are the open objects of learning have a nonlinear structure. For example:

- To divide fractions the dividend should be multiplied by the number inverse of the divisor [14];
- To solve the system of equations through a substitution method, you should:
 - 1) express one variable of any of its equations through the other;
 - 2) substitute this variable by the resulting expression in a different equation of the system;
 - 3) solve a created equation with one variable;
 - 4) find the corresponding meaning of the second variable [1].

ii. *Specificity of non-linear texts*

Object-based texts of the non-linear type are implicative. In these texts the operations with the object are separated from the result these actions will arrive at. The operations and the result are connected by consecutive relations though the cause and the consequence in a nonlinear text are reflected in inverse order. Such texts are devoid of the words “if”, “then” with their functions being performed by the phrases: “in order to ... you are to ...”, “to... one should...” and so on. However, every rule of the school mathematics can be formulated in a purely implicative form. For example, the rule of fractions division in this case may look as follows: “If this fraction is multiplied by the number which is inverse to the other number, we get a share of the division of this fraction by this second number”.

With the same semantic component, different text shells of the rule, such as the rule of dividing fractions, act as different semiotic-symbolic means.

iii. *Peculiarities of the linear type texts*

Linear formulations of operation types are rare in school textbooks. For the most part, formulations of operation types are categorical. The formulations of the rule of multiplying two fractions (mathematics tutorial for the 6th form) is the text of this very kind: “The product of two fractions is a fraction, the numerator of which is the product of the numerator and the denominator is the product of the denominators” [8].

This fractions multiplication rule can be interpreted as a mathematical formulation of the appropriate fact. It depends on what meaning – that of the result or the procedure is given to the word “product”. In a procedural sense in this text it means the operation of finding the product of two fractions, and hence the first part of the text, “the product of two fractions is ...” carries the meaning “if we multiply two fractions, the product is obtained as the result of the following steps ...”. It is in this case that the given text will act as the formulation of the multiplication of fractions. If we understand the word “product” in the resulting sense, then the formulation becomes affirmative which is a sign of the mathematical fact formulation.

Thus, the same text shell can cover the contents of different objects of assimilation. It is clear that with different content components, although with the same semiotic- symbolic components of such texts, they represent different semiotic-symbolic means.

e) *Non-verbalized rules of the application of definitions and formulations*

In studying mathematical concepts and facts the non-verbalized rules of their use serve as implicit objects of assimilation as the correct performance of the relevant operations even without them being verbalized is an indicator that the content of a concept or fact has been mastered by the students.

Let's consider the definition of the concept of a standard form monomial provided in the algebra tutorial [1]. "If the monomial has only one numerical multiplier which is put in the first place and if each variable is included into only one factor, such monomial is called a standard form monomial". From this definition follows the following rule of the reduction of the monomials to the standard form:

"To reduce the monomial to a standard view, you are:

- 1) to multiply numerical factors;
- 2) to place the resulting number first in the record of standard monomials;
- 3) to group the multipliers that contain the same variable;
- 4) to find the product of similar alphabetic factors in each group using the rule of multiplication of powers;
- 5) in the record of a standard monomial to place the derived products of monomials after a numerical factor and in alphabetical order".

In such expanded form the rule of the monomial reduction is not offered to be learnt by school children. The main object of assimilation is the relevant definition. However, the index of conscious understanding and mastering of this definition is not only the ability to reproduce the wording of the definition, but the ability to perform correctly the above mentioned sequence of operations. It does not matter whether the student can verbalize the meaning of the actions performed. The very fact of the correct performance of operations is of importance here. Thus, each object-based text containing definitions of the notion and the formulations of the theorem, properties, attributes, and formulas should be considered in two ways - affirmative and procedural. Hence, in every object-based text except semantic and semiotic-symbolic components one should see a functional component that will influence the variation of the corresponding semiotic-symbolic means of external fixation of mathematical content.

f) *Texts-descriptions of ways of operation*

Texts-descriptions used for the expanded content reification of the content of the ways of mathematical operations differ from the texts-formulations by their unstructured semiotic-symbolic component. For example, the following text contains the information about the rule of finding the ratio of two numbers in a non-structured way: "In mathematics there is a convenient way of comparison of similar quantities, which is that to compare quantities they seek an answer to the question, how many times one quantity is larger than another. The answer to this question is found by dividing" [8].

For the most part, by means of unstructured texts the content of the methods of proving mathematical statements, means of solving problems,

and more is fixed. Like similar text shells of mathematical facts, they have two parts - confirming and explanatory ones. The texts of the descriptions will vary depending on how their semiotic-symbolic components are built: whether a confirming part is represented explicitly, how transparently the explanatory part explicates the necessary core content, on what basis - inductive or deductive - the text-description is built. However, any variations will present a new semiotic-symbolic means of reification of the same method of operation content.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

Educational function of teaching mathematics as a major feature of modern school mathematics education lies in it that students should master a certain amount of social experience and human knowledge which will help them discover and develop their cognitive and human potentialities, needs, interests, and facilitate their self-actualization.

The content of school mathematics education as an abstraction and its reification by semiotic-symbolic means in different modalities (visual, auditory, and kinesthetic) requires from the students learning school mathematics, to grasp a several semiotic-symbolic systems in full volume and at a certain level. It also demands special knowledge and skills to transfer one semiotic-symbolic system into another, including the transfer of visual, tangible assets or plastic substitutes into a verbal system and vice versa.

Some semiotic-symbolic system, including some subsystems of mathematical language should be a means of students' further education and development, and therefore should be regarded as objects of assimilation in teaching and learning mathematics in school.

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E-learning for University Effectiveness in the Developing World

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E-learning for University Effectiveness in the Developing World

Sekiwu Denis ^α & Naluwemba Frances ^σ

Abstract- The globalisation trends of society have taken centre stage meaning that people around the world are required to develop high level but low cost technologies and innovative competencies in order to enhance social development. In the field of higher education, university managers need to join the technological revolution by adopting low cost ICT and E-learning facilities. This paper examines the role of E-learning in university effectiveness. With the impact of globalisation, universities have become competitive in terms of providing quality and flexible educational services. Creating an enduring vision and a strategic implementation framework to implement technological innovations and E-learning seems critical. The demand for skilled workforce, with technological to cope with the ever-changing responsibilities at the work place, warrants universities to adjust their teaching strategies beyond face-to-face instruction in class.

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I. INTRODUCTION

Globalisation is breaking through cultural, economic, political and social barriers of nations (Mugimu, 2006). Globalisation represents the international system that is shaping most societies today including university programs. It is a process that is “super charging” the interaction and integration of cultures (Welsh et al, 2003). People around the world are thus required to develop high level of creativity and imaginative skills as well as innovative competencies needed to become competitive in the global economy (Lewin, 2000; Wende, 2002). Through the adoption of low cost ICT and E-learning technologies and approaches being promoted in universities education will become more competitive globally. Universities are therefore challenged to become more innovative in preparing and producing individuals that are adequately and sufficiently equipped to function in the rapidly changing demands of the global job market. Globalisation means bringing the vast world so near. It implies that communication systems become so simplified and advanced to foster rapid development. There is, for instance, a lot of Internet learning around the global across one university with another.

This paper examines the role of E-learning in university effectiveness so as to deal with the challenges

of global competitiveness in developing countries. Higher education of quality could be brought to many more people if only universities in the developing world could get on the bandwagon of advancing ICTs and creatively tap into the current E-learning possibilities and innovations (Mugimu, 2006). The pursuit of technological transformation in higher education has become widespread in Sub-Saharan Africa with the extensive pervasiveness of global networks like the Internet and Intranet as institutions struggle to prepare students for effective participation in the emerging global knowledge economy. Technologically based university education is further seen as a way to address the increase in the world demand for tertiary education. Daniel (1998) states that one new university per week is required to keep pace with world population growth but the resources necessary are not available. For instance, since the time of the overwhelmingly increased student enrolments in many public universities in Uganda from the 1990s and onwards, existing resources and infrastructure have not increased commensurate to the same increase in the student capacity. Lecture theatres and libraries are flooding and infrastructure and instructional materials and staff are all constrained with the alarmingly increased student populations. Higher education must develop more cost-effective methods so that public resources can be increased and effectively utilized. A lecture theatre in a public university that sits over 300 students attending an economics class will not be effective if more public address systems are not installed to enable each and every learner benefit from the lecture.

Likewise, if a university lacks internet facility to serve its ever increasing student population then it would be quite hard to ensure quality learning and research. By using technology for teaching, universities can serve the public more cost-effectively and in particular can prepare students better for a technologically based society. In view of the growing globalisation and transnational exchanges in many fields, scholars like Evans and Nation (1993) indicate that in these circumstances politicians, policy-makers, and citizens should make demands upon education systems to reform. Open learning and distance education are at the forefront of educational responses to the changes that are taking place locally, regionally, nationally and internationally.

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II. WHAT IS E-LEARNING?

E-learning may mean different things to different people. According to Welsh, Wanberg, Brown and Simmering (2003:246), "E-learning can be defined as the use of computer network technology, primarily over an intranet or through the Internet to deliver information and instruction to individuals". Halkett (2002:46) pointed out that E-learning offers a number of new tools to teaching-e-lectures, message boards, chatrooms, interactive assessment marked by computers, and prospects of unlimited access to electronic resources. However, E-learning is more than computer and Internet. E-learning may include all electronic devices such as CD ROMs, DVDs, Radios, Television, satellites, mobile phones, etc that could be used to enhance learning through multimedia capabilities and network technologies. Network technologies have the potential to deliver timely and appropriate knowledge and skills to the right people, at a suitable time, in a convenient place, which is what E-learning/ E training is all about. It allows for personalized, just-in-time, up-to date, and user-centered educational activities (Haddard & Draxler, 2002: 12).

Thus, E-learning should and ought to permit adequate execution of flexible educational programs to meet the diverse needs of students opting for higher education. For instance, Flood (2002) contends, "E-learning can offer a rich choice of learning experiences that fit in with specific needs, aspirations and learning styles, and so it can...facilitate personal growth and professional development". Furthermore, the E-learning approach could be a powerful tool or means to facilitate collaboration between different learners across the globe (MacDonald & Thompson, 2005). However, E-learning could be more than just using technology to deliver the instructional materials but rather in using technology to build learners' capacity to learn on their own and at their own pace (Flood, 2002). Unfortunately, universities in developing countries may not have the capacity and necessary infrastructure and human resources to support and embrace E-learning capabilities. An important arching question is that; how could universities in developing countries take advantage of E-learning innovations in order to make their services easily accessible to more people, regardless of the existing obstacles?

III. JUSTIFICATION OF E-LEARNING INNOVATION IN UNIVERSITIES IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

Information technological transformation in universities, however, has major systemic implications and needs to be carefully managed as Drucker (1998) points out that as soon as an organization takes the first tentative steps from data to information, its decision

processes, management structure, and even the way it gets its work done begin to be transformed. Attempts to introduce any significant reform will impact on all of its sub-systems. The advent of information technology in any big university will wholly impact tremendously on the internal and external operations of that university. It implies that with information technological advancement, universities have to prepare themselves to welcome such crucial developments. It systematically relates to the fact that university management has to train or hire manpower to operate the technology; and the same universities should change the teaching approaches to cope with the demands of the new information technology.

As indicated also by Haddard and Draxler (2002), the benefits associated with E-learning could be many. If only stakeholders become more creative and innovative. Welsh et al (2003) highlighted six benefits of E-learning. They say that E-learning could: a) provide consistent, worldwide training; b) reduce delivery cycle time; c) increase learner convenience; d) reduce information overload; e) improve tracking learners' activities, and f) lower expenses of educational provision (Low-cost technologies). Furthermore, E-learning could also motivate students to do independent work, hence promoting students' ability to develop self-learning skills. E-learning could also act as a leverage to improve the day-today administrative and management operations of universities in the Third world. For instance, by making dissemination of information about students' admissions, registration, assessment, schedules and timetables etc...much easier and in a timely manner.

Universities in developing countries could bring knowledge closer to many students even those off-campus and could not otherwise afford to physically attend normal educational programs. Isolated students and professionals in the civil service or private sector could be able to work and study at their own pace, any time, and anywhere via the Internet or intranet (Haddard & Draxler, 2002). E-learning could also cultivate online interactions among participants, even when may be many miles apart. Students' social construction of knowledge in terms of facilitating sharing of ideas in the online discussion groups could be an immense possibility. There are many students today who are pursuing studies in many universities overseas but do not need to leave their mother country to be fulltime students in foreign countries. Instead, the E-learning methodology has made it easy for such interaction to be possible because academic promoters can share smoothly with students via emails and with the aid of the online library. Research (MacDonald & Thompson, 2005) shows that E-learning combined with instructional strategies and multimedia tend to create positive attitudes of students as well as promoting decent learning outcomes. Thus, stakeholders of universities in the developing world should and ought to become

creative and imaginative for their success in embracing E-learning.

IV. OBSTACLES AND CHALLENGES OF EMBRACING E-LEARNING INNOVATION

Some of the obstacles and challenges that could undermine/hinder universities in the developing world to implement and embrace E-learning capabilities include:

- a) Majority of university administrators, teachers and students tend to lack awareness of E-learning innovations and its capabilities. Stakeholders are therefore not willing to pay the cost necessary to embrace E-learning.
- b) Most universities in developing countries are ill equipped in terms of technical support and administrative staff required to facilitate the integration of E-learning with existing programs.
- c) Most students and instructors do not have access to personal computers and ICTs, besides being incompetent in E-learning.
- d) Poor/ insufficient connectivity to Internet or intranet, telephone lines, etc is a serious problem.
- e) Inconsistent electric power supply is a critical stumbling block to E-learning growth in third world universities given the fact that E-learning equipments run on electricity. To compound this challenge even further, sources of alternative options for electric power are difficult to find.

In addition, given that universities in developing countries are well known for their classroom/lecture room face-to-face delivery strategies such as tutoring, lectures, conferences, etc., E-learning may thus be perceived by many as being inferior in terms of academic integrity/rigor (MacDonald & Thompson, 2005). It is not surprising that many stakeholders tend to be reluctant to introduce and accept E-learning because of the fear to undermine the reputations of their institutions. E-learning demands that teachers in higher education must learn and develop unfamiliar innovative teaching strategies far beyond their normal routines. For instance, teachers' roles are shifting from being sole providers of knowledge to facilitators of knowledge (Haddard & Draxler, 2002). Students' roles also are changing from being passive recipients of knowledge to becoming active collaborators of knowledge. Inevitably, the resistance to E-learning innovations by stakeholders in many universities in the developing countries is and will remain of serious concern. The practicability of establishing and embracing E-learning within the universities in developing countries is questionable. It is not surprising that E-learning innovations have not yet taken deep-roots, as it should be in many universities.

With the existing inadequate infrastructure, human resources and financial resources, exploiting

technological innovations in ICTs and E-learning is still a challenge in most of the mushrooming and traditional universities in the Third World (Naidoo, 2001:34). It is likely that the existing infrastructure may be too old and therefore incompatible to the rapidly changing technology. Universities may therefore be required to carry out expensive/costly major renovations to upgrade or replace existing infrastructures to accommodate the advancing technologies in ICTs and E-learning. The dynamics involved in implementing and embracing E-learning are somewhat complex and paradoxical

V. INVOLVING ACADEMICS IN E-LEARNING REFORM IN UNIVERSITIES

Educational institutions exist to open minds and challenge established doctrine, but at the same time, the manpower that occupies these institutions is extremely resistant to change (Robbins and Barnwell, 1998). Higher education can be described as largely bureaucratic and bureaucracies, by definition, resist change (Tapscott, 1996). I recall an incidence during my university life when my old professor hated something called a computer and a projector used in teaching. Whenever I told him that my research analysis was based on computer packages he retorted negatively "you are bound to fail research, please use the formulas I gave you in class". Such an expression and reaction depicts an "old fashioned academic" who is not ready to accept recent global changes in the area of academics in universities, the Internet or even E-learning in that matter. Many other students, in recent times, face the same wrath of such unsighted professors.

Because of the wide resistance to change in most higher education institutions, E-learning innovation has often been implemented as an isolated, top-down initiative of university managers for efficiency purposes. In this scenario, the wider systems within tertiary education are often not considered and neither affected by the innovation. Technological innovations have also experienced difficulty-taking precedence in top offices in university education (Pastore, 2005). Higher education, similar to other sectors of society, has often responded to new E-learning and ICT applications on the basis of efficiencies rather than the use of more strategic considerations. Some staff have resisted IT advocating remaining in use of the old systems of processing student papers. They type writer and old record keeping methods are still in use creating managerial inefficiencies in the "transcript office" and at the departmental examinations office. This traditional criterion of record management tends to stifle operational effectiveness. Most changes in education in the twentieth and twenty first centuries respectively had been first order changes, which aimed at improving efficiency and effectiveness of current practices. One of such first order changes is the introduction of the

Internet and the computer in management work and teaching methodology.

Therefore, attempts to oppose such lucrative developments in any global institution are a *path* in the wrong direction because technology is here to stay. To ensure ownership of sound educational quality in ICT and E-Learning, it is important that educators and educational policy drive and direct technological transformation of higher education. Therefore, the structures supporting technology-based education have to ensure an educational focus and preeminence of educational principles and policy grounded on administrative desires and attitudinal change. Caladine (2003), who reviewed the literature on non-traditional modes of delivery in higher education using state-of-the-art technologies, indicates that the extensive use of E-learning in education poses previously un-encountered problems in pedagogy and andragogy, which are attitudinal. In addition, these problems are primarily to do with conservativeness of those who fear technological change. Technological decisions need to be preceded by policy and educational decisions and highlighting the importance of bottom-up and more organic approaches during technological transformation in higher education in the developing world.

Engaging academics to appreciate E-learning is a significant management issue in higher educational reform and such reform has to be based on the development of 'learning communities'. That means that the actual process of reform must engage academics in actual learning of how to use the new technologies and seeing that this technology is further promoted creating self-initiative so as to build self-confidence and sharing. In most cases, E-learning training should be made compulsory to every academic and don. This requires serious bottom-up approaches to encourage and implement the reforms. Top down attempts to achieve educational reforms in technological outlook have failed and will be doomed to failure until they confront the cultural and pedagogical traditions and beliefs that underlie current practices and organizational arrangements (Goodman, 1995). In technological transformation in higher education, it seems necessary to address the concerns and perceptions of academic staff in the light of the need for changing their attitudes and to ensure ownership by academic staff (Evans and Franz, 2008 April; Taylor, Lopez and Quadrelli, 2006).

Ownership of the technological transformation by academic staff is critical, as it requires major changes in professional roles. This points to the need for specialised roles and the need for academics to gain the skills and knowledge for effective use of the new technologies, and the requirement for extensive training. University staff needs to change attitude towards technological advancement and need a more complex training session in how to use such technologies and come to appreciate them. Mason (1998) asserts that the

new technologies in global education point to a new role for the teacher, for the student and for course material. It centres on the construction of knowledge by the student. A lecturer becomes a facilitator and promoter and information becomes something to work with, think with, discuss, negotiate and debate with partners. The specialized skills needed to develop technology based learning materials further point to the rationale for using development teams. Bates (1993) asserts that producing good quality technology based learning materials will require people who can combine good pedagogic practice with an understanding of the strengths and weaknesses of different media and technologies. Garrison (1989) points to course design teams as the accepted model in distance education and that the Open University uses course development teams extensively. The predominant course-team model in distance education and the main advantage of this model is that it operates on high professional standards.

VI. IMPLEMENTING E-LEARNING TECHNOLOGIES AND INNOVATION IN UNIVERSITIES

Technological transformation in higher education is based on new approaches to organizational processes. An innovation can be described as an idea or behavior that is new to the organization adopting it (Swanson, 2004). Implementing and adopting something new to a culture requires commitment, patience and acceptance of change. In this way, a bottom-up innovation process in the development of ICT and E-learning is important because it fosters the development of the will among members and generates collective participation of lower cadres in decision making leading to consensus building. It is difficult to resist change that comes from the bottom from among the users. The importance of a bottom-up process for a successful innovation aims at spreading leadership. If it does not aim at shared leadership right from the outset, therefore such technology is unlikely to be capable of establishing itself in the university system. In addition, there is need to ensure strong innovation diffusion into higher education systems. The innovation diffusion theory (Rogers, 1983) provides a general explanation for the manner in which new entities and ideas like IT and technology based education over time, disseminate through social systems, in higher education.

The innovation diffusion theory is essentially a bottom-up approach based on individual responses that can be used as a starting point to depict technological transformation in higher education. Initially, there is a takeoff stage during which an innovation is introduced into a social system. An entrepreneurial group called the innovators often then adopts it. During the next phase of maturation the "early adopters", who are change agents

or opinion leaders among the social system, will enter the process thereby legitimizing the innovation and opening the potential for adoption to all members of the system. The final saturation stage in an innovation's adoption is characterized by widespread adoption. The innovation saturates the social system and growth tapers off. This process can be plotted as an S-shaped growth curve

VII. REMEDIES FOR ENSURING SUCCESSFUL E-LEARNING IN UNIVERSITIES IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

We have seen that technology cannot be separated from development of the university because it is transient with globalisation and its intentions. Hence, there is need to overcome any resistance from staff and management that hinder technology to take root especially where the computer and internet age is resisted in most main stream teaching, planning and record keeping. In order to cause a vibrant attempt to allowing E-learning to take root, there are several policy directions that should be taken first hand and these are:

1. To identify the objectives that justifies the need for E-learning innovation. Haddard et al (2002: 13) rightly puts it that technology is only a tool: No technology can fix a bad educational philosophy or compensate for bad practice...educational choices have to be made first in terms of objectives, methodologies, and roles of teachers and students before decisions can be made about appropriate technologies. This is extremely important because if E-learning innovations do not make any significant difference in terms of improving quality, access etc. then, and their cost is not worth it. Subsequently, the objectives for introducing E-learning should focus on improving quality and access of educational provision. In other words, E-learning must be made cost effective.
2. The question of what educational provision/ programs could be improved is critical. Conducting a needs assessment analysis may be appropriate to inform the stakeholders in terms of identifying potential education programs that could be complemented by the E-learning innovations given the current available resources. But of critical importance are targeting areas like registration of students; assessment, research, teaching, and general administration are areas that need critical innovations with E-learning technologies in Universities in the developing world.
3. It is recommended that the change towards E-learning must be gradual because if it is made quick it might be too expensive and unworkable. This means that Universities need also to seek for donor funding in the area of E-learning so as to quickly make changes that will bring university effectiveness.
4. Naidoo (2001) suggests that four vital steps that stakeholders should take especially in developing countries during the process of implementing ICTs and E-learning. The four steps include: planning, management, education application, and support. Planning entails putting into consideration of the how the innovation could be organized, deciding what types of programs to be offered etc. Strategic planning is crucial.

Proper planning is a good basis for the final implementation of E-learning innovation (Naidoo, 2001). Management entails administrative and governance of the programs. Management involves planning how to create awareness to stakeholders, etc. Educational application entails focusing on teaching strategies that could facilitate lifelong learning to students to enable them to meet the changing demands of the diverse needs of global job market. Support to the learners entails provisions aimed at giving students help to enable them learn how to manage their own learning, as they get exposed to various educational programs via E-learning.
5. The better way to start E-learning innovations is by starting with current available resources. Given the fact that establishing new systems is extremely costly, it is a smart idea to use and draw on the already existing infrastructure and human resources. Then, upgrade and introduce new systems as you go along. For instance, it could be much easier training staff and students in basic ways to utilize E-learning capabilities and innovations such as [accessing Internet, using email based web browsing, downloading materials from the web, etc] rather than expecting them to be able to design fancy Web Pages, multimedia, etc. This kind of training could be carried out through tutoring courses to suit a variety of educational needs and aspirations of stakeholders (O'Neill et al, 2004).
6. To promote top-down and bottom-up strategies that promotes E-learning development and utilization in universities through innovation diffusion. The level of resources made available to promote ICT usage would not have been possible without senior management and staff support. When typical political problems like irrational resistance to change are encountered, senior management is able to step in and direct matters. Middle management and staff, that is, heads of academic and administrative departments and lecturers, play an important role in controlling resources and running the support.
7. Try to grow the Internet technology literacy of the staff in phases that is primitive phase, medium phase, and advanced phase (Al-Khanjari et

al,2005). According to Al-Khanjari et al (2005) primitive phase-refers to asituation where instructors could use the email facilities reinforce theircommunication with their students. Medium phase refers to a situationwhere instructors could use web pages to deliver online course-relatedinformation. And advanced phase refers to the situation where instructorscould implement more sophisticated pedagogical materials via the net whileutilizing computer aided delivery tools (multimedia, etc).

8. Identify visionary staff that could act as catalysts in the process ofimplementing E-learning (Schonwald, 2003). Starting with faculties thatare more comfortable with technology, and then extend it to otherfaculties that are less exposed to computers. For example, lecturersteaching computer science and information technology should becomfortable with technology and therefore could be introduced toinnovative strategies via E-learning capabilities to improve quality andaccess of educational opportunities.
9. The diffusion can be sustained through the use of a distributed implementation structure. A centre for E-Learning, for example, shouldbe established to provide central support and to coordinate the progress ofthe technological promotion project in the universities. Even learningshould strictly adapt to these technologies where teaching methodologiesshould acquire ICT strategies and course work should be conducted usingICT facility.
10. Universities should take time to ensure staff ownership of technologiess even the most rigid type and conservative staff should see the benefits of E-learning and ICT in higher education development. Ensuring ownershipby academic staff is essential in the diffusion of E-Learning strategies thatpromote effective teaching and learning.
11. In order to ensure ownership of E-learning in universities by academicstaff, it is important for educators and educational policies to drive thetechnological transformation. Staff development can be used as animportant strategy to advance the transformation of higher education.
12. The implementation of educational technology into the curriculumrequires the introduction of a very robust technology infrastructure. Everystaff should have a Pentium computer, printer or access to a printer,access to the Internet and e-mail with power failures and networkshutdowns minimal. The library should also create a technology richlearning environment.

VIII. CONCLUSION

With the impact of globalisation, universities in the developing world have become competitive in terms

of providing quality and flexible educational services to the diverse students' communities (Wende, 2002). Therefore, creating an enduring vision and a strategic implementation framework for the effective implementation of technological innovations and E-learning seems critical. The demand for skilled workforce equipped with technological skills and competencies to cope with the ever-changing responsibilities at the work place (Lewin, 2000) warrants universities to adjust their teaching strategies beyondface-to-face instruction in the classroom. However, it requires institutional leadership in order to promote technology use in university education. Berge and Schrum (2008) contends that the most important function of institutional leadership may be to create a shared vision that includes widespread input and support from the faculty and administration, articulates a clear educational purpose, has validity for stakeholders, and reflects the broader mission of the institution. If African universities cannot take advantage of the information revolution and surf this great wave of technological change, they may be crushed by it. Catching this wave will require visionary leadership in most universities on the continent.

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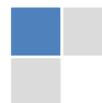
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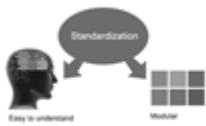
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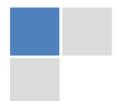
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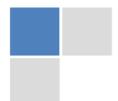
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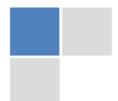
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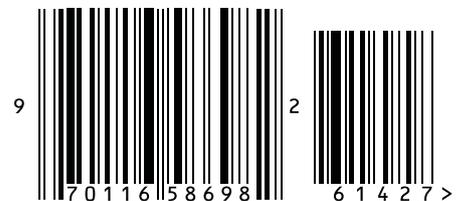


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