The Faculty of Education Review is a bi-annual international journal on education whose purpose is to establish an academic network to integrate the intellectual, methodological, and substantive diversity of educational thought and scholarship. Its aim is to generate vigorous dialogue among and between educational thinkers and practitioners across the world relative to quality education.
EDITORIAL:

Education is a key factor in the development of all countries regardless of the form—social, political, economic, cultural, or moral. For this reason, development of well-managed quality education has been strongly advocated. A variety of policies and program perspectives have been developed to meet educational needs of particular countries, helping them to move toward educational parity with the developed world. Globalization and the enormous development in the field of Information and Communication Technology have made information accessible to everyone and provide an opportunity to share successful experiences which stimulates the flow of ideas for intellectual reflection on educational practices.

This journal has emerged as an intellectual platform for educationists to share their research and development activities with those in other fields who are curious about the current practices in education in the world at large. The authors of this volume approach education from diverse perspectives and disciplines, ranging from ICT, adult education, professional standards of teachers, motivation, leadership, multi-cultural education to comparative education. We appreciate the original contributions of all the authors for their perspectives on education. Also, we acknowledge the contribution of the Editorial Board and the Peer Review Committee for their guidance to ensure the high quality of this journal. We appreciate the cooperation of all our colleagues in the Faculty of Education who offered constructive comments and suggestions.

All academic journeys begin with an initial step. As such, this is only the beginning. We have a long way to go to wade through the ocean of knowledge in order to acquire wisdom. The enabling support and genuine cooperation of you, our readers, in creating an academic global community is highly appreciated. Last but not least, we wish to acknowledge our gratitude to Dr. K. Pushpanadham, a former member of the Faculty of Education, for his past efforts which were very helpful in publishing the first issue of this journal.

The Editor
Call for Papers

The Faculty of Education Review is a bi-annual international journal published by the Faculty of Education of Assumption University of Thailand. The purpose of the Review is to establish academic networking to interest the intellectual, methodological, and diversity of educational thought and scholarship. Accordingly, the Review aims at generating vigorous dialogue among and between educational thinkers and practitioners across the world which will result in greater education quality for all.

The professional development of teachers, teacher educators, educational administrators, and researchers is an ongoing process and is essential for quality education in Thailand and around the world. This objective can only be realized through the dissemination of knowledge and expertise across the education spectrum, and among and between educational professionals from all levels of education. Therefore, the Review welcomes the submission of articles from its readers on topics of interest to a wide audience in the academic community.

Articles submitted for publication in the second issue of the Faculty of Education Review should be received before December 1, 2007. The submission process is described in “Information for Contributors” and is applicable to all articles submitted for consideration. In order to facilitate communications between the contributors and the journal editor, authors should also include their fax numbers and/or e-mail address. Articles submitted will be considered in the order of their receipt and their publication may be advanced or delayed for the purpose of assembling issues on related topics or timeliness.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CONTENTS</th>
<th>Page No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. <strong>Contemplative Practice for Catholic Schools Without Catholic Students</strong>&lt;br&gt;Dr. Merylann J. Schutloffel&lt;br&gt;The Catholic University of America, Washington, DC, USA</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. <strong>The 21st Century Educator: Strategic and Consultative Partner</strong>&lt;br&gt;Dr. Gabriele I.E. Strohschen&lt;br&gt;Director, School for New Learning, DePaul University, Chicago, USA&lt;br&gt;Dr. Kenneth Browne Elazier II&lt;br&gt;Diretor for Education and Training Programs,&lt;br&gt;Institute for Performance Enhancement, Chicago, USA</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. <strong>Cultivating Social Transformation: Expanding Pedagogical Boundaries</strong>&lt;br&gt;Dr. Patricia Johnson and Thomas Oldenski, SM.&lt;br&gt;University of Dayton, Dayton, OH, USA</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. <strong>Education Professional Standards in Thailand</strong>&lt;br&gt;Assoc. Prof. Dr. Methi Pilanthananond&lt;br&gt;Dean, Faculty of Education, Assumption University, Thailand</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. <strong>Motivation, Job Satisfaction and Evaluation of Teaching Personnel in Relation to Quality Care</strong>&lt;br&gt;Dr. Johan Hoornaert&lt;br&gt;Katholiekke Universiteit Leuven (Belgium-Flanders)</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. <strong>Integration of ICT in Education: Pedagogical Issues</strong>&lt;br&gt;Dr. Anjali Khirwadkar&lt;br&gt;Center of Advanced Study in Education, The M.S.University of Baroda, India</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. <strong>The Impact of Distance Education on the Future Demand for College Faculty</strong>&lt;br&gt;Dr. Carol Frances and Dr. John Collins&lt;br&gt;Seton Hall University, South Orange, New Jersey, USA</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. <strong>Peer and Family Relations: A Theoretical Model for Helping Students in Distress</strong>&lt;br&gt;Assoc. Prof. Dr. Ananda Kumar Palaniappan&lt;br&gt;Faculty of Education, University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. <strong>The Effects of Blind Students’ Literacy Development Through Concentrated Language Encounter and Traditional Instruction</strong>&lt;br&gt;Assoc. Prof. Dr. Saowalak Rattanavich&lt;br&gt;Department of Curriculum and Instruction, Faculty of Education,&lt;br&gt;Srinakharinwirot University, Bangkok, Thailand</td>
<td>132</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. <strong>Relationships Among Selected Academic and Institutional Perceptions, Attitudes, Needs, and Expectations of Postgraduate International Students at a Private University in Thailand</strong>&lt;br&gt;Dr. Robert J. Ciszek&lt;br&gt;Faculty of Education, Assumption University, Thailand</td>
<td>153</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Contemplative Practice for Catholic Schools Without Catholic Students

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Abstract
This paper explores Catholic identity within Catholic schools that serve predominately non-Catholics. One diocesan case study set within the United States describes explicit questions about religious mission, but also addresses implicit topics including financial responsibility, appropriate leadership, and the relationship between inner city schools and the Church. The study’s findings present a rationale for the viability of inner city schools rooted in Catholic social justice teaching that affirms a school’s Catholic identity.

Contemplative Practice for Catholic Schools Without Catholic Students

Closing their chapter in Catholic Schools at the Crossroads, O’Keefe and Murphy raise the core question explored within this study, “Why should a diocese or religious community devote scarce resources to provide educational opportunities to non-Catholics or marginal Catholics?” (2000, p. 134). This study uses case study research methodology to explore responses of key participants to why and how one American diocese responded to the challenges this question presents.

Building on the philosophical assumptions and decision-making strategies presented in Character and the Contemplative Principal (Schutloffel, 1999), this study investigates both dispositions and decisions data to connect Gospel values and the tradition of Catholic identity, as characterized within traditional Catholic schools in the United States, to schools with predominately non-Catholic students. Contemplative practice demonstrates the connection between beliefs held and the integration of those beliefs into school leadership practice. This study seeks a connection between contemplative practice and the decision making that takes place within diocesan or
religious community leadership as it relates to serving non-Catholic students within Catholic schools.

There is ample research that portrays the value of Catholic schools for minority students particularly from low socio-economic brackets (Bryk, Lee, & Holland, 1993; Convey, 1992). Typically those students are non-Catholic and attend inner-city Catholic schools attached to parishes with limited financial resources (Harris, 2000). Many of these parishes were created in the previous century to serve the immigrant poor. Their associated schools were a vehicle to transmit ethnic cultural values including religion while systematically preparing children to succeed in mainstream American society (Walch, 2003). Central to this study is a search for a contemporary rationale for these schools.

By exploring Catholic identity within Catholic schools that serve predominately non-Catholics through case studies, I attempt to find a relationship between research on inner-city Catholic schools and contemplative practice. The study further suggests recommendations for a vision of Catholic education that includes financial responsibility, appropriate leadership, and the relationship of Catholic-minority schools to the Church. A definition of Catholic identity that includes an engagement of contemplative practice provides the conditions for this vision of Catholic education.

**Methods of Inquiry**

The case study method of inquiry is appropriate for research that seeks to plumb the depths of a topic (Bogden & Biklen, 2003). The question raised by O’Keefe and Murphy is best suited to qualitative methods and a case study in particular. This qualitative study was modeled on ethnographic inquiry. Data collected consisted of on-site observations, long interviews, and document analysis. The major participants were three principals, a pastor and a superintendent within the same diocese. Each participant had vast experience within the Heartland Diocese ² and inner-city schooling. Participants were voluntary and selected. They chose to contribute to the research inquiry due to their

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1 By traditional Catholic school, I mean those parish schools that served Catholic students whose families were members of the parish.

2 By Heartland Diocese, I mean the diocese where the research was conducted.
vested interest in the future of Heartland’s inner city schools. The data from the Heartland case study data was triangulated by analogous case studies from other metropolitan dioceses where I have conducted similar case studies and the empirical research noted in the review of literature.

**Participants**

The major participants were three principals, a pastor and the superintendent, all of whom worked within the Diocese of Heartland. The superintendent of the Diocese of Heartland met in order to discuss the diocesan strategic plan and its impact on the restructuring of the inner city schools. He also provided me an opportunity to visit with various staff members to gain their perspective on the process. The superintendent was in his third year at that position, but had been a teacher within the diocese and a principal for his more than twenty-five year career. Three principals participated in the study. Two were veteran principals who each had more than 20 years experience in the inner city. The third was novice principal who had been a teacher and vice-principal within the diocese prior to his appointment. The fifth participant was a parish priest who had been an inner city school pastor for most of his twenty-five years in the diocese.

**Design of the Study**

Prior to the study, an informant from the diocese with nearly 30 years experience within the diocese and inner city schools, learned that I was conducting a study on this topic. She suggested that I consider the Diocese of Heartland due to its initiation of a strategic plan that required a focus on inner-city schools. My informant believed that numerous diocesan officials would be willing to share their experiences about my study’s topic. With my informant providing a gateway into the diocese, I was able to organize numerous interviews and site visits in order to collect data on my research question. As is often the case with ethnographic studies, a key informant is a requisite to entrance to the study site.

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2 Heartland Diocese is a pseudonym for a metropolitan diocese within the United States. All names have been changed to safeguard participant anonymity. Inconsequential details may have been modified to protect the confidentiality of participants.
Long interviews with each participant provided the core data for the study (Stake, 1994). Interview data was supplemented by site observations, document examination, and informal interviews with other individuals. Each participant was asked semi-structured interview questions, followed by the opportunity for open-ended discussion. Next, I will present a brief description of each participant’s responses.

Case study research does not seek findings that apply to other settings. However, case study findings often portray the complexity and ambiguity present within educational settings more richly than quantitative empirical research. This case study intends to capture the emotion, tension and angst school leaders face when confronting the moral dilemmas present within the research question: “Why should a diocese or religious community devote scarce resources to provide educational opportunities to non-Catholics or marginal Catholics? (2000, p. 134).”

The following section of this paper introduces the participants. Then the next section will provide an analysis of their responses in light of contemplative practice. And the final section will make the connection between this case study’s findings and recommendations for the future of inner city Catholic schools with a rationale tied to Catholic identity.

**Walter Smith is the Superintendent of Catholic Schools for the Diocese of Heartland**

The Diocese of Heartland was created in 1910 to serve the growing immigrant population in the expanding Middle West of the United States. Currently 159 parishes serve nearly 325,000 Catholics. There are 83 Catholic elementary schools and 10 diocesan high schools. Four other high schools are owned and operated by religious orders within the diocese. As a visitor to the diocese, the numerous large churches including a spectacular cathedral struck me. Described on the diocesan website, “The Cathedral is a masterpiece of art and a monument of immigrant faith. . .” (website).

At the Catholic Schools Office, Superintendent Walter Smith explained that his office is under a mandate from the new bishop to plan for the future of the city center schools. The bishop has expressed concern about the number of dollars spent on these schools and the fact that the schools serve predominately non-Catholic children. The bishop’s position is that “Catholic schools should serve Catholic kids.”
Smith went on to describe the types of schools that exist within the diocese. He used three categories: Type 1 schools are those that are in immediate need in order to remain open. The urban center schools fit this description since without diocesan subsidies and the Charitable Fund for Kids there would be no way for these schools to remain open. Type 2 schools fall within the next ring of the city schools. Most are found in the inner suburbs and serve blue-collar working parents. Many of these families struggle to pay tuition and if tuition was raised again, they may be forced to leave the schools. These schools serve predominately Catholic students, but increasingly enroll non-Catholic students to meet their budget. Type 3 schools are suburban schools that serve middle and upper middle class families. These schools are perceived to have no financial difficulties as they often have waiting lists.

Part of the current strategic plan is the formation of committees to address the various diocesan needs. The mandate for the educational committee is to provide for schools that are both Catholic in their identity and strong academically. The first order for the plan is that it provides Catholic schools for all who want to attend and that there is quality education. The second criterion is that these schools are accessible and viable from a financial standpoint. Superintendent Smith acknowledges that these are difficult objectives to reconcile especially when some pastors have already determined that Catholic schools simply cost too much to operate today. His hope is that the bishop will exert pressure on pastors to get on board with a diocesan plan that will increase fundraising efforts for the benefit of all schools. The magnitude of the challenge dominated my discussions with diocesan personnel in each department.

Sister Mary Louise at Our Lady of Hope Catholic School

Predominately Polish immigrant families founded Our Lady of Hope Parish 76 years ago. By the 1970s, the neighborhood was beginning a gradual integration of minority families. Today, the school is only 1 to 3% white or members of the parish. Despite of the incongruity between the parish and the school, about fifty percent of the parishioners are dedicated to the school’s survival.

Sister Mary Louise has been principal for 17 years. She described the admissions experience. First there is an interview of the custodial parent or guardian. She examines
old report cards for evidence of satisfactory performance. She notes that it is important that students who enroll can be successful. All students are subject to a 90 day probationary period. Parents who enroll their children in the school typically seek a role for faith in education, discipline, good academics, and safety.

Sister Mary Louise is dedicated to the Catholic identity of Our Lady of Hope School. She described encounters with Catholic identity through daily religion classes and weekly prayer services. All parents sign a formal agreement to have their child participate in religious education. In 17 years she has never had a parent refuse to do so. The principal described about 70% of the parents as church-going. Many Black families are very active in their own churches and speak from a spiritual base. For example, a parent might say, “I know the Lord will provide.” Or, “we know we need to keep them in our prayers.” Sister Mary Louise sees these comments as evidence of the spiritual support these parents seek for their children. The remaining 30% are un-churched but are comfortable with the spiritual exposure their children receive at the Catholic school. She does offer parents religious education classes for those parents with an interest in learning more about the Catholic faith.

Sister Mary Louise noted that the parish gives a subsidy to the school and a substantial amount of money is acquired from the Kids Charitable Fund. The Heartland diocese also gives a subsidy to the school. Other methods to provide funds are the “adopt a school” and the “adopt a student” campaigns. Seventy to eighty percent of all students receive financial aid.

One weakness prevalent within the city schools is the lack of Black teachers. Sister Mary Louise tries to remedy the situation with Black staff and volunteers. She also responded to questions about the school’s relationship with former alumnae. She noted that they are working hard to build a tighter relationship. The have an annual party where there are raffles and alumnae are encouraged to become informed about their old school.

At the school level, there are fears about the diocesan strategic plan and what will become of the parish schools. Parishioners believe that they have not been adequately heard and that school closures are inevitable. During the previous year, the diocesan office closed to schools with little discussion. A passionate debate continues between old-time parishioners who “need a say” in the outcome and critics on the current situation
who retort, “We can’t have seventy-year old altar boys.” Everyone knows that the fate of the schools is tied directly to decisions about parishes.

Sister Mary Louise chafes at the suggestion that the inner city schools, like hers, are not Catholic enough because they serve non-Catholic children. She resists the option that they become charter schools. She believes that the Church owes Heartland as a city these schools. Removing religion is not the answer, in her opinion. She considers her school a worthy project for the Church as it provides a service to the inner city children who will be the future leaders of Heartland. She argues that they need too morals and a religious foundation. She points to the leadership skills her school emphasizes. She wonders where the social justice mission of the Church fits into the current process for restructuring schools.

**Sister Mary Jerome at St. Clare of the Poor Catholic School**

Saint Clare of the Poor School was built in 1950 as a Polish parish Catholic school. Enrollment began to drop in the sixties and seventies as the neighborhood became more ethnically diverse. This quarter of Heartland is an ethnic melting pot with many Blacks, Hispanics, and Asians. Because of the early ethnic mix, the neighborhood developed a unique quality life with many biracial families. There are biracial children representing every economic strata of Heartland. The current school enrollment reflects the ethnic mix as well as a high number of non-Catholic children (almost 70%). The history of the parish brings openness to evangelization. Students are predominately Baptist, Lutheran or Muslim. Most parents who enroll their children find a Catholic school attractive for the values that are transmitted.

Sister Mary Jerome, the principal, notes that all children participate in religion classes. Some Muslim will not allow their younger children to attend church, but once the children are more "formed" in their own religion it ceases to be a problem. Sister Mary Jerome respects these parent’s requests. Religion classes try to incorporate a larger picture of religion, for example, that the Koran is a holy book.

This school reflects a unique environment, as there are formal sessions for parents so that they can become informed about the Catholic religion. Their families are not proselytized but they are informed. There are two annual retreats for parents where they
learn about Catholic rituals, sacraments, prayers and music. Deep spiritual themes are explored. Sister Mary Jerome speaks convincingly about her role as missionary within this city environment. She believes that a proper technique and invitation leads to understanding and perhaps even conversion. Her argument rests on the belief that Eucharist, Reconciliation, and other Catholic Christian values are worth sharing.

When asked about the school’s relationship with the parish, Sister Mary Jerome admits that virtually none exists. All children pay the same tuition. As is the case with other city center schools, the Kids Charity Fund provides the major financial support for the school. The Heartland diocese also gives a subsidy of over $200,000. Sister Mary Jerome admits that the diocesan strategic plan seeks to reduce that amount. Recently the school developed an alumnae organization that has been active. Sister Mary Jerome indicated that the new addition to the school, including a gym, was paid for through a campaign led by the alums. Particularly those with strong ties to the neighborhood support the school.

Sister Mary Jerome worked as in foreign missions for many years and she brings that spirit to her work as principal of St. Clare of the Poor School. She believes that Catholics have an obligation to provide an invitation in faith to their neighbors. She sees her role as principal primarily as a catechist. And she defines the mission of the school in terms of spreading the Gospel. At the same time she rejects proselytizing in favor of her preferred term, “invitation.”

When Sister Mary Jerome was asked to give evidence of Catholic identity within her school, she characterized the school as a community. Parents, students, and teachers are expected to join into that spirit, if they choose not to join in the community spirit, they are asked to go where they can. Sister believes that the more the community enters into the lives of the members, the stronger the community and the more the members benefit. She recognizes that her families have many personal problems, so they need the Gospel of hope. She does not think that it is helpful to separate the community into their separate churches as she recognizes that may lead to problems. She prefers to draw on those beliefs that all the members can share. She reminded that church is not about a building, but about community. Sister Mary Jerome believes that the Gospel message brings all people together.
The diocesan strategic plan seeks to restructure the parishes and Sister Mary Jerome fears that the decisions are being made without acknowledgement of the people whose lives will be affected. She argues that recognition of the Divine presence in the Eucharist and carried within each person is where you find Catholic identity. Sister Mary Jerome’s passion for the Gospel is contagious.

**Bryan Williams at the Cathedral School**

The Cathedral School was founded in 1914 and was actually built before the parish church. The 1920s and 1930s saw the Cathedral neighborhood as the center of Heartland’s economic growth. Elite families build luxurious homes and the neighborhood reflected the success of these prominent businessmen. By 1953, a new school was needed and built by the parish. But in the 1960’s economic decline began to set in as jobs decreased. Families started to move to the suburbs. Until the 1990’s the neighborhood declined, but recently a neighborhood revival has attempted to salvage the historic homes.

Reflecting the change in neighborhood demographics, the school population dropped from a high near 1000 students, to the current numbers, less than 200. The school population is 95% African-American, 2% Latino, and 3% white. Only three to five percent of the students are Catholic.

Bryan Williams is a novice principal who was a former high school vice-principal and classroom teacher. He came to the Cathedral School to gain experience as a principal and improve his odds at becoming principal of a new diocesan middle school. Unfortunately for Bryan, the likelihood that a middle school will be formed has diminished as the restructuring discussion for the diocesan strategic plan has been revamped numerous times. Meanwhile, Bryan is dedicated to making Cathedral School work. He has developed a good relationship with the pastor and tries to create a school program based in character building. The current director of the cathedral provides masses and services. The parish provides about 50% or more in subsidies for the school’s operating budget.

When parents seek admission to the school, Bryan notes that he emphasizes that the school is Catholic and asked if the parent is familiar with the Catholic Church or
school. Religion classes have a moral or values emphasis that transcends the students’ various religions. Teachers attempt to focus on similarities between religious values.

As with the other inner city Catholic schools, Cathedral students are required to take religion class. Students attend Mass once a month and there is a weekly prayer service. No excuses are accepted. Parents who send their children to Cathedral School are often looking for discipline and order for their children.

Each of the inner-city schools competes for teachers with the other Catholic schools. Bryan notes that he needs teachers with classroom experience, content area specialty, classroom management skills, a positive attitude, and a degree of religiosity. The teacher does not have to be Catholic, but must be willing to promote Catholic values. Just like Sisters Mary Louise and Jerome, Bryan would like to have a more diverse teaching faculty to provide students with role models.

Bryan responds enthusiastically that Catholic identity within Cathedral School centers on developing a good moral character in the students. For example, students have required service hours. He used the sports program as an example of Catholic identity. The way the students are expected to act and respond at sporting events reflects the school’s Catholic identity. He spoke the “Catholic way” of presenting right and wrong. Bryan states that students are expected to respect and support their classmates. These values are presented to parents so they too can provide support.

Bryan would like to build a stronger relationship with the school’s alumnae. Many of them have become successful in the community and would make excellent student role models. Ultimately, Bryan distinguishes the school’s Catholic identity with how the students act. He hopes that when his students are in the neighborhood and they are well-behaved, people with say, “they go to the Catholic school.” To Bryan that is the substance of Catholic identity: Christian values expressed through action. Bryan adds that as a Christian he believes he also is held to a higher standard and must be an example. This is how he characterizes the role the school plays even with a predominately non-Catholic student body: To develop individuals willing to make a difference by doing the right thing.
Father George as School Pastor

My interview with Father George immediately took on a different tenor. He arrived dressed in sweat pants and a jacket wearing a baseball cap. His demeanor resembled a priest who “lived on the streets.” He was unassuming, but serious. Whereas the other participants were gracious interviewees, Father George appeared agitated and motivated to deliver his thoughts on the research topic unfiltered, but reflective. His responses mirrored his thirty years as a pastor within the inner city and included the successes and shortcomings he experienced.

Father George began with a description of how the Catholic parishes “used to be.” He noted that a parish is belonged to the neighborhoods. And the parish sponsored neighborhood schools. The schools served churched children of parish families and were values centered. Catholicity superimposed itself over the neighborhood. There were Catholic teachers, Catholic religion classes and regular masses. Then, the Catholics moved to the suburbs where the schools were predictable and stable.

When the Catholics left the neighborhoods, the paradigm of catholicity over neighborhood schools remained. But the new families mainly wanted an option to public schools. They liked the idea of a small school with discipline and high academic standards. These were good people attracted to the values promoted within the Catholic schools. And the principals and teachers were prompted by a calling to serve these children.

Father George goes on thoughtfully and voicing regrets about how the transition to a new population within the neighborhoods was engaged by the Church. “I am not sure we did as much as we might have done to adapt to the God constituency of the school. We might have done more to adapt to the needs. We are insensitive to people of color, referring to them as “you people” in a condescending sort of voice. We could have done more to acclimate.”

All of these comments were prelude to Father George’s next statements. He seems to feel the need to respond to his critics. Father George closed his parish Catholic school and reopened it as a charter school. His actions have brought a fire-storm from individuals such as Sisters Mary Louise and Mary Jerome. Those women reject the charter movement as a replacement for inner city Catholic schools.
Father George goes on to explain that under the charter school they serve the same neighborhood kids, they have a Black principal and one Black teacher. He notes that they could not have afforded to hire them in the past. Some individuals interpret his move as “giving up” but he believes it is the appropriate response for the neighborhood. The new charter school is called Circle of Hope Academy. Hope is the overarching value and Father George goes on to say, "in some ways we were in a position to support the kids in their own denominational values.” Again as a point of explanation or defense, Father George adds that if there were Catholic students in the neighborhood there would be no point in having a charter school, but only about five percent of the students are Catholic.

Father George is straightforward in stating that money was the motivator. His parish had lost more than $100,000 per year for the last two years. He points out that the "connection between parish in school was only institutional.” The school took all the resources from the parish. He felt like he could not justify that to the parish. So Father George decided to follow a Gospel value of service. He explains that the parish has had a soup kitchen for many years. The soup kitchen does not just serve Catholics, but anyone who needs the service. That is a Catholic mission of service. He chose to follow that model with the school.

When moving from Catholic schools to charter schools, “you lose something, no doubt about it.” Father George continued. “I don't think charter schools will be as good as Catholic parish schools.” But Father George hopes to build the culture of the school around hope values.

People such as Martin Luther King, Dorothy Day, Gandhi and Jesus all brought hope to the oppressed. Rights and responsibilities will be emphasized to students. “No doubt there will be a struggle about the values a charter school endorses and ours is taking place on the board and within the faculty,” Father George admitted. He explained that they have to write a hope curriculum where one did not exist and it is a challenge.

Father George believes that a charter school is a legitimate school and a legitimate way for Catholics to provide service. He knows that a good school is necessary for neighborhood development. Even a Catholic parish was regarded as a stabilizing institution within the neighborhood. That is why there are so many concerns about the
diocesan restructuring plan if it includes closing inner city parishes. Father George would argue that Catholic identity presents itself in many ways and service to the inner city through a soup kitchen, or a homeless shelter, or a charter school, are each legitimate service in light of the Gospel.

**History of the Kids Charity Fund**

In 1970, Father Harry Bones recognized that the inner city had changed. He was a diocesan priest who understood fundraising as he had an economics degree. He and four Protestant pastors formed a group and approached local businesses about the importance of saving the inner city Catholic schools. In 1970, they raised $100,000 for, at that time, 12 schools. They preached on Sundays and had special collections. They visited parish councils to plead their case. And perhaps most important, Father Harry cooked for an annual chili luncheon for the Priest Personnel Board in an effort to place pastors sympathetic to inner city schools at those parishes.

Over time, the schools became smaller, many were consolidated or closed, and the needs became larger. The Kids Charity Fund decided to establish a development office. They hold an annual banquet where inner city school graduates are honored and students provide the entertainment. Even with large amount of money raised, the schools were still needy. Father George was a good friend of Father Harry during these years. Father George proclaims that there needs to be a “conversion of attitude” so that all Catholics recognize their responsibilities.

The Kids Charity Fund is now part of the strategic plan discussions and no one knows what the future will be. There are concerns that the grassroots nature of the network will be lost. Previously, principals and pastors made the decisions, but the trend seems to be toward the diocesan level. Many would argue that is a contradiction of the Church’s subsidiary rule.

**Discussion of the findings**

Contemplative leadership practice demonstrates the relationship between fundamental beliefs and decision-making within Catholic schools (Schuttlloffel, 1999). Each decision a school leader makes reflects an understanding and engagement of the
Gospel values and Church teaching provide the why or the critical level of reflection for the decision making for Catholic school leaders. One might argue that the spiritual and corporal works of mercy are an example the technical aspect or how for Catholic practice. Church membership and mainstream society regularly interpret Catholic educational practice looking for a message or meaning that is consistent with the Church’s fundamental principles articulated through documents and teachings.

According a commonly accepted definition (Schuttloffel, 1999, p. ), Gospel values include the three theological virtues (faith, hope, charity) and the four cardinal virtues (prudence, temperance, fortitude, justice) and Church teachings specific to how to live out these virtues. The corporal and spiritual works of mercy typically exemplify virtuous living (Catechism of the Catholic Church, 1994).

One of the most common themes within Church documents in the twentieth century is social justice. Beginning with Rerum Novarem and continued through more recent USCCB documents on the definition and practices of social justice (1986), the Catholic Church propagated the concept of social justice before modern culture popularized the term.

In the twentieth century, American Catholic Bishops distinguished themselves through documents that clarified and strengthened the Church’s position on numerous social justice issues. These documents intentionally help to shape the leadership role the Catholic Church enjoyed in American society until the sexual abuse scandals. These documents were influenced by previous writings concerning the social state of the worker in the world and the risks of the modern political environment (Rerum Novarum, 1891; Mater et Magistra, 1961).

Catholic social teaching addresses the following ten topics (Krietemeyer, 2000): human dignity, community and the common good, rights and responsibilities, option for the poor, participation, work and rights of workers, stewardship of creation, solidarity, the role of government, and promotion of peace. Often these topics are summarized within seven themes: (1) Life and Dignity of the Human Person, (2) Call to Family, Community, and Participation, (3) Rights and Responsibilities, (4) Option for the Poor and Vulnerable, (5) The Dignity of Work and the Rights of Workers, (6) Solidarity, and (7) Care for God's Creation (www.USCCB.org). Human dignity refers to the belief that all
persons are created in the image and likeness of God, and thereby, are worthy of respect. Community and common good refers to the need to consider the welfare of others beyond oneself and those actions that build-up community. Rights and responsibilities emphasize the balance between these two concepts in a society that focuses on rights of the individual often overlooking responsibilities to the common good or community. Option for the poor brings to the forefront not only those actions that favor the common good, but also those actions that give preference to the poor, disenfranchised, and marginalized. Participation includes those behaviors that require removing ourselves from our comfort zone and taking public action. Work and rights of workers have a long history in Catholic social teaching articulated by to Pope Leo XIII in his encyclical, *Rerum Novarum*, which emphasized the rights and well-being of the worker during the peak of industrial society. Stewardship of creation reminds Catholics that responsibility and the common good do not refer only to humans, but to God’s entire creation. Solidarity was clearly demonstrated during the fall of communism as the ability of individuals to stand together for a common, worthy cause that liberates. The role of government characterizes the fact that individuals cannot always solve their problems alone. Government might need to intervene and assist in addressing the needs that go beyond the resources of individuals. Promotion of peace is the fruition of the challenge of Christianity. These topics demonstrate the breadth of the Catholic Church’s challenge for social justice thinking and practice within American society.

The United States Catholic Conference of Bishops circulates numerous publications that explore social justice and its integration into the lives of American Catholics including *Reflections of the U.S. Catholic Bishops*. Also includes the *Summary Report of the Task Force on Catholic Social Teaching and Catholic Education*, *Catholic Social Teaching at Work Today*, and the *Tenth Anniversary Edition of Economic Justice for All and Catholic Social Teaching and the U.S. Economy*. The National Catholic Educational Association also provides guidance for teachers to embed Catholic social justice teaching within curricula: *Leaven for the Modern World: Catholic social teaching and Catholic education* and *Integrating the Social Teaching of the Church into Catholic Schools: Conversations in Excellence 2000*. 

20
Gospel values and Church teaching provide the *why* or the critical level of reflection for the decision making for Catholic school leaders. The spiritual and corporal works of mercy are an example the technical aspect or *how* for Catholic practice. Catholic educational decisions inherently create meaning or send a message to students, teachers, and parents. Church membership and mainstream society regularly interpret Catholic educational practice looking for a message or meaning that is consistent with the Church’s fundamental principles articulated through documents and teachings.

When analyzing the case study data, the relationship between contemplative practice and participant comments becomes fairly obvious. The influence of Catholic social justice teaching is a theme throughout the interviews with Sisters Mary Louise and Mary Jerome, Father George and Bryan. Each of these individuals argued for the continuation of Catholic parishes and schools within the inner city, not for the growth of the Church, but to fulfill the Church’s obligation to support stability of inner city neighborhoods. The well being of the aged, poor, and minorities is directly tied to the ability of neighborhoods to retain quality institutions.

Father George argues that the same rationale that provides for a Catholic church sponsored soup kitchen or homeless shelter can be used to defend a Catholic school for non-Catholics. Sister Mary Louise sees Catholic education as the vehicle for developing Heartland’s future minority leadership. She wants those future leaders shaped by Gospel values. Sister Mary Jerome believes that parishes and schools are the key elements in forming a community spirit built on respect and understanding. Her rationale claims that authentic Catholic social justice requires Catholics to lift others up whether or not they are Catholic. Bryan offers a motivation that also includes character and leadership development for the community’s benefit.

Implicit and explicit in the remarks of these Catholic school leaders is the influence of Catholic social justice teaching. For them, the appropriateness of service to the inner city is obvious and the rationale resides within the Church’s own teaching. Each of the participants rejects the mentality of “Catholic schools for Catholic kids” and “we can’t afford to keep these schools open” as counter arguments. Their fundamental beliefs, based in Gospel values, demand that the Church maintains a presence within the inner city for the welfare of the city and the Church. The study’s participants do not
associate Catholic identity with the number of Catholic students in a school. Their definition of Catholic identity is associated with contemplative practice. The connection between beliefs (Catholic social justice teaching) and action (inner city Catholic parishes and schools) defines Catholic identity for the participants of this study.

Sister Mary Louise responds forthrightly [when asked about school closings], “Where does social justice fit in?” Sister Mary Jerome asks [about school closings], “Where is the Gospel of hope?” Bryan states, “Catholic identity is in their [students] actions.” And Father George argues for his charter school, “a charter school is . . . a legitimate way for Catholics to provide service [to the neighborhood].”

At the same time Superintendent Smith states the obvious, that the schools need money to survive and time is running out. All of the participants know that the financial reality drives the decisions made at the Diocesan Schools Office. At the parish school level, each community lobbies for its individual significance, but the reality is that several parishes are within steeple view of each other. Unless there is a rapid reversal in population, neither parishioners nor the diocese can continue to maintain every single parish. Members of the diocesan strategic planning task force grapple with multiple strategies to levy funds. The dilemma between finances and social justice wears on the arguments of the participants. The future seems to hold more painful decisions.

**Lessons Learned from the Diocese of Heartland**

The conflict between finances and social justice is a dilemma faced by numerous dioceses in the United States. Contemplative practice challenges Catholic educational leaders to be thoughtful about principles when making decisions. The Diocese of Heartland provides no simple solution, no educational silver bullet, but there are dispositions and ideas to consider. For more than 30 years the Kids Charitable Fund worked to keep inner city schools open. The concept has potential if the dollar amount could be substantially increased. Businesses, charitable foundations, and government have much to gain by investments into institutions with a proven track record. Catholic hospitals and clinics are an example of institutions that receive private and public funds in order to carry out their works. Inner city Catholic schools provide a service to the
larger civic community beyond the Catholic Church. Debates over charter schools and vouchers are short sighted when the evidence demonstrates these schools’ effectiveness at educating poor minority students. The pivotal question is whether these inner city Catholic schools would be as effective if the Catholic identity is removed (e.g., charter school)? Charter schools are simply too young to provide an unequivocal answer. More research will be required to address this question.

One of Father George’s comments requires serious consideration if any resolution to the plight of the poor and marginalized populating inner cities will be found. He called for a “change in attitude.” The obligation of the larger community, Church and civic, state and national, to serve the needs of the poor and marginalized whether they live in the inner city or in rural areas or in remote mountain regions, must be engaged. Until everyone feels a connection to other human beings, inner city gentrification and urban renewal will only relocate the poor, but not reconnect them to the Gospel of hope. A fundamental change in attitude, a dispositional quality, addresses the dilemma of finances or social justice as not an either or choice, but as a challenge to a community’s creative thinking. The risk is that a change in attitude takes time, and time is always running out for the inner city schools.

Sister Mary Jerome asked me, “Where are the holy men and women [who will figure out a solution]?” Her question challenges each of us, Catholic or not, to consider our obligation to those in our community, nation, and world, who do not look like us, pray like us, or talk like us, but who are created by God, like us. Where are the saints of our time? What would saints do in our time?

References


The 21st Century Educator: Strategic and Consultative Partner

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Abstract

We are living in a state of great flux. Needless to say, political, social, economic, and technological structures are changing faster than we can name and define them. As educators, we are called upon to ready adults for the challenges brought on by global changes. Educators in the 21st Century are no longer knowledge producers and disseminators. Educators are involved in managing the educational process; their own and that of the adult students.

Educational leadership in the knowledge society is evidenced with a curiously mixed set of skills; it is defined by emotional intelligence and spirituality; it is defined by the finely honed ability of facilitating learning in cross-cultural, multi-lingual, and inter-disciplinary settings; it is defined by a willingness to move away from the guru-stance of teaching and toward a praxis of partnering for change. Today’s educator ought to be a strategic partner and consultant in the lifelong and life wide process of learning. With this essay, the authors begin to explore the multi-dimensional role of educational leadership in the 21st Century.

What Has Adult Education To Do With Learning?

We are living in a state of global flux. Political, social, economic, and technological structures are changing faster than we can name and define them. Cornel West (1999) once wrote, “The existential quest for meaning and the political struggle for freedom sit at the center of my thought.” As educators, we often claim our role to be that
of facilitating the kind of learning adults need for their life’s quests. As part of the effort to play our role well, we have developed an abundance of theories and written scores of books on learning. Correspondingly, tomes of instructions on how to facilitate such learning exist in our field. We marvel at the latest technologies in our trade, and then apply the tools marvelously. Collectively, we seem to be of a mindset that, in order to play our role, we must produce and disseminate knowledge, or at least disseminate ways of meaning-making and support adults in their lifelong learning.

Karoly & Panis (2004) forecast of the “dramatic” consequences for learning due to the changes occurring in contemporary life meets with Jarvis’ (2001) earlier confirmation that the role of the educator has been redefined as facilitator of learning. In 2000, Aronowitz passionately had made clear that the adult education industry finds itself in the midst of dynamic changes and that adult educators must navigate the turbulence by adapting their roles. They were inspired by the shiny currency of recurrent education. Adult educators set out to ready adults for challenges and possibilities ushered in by such change. We lead the charge toward social change by means of education. We embraced the maverick’s role. And we still do it--by way of facilitating learning.

We posit, that adult educators’ leadership in today’s knowledge society ought to be evidenced with a curious mix of skills; by emotional intelligence and spirituality; defined by critically examined experience; by mindful reflection on assumptions and values; and gauged by the finely honed ability of facilitating learning in cross-cultural, multi-lingual, and inter-disciplinary settings. Educators must be willing to move away from the guru-stance of teaching subjects toward praxis of partnering with others for change. The 21st Century educator ought to be strategic partner, consultant, and process manager in leading people as they go about lifelong and life wide learning.

The Subject and Object of Adult Education:

The field of adult education has claimed to have a closer connection to and a deeper understanding of adults and their lifelong learning endeavors than have traditional
education structures like colleges and universities. Our concern has been with the difference, a major one, between how faculty and students view and understand the learning/teaching process,” claimed Dai Hounsell back in 1987 (Smith et al., p.113) about the field. By the 1980s, adult education had been firmly established as a field in the USA, albeit one without a unified voice as to its purpose and goals. And yet, the common denominator of any adult education endeavor, whether formal or informal, has always been the adult.

Irrespective of the various aims and objectives claimed by the workers in this field (Darkenwald and Merriam, 1982), adult educators seemed to agree with what Knowles had predicted in 1964; namely, that this movement called adult education might be the educational frontier of the 20th century and beyond. Andragogues, to use the terminology for adult educators introduced in the USA by Lindeman (1926) and popularized by Knowles, distinguished themselves from pedagogues in their approaches to facilitating learning. Sets of principles and beliefs about how adults learn originated in both the emergent humanist and critical stance toward conventional education models. Interest in defining and, consequently, developing techniques for facilitating adults’ learning grew profusely from that era on. What should distinguish adult educators’ ways of educating is our commitment to facilitating the learning, or, as Stanage (1998) put it, the “leading forth” of adults according to their expressed goals. Instead, we keep adding to a grab bag, expanding the repertoires of techniques and strategies, and adding tools and toys.

We continue to teach subjects instead of adults. We measure this learning in standardized ways and award certificates, diplomas and degrees, symbolizing that another adult has been educated. We reiterate with this that the dualistic notion that a superior knowledge or universal truth exists, no matter how vigorously we may “discourse” about the content and goal of adult education in our field. With this, it is the adult educator who

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3 This statement rests on the premise that we agree that adult education has a particular knowledge base, with an identifiable history and a distinguishing philosophical framework, all of which has traditionally differed from institutions and structures that also educate adults (e.g., colleges, trade schools, and corporate training departments).

4 The scope of this essay is too narrow to do even a smidgen of justice to the rich histories – both written and unwritten – of adult education in the USA. The reader is encouraged to consider the point illustrated with this brief statement; i.e., that adult education, in its myriad manifestations, established sets of principles particular to this field. At the time, these principles of adult learning and corresponding techniques of facilitating learning were cutting edge and unique. Today, much of this knowledge base has become mainstream education/training fare, even when its originators are not credited.
continues to constrain adults learning within relatively static structures and systems. Yet, adult educators within the broader knowledge base of adult education are well poised to shift the paradigm and lead toward appropriate adult education practices during this great moment of flux.

**Back to the Future**

Within the field, the construct *learning* remains multi-layered and varied in its interpretation, depending on the philosophical framework of the respective adult educator. The focus may be on learning style, learner needs, and strategies of information exchange or social justice, among others. The discourse centers *learning* on critically analyzing the learner’s experience of learning (Brookfield. 1995:226) or makes *learning* synonymous with education (Marsick. 1998). *Learning* is, indeed, explored richly within the field of adult education and problematized in many ways. The fascinating aspect here is that adult educators no more than scientists in other fields really know how *learning* works. As was once impishly stated, adult educations’ learning theories are based on studies of the behavior of pigeons and small North American mammals. We have not come much closer to theoretically grounding this construct in theories within our particular field. However, we have established learning-how-to-learn concepts (Smith. 1987) and transformational learning concepts (1997) and women’s ways of knowing concepts (Belenkey. 1986), for example. We have much information about *learning* and a collective experience in supporting adults learning. We have several traditions within our field, from the radical humanism of Knowles to the humanist radicalism of Freire (1971), that chronicle roles of adult educators, which point the way to the role an educator of adults in the 21st century ought to play.

**Ways of Knowing & Knowing Ways: Skills of the 21st Century Learner**

Forecasters discuss the changing skill set for adults in terms of needed changes in education and training delivery mechanisms that empower adults to meet contemporary life’s challenges. Roco’s (2002) simple words should have adult educators hasten to assess the state of affairs in adult education when he says that “new” technologies are becoming obsolete and incredible technologies, such as nanotechnology, are emerging at amazing paces.” Ryan reminded us (1994) us that “we are on the threshold of a new age -
a high tech information age where there is the greatest explosion of knowledge in the history of mankind. Information is proliferating at a phenomenal rate and information processing has become the backbone of a whole new era. Storing, retrieving, creating, distributing and exchanging information, using tools of high technology, are now important aspects of our economy and the foci of many jobs which did not exist a decade ago.” Much of the jobs in such services and the Ryan saw forthcoming, have already come and gone. Yet, we are still skilling adults in obsolete computer skills in vocational training programs, and most of our institutions of adult and higher education barely have up-to-date equipment and CTI knowledge. Adult educators, given the current structures of our institutions, cannot possibly maintain an edge on the skills in this fast, vastly changing knowledge society to lead in teaching them. Continued development is needed as much for the teacher as for the student in our times. Moreover, as Hayes and Wynyard (2002) caution, “the training of the mind is no longer the central role for academics, who are now in the business of ensuring that their teaching has a vocational ethos.” We have to acknowledge that employment opportunities remain key criteria for adults for the selection of education programs; and retraining, re-skilling, or assisting adults with recurrent education is a task for adult educators. It is debatable whether or not the education field has thus far adequately responded to the vocational training needs of adults, who are seeking to better their lives through education. Yet, in a knowledge-based economy a premium will be placed on educational systems that rapidly respond to the ever-changing learning needs demanded by the transforming global dynamics.

Chen (2003) ponders “contextual multiple intelligences.” His expansion of Howard Gardners’ concept of multiple intelligences far outpaces the original learning style considerations discussed in the field of adult education in the 1970s. Chen makes the case that adults in this century will be called upon to develop and apply new tech skills as much as gaining a different understanding of knowledge and intelligence within an interdependent, global context. Adults will need to be versed in ways of knowing within a global, intercultural, and interdisciplinary context. Problem-solving, communication, and working in diverse teams are skills increasingly required at all levels of work and life (Karoly & Panis. 2004).
Educators will need to foster cognitive, affective, physical, and intuitive knowing in the lifelong learner if adults are to keep up with change. Today’s technologies and global changes give society the impetus to align its expectations with respect to learning and knowledge and leadership to meet the challenges. Knowles predicted adult education to be the movement to watch in the 20th century; internationally, we are clamoring for interdependence and a learning orientation in our educational programs (UNESCO, 2003). At this time, we have a window of opportunity for adult educators to step up to the plate.

The Adult Educator: Not A Negligent Species

The literature on the notion of a paradigm shift to a knowledge economy offers a plethora of possibilities on how institutions of learning may embrace changes in their structures and attitudes. It is the adult educator, however, who can become a pivotal force during this time of transition. It is the adult educator who has the experience of being on the margins of resources, status, and clarity of purpose and role in a knowledge society. Adult education workers have long come from many philosophical orientations; utilized many teaching approaches; and toiled in the field of adult education in many non-conventional ways. Therefore, adult educators ought to be able to create ways of becoming partners with the adult learners that help adults become “[…] perceptive, flexible, creative, adaptable and, most of all, able to solve problems and make decisions in a multiplicity of personal and professional situations as yet unimagined” (Ryan, 1994). The 21st Century educator will be a strategic partner, a knowledgeable consultant, a process manager, a leader, and a self-aware human. In that, these kind of adult educators take on the high-risk task of becoming transactional and transformational leaders.

Roles and Characteristics of The 21st Century Adult Educator

Adult educators in the new paradigm establish an atmosphere conducive to decision making. The decision-making process involves the possibility of change. Mezirow (2000) states almost any change in life creates feelings of uncertainty and
doubt. Educators must establish a relationship with learners in which these feelings can be discussed: an atmosphere conducive to change. Kurt Lewin (1951) in his research on how people change has determined that before a change is accepted, there must occur an unfreezing of the person’s present belief system. This unfreezing will be facilitated when the person has the opportunity to openly express loyalty and allegiance to the old beliefs and the fear and doubt of changing beliefs.

Change entails both: allegiance to the old way and fear and doubt about the new. Adult learners need an opportunity to talk openly about their concerns. As a result, the adult educator must be skilled in non-judgmental listening. Only then will the adult learners feel comfortable raising these questions. In the traditional model, these questions are considered “objections to overcome.” This conveys to the learner the message either that their feelings about change are wrong or that the teacher has all the answers. It stifles the flow of open, honest communication necessary for building committed partnerships.

In our traditional education models, educators “talk a lot” and create and show their knowledge. Educators have been programmed to believe that they must have the answers. Given this positionality (Taylor & Tisdell, 1999), it is difficult for teachers to understand the importance of just listening to the concerns of students and not taking action to overcome them. When such concerns are not allowed to surface, or when they are brought up and denied, they have power to sabotage the relationship. Once doubt is brought to the surface and treated as valid, its power to impede the change process goes away. It is such a climate of openness and interdependence that can pave the way for new learning in the 21st Century, supported by a new kind of adult educator.
The previous graphic sketches key aspects of the adult educator’s roles, characteristics, and the scope of the learning process for both teacher and student. It is built on the following values and assumptions:

- The teacher-student relationship has a process-driven focus. With this, both acknowledge that there is no one best approach but rather that the teaching approach must fit the learning task at hand.
- Since student and teacher are seen in partnership, which exists regardless of where on the spectrum the learner stands at any point in time with respect to a learning task, both select the most appropriate approach. Collaboration is a value intrinsic to any approach.
The movement between directiveness to interdependence is reflexive, depending on the learning task, and is selected based on the readiness of the student. Readiness is defined as that combination of knowledge, skill, and reflected upon experience that a student brings to the task.

Teacher-student roles are viewed as interchangeable and there is an acceptance of valuing the 21st century educator as a transformational leader between paradigms

The pedagogical approach (P), at the point of a directive stance of the teacher works in learning situation where the student lacks the readiness to engage in the learning task at hand that leads to learning goals. Adult students returning to graduate school, for example, may find themselves ill-equipped to cope with so-termed academic writing and willingly benefit from workshops on preparing for graduate level course work. Here, expecting self-directedness at the point when a student ventures into unknown learning tasks would be equivalent to giving a person a sailboat, an instructional manual, and a nautical map and ask them to start sailing across Lake Michigan.

Once a certain level of readiness prevails, the andragogical approach (A) calls on the teacher to engage the student in the decision-making process. Students can now determine how and when to learn certain tasks and collaboratively move through the learning process with the teacher. In the sailing example, this may play out after basic sail setting techniques have been mastered and students can choose what navigational skills to work on. The student can take more responsibility and learn independently from manuals and maps in preparation of further instruction. In this example, the movement from pedagogical/directive to andragogical/self-directed approaches is iterative and the teacher has assumed more of a consultative role (C). Learning becomes validated by mastery of the tasks.

In the approach where the teachers become consultants, they guide students based on significant knowledge and expertise. Whatever subject is taught, the aim is to benefit the students by sharing knowledge and expertise freely. The adult educators in the role of consultants ensure that the student has “hired “them before offering their expertise. Then they make sure students perceive a problem, opportunity or unmet need before offering
their expertise. At the same time, they make sure that they, too, understand the problem or unmet need.

Once this has been accomplished, the student remains in charge of the decision-making process, self-directly choosing learning goals and short-term or mid-range tasks. The consultant listens to and acknowledges the student’s resistance to change, should that be the case. Together they make sure they have adequate facts or know how to address the task at hand. Finally, consultants leave the responsibility with the student for rejecting or accepting their knowledge. Consultants know their role is more than merely providing subject-matter content. Many times they must provide knowledge and experience in other areas that support the use of the newly acquired knowledge. Consultants analyze situations, consider options and alternatives, make recommendations, and motivate students to action by providing value. Like a doctor who recommends surgery without a thorough analysis of the patient’s condition, an adult educator recommending an educational intervention without understanding the student’s situation is guilty of malpractice. Successful adult educators in the new paradigm see the importance of the periodically needed role of consultants. They understand that their success depends upon their ability to share their expertise in a responsible manner that contributes first to their students’ success.

As learning tasks are more complex in that they require greater knowledge and skills the student brings to the learning situation, the teaching approach exists in a more interdependent context; one wherein the teacher must partner strategically (S) with the student to “get the task done.” Teacher content area expertise, more than in previous learning situations, now becomes less important as the process managing of the learning situation is the main expertise needed from the teacher. This strategic partner also becomes an assembler of resources, utilizing the knowledge base of adult education to assess and fulfill the learning needs of the student. This interdependency creates moments of critical self-reflection for the teacher, allowing for growth and learning for the teacher as well. Being in partnership means a commitment to ongoing
communication. Therefore, the possibility of continuous growth and improvement is reinforced for both student and teacher during this approach.

The partnership becomes the basis for constantly looking for new ways to improve the educational experience. Teachers have now moved into the role of being transactional and transformational leaders (TL) in the relationship. This form of educational partnership is the foundation in this paradigm for the education of adults. Partnership evolves when the commitment to the partner is focused on getting mutual needs met. Providing for, servicing, and contributing to the other person’s goal achievement is something both partners enjoy doing. Partnership means being committed to something larger than the individual. These educational partnerships have a future beyond a single course or a one-time, educational event. They constitute a mutual commitment to one another as much as to the learning process. The student is asked to take a quantum leap and trust the teacher. While they leap together, the roles of teacher and student become interchangeable. The partnership exists with shared goals, ethics, attitudes, and orientations. There is a common vision that connects teacher and student as both are engaged in transformation.

**Conclusion**

This scope of roles and practices is a way to review and examine the change processes for our adult education practice. The question mark represents the unknown. As we jointly explore the new frontiers of the adult education industry and seek to meet the needs of today’s and tomorrow’s adult learner, we should build on our practices and open our practices to acknowledge other knowledge bases. In the increasingly global knowledge society of the 21st Century, we ought to move toward lived interdependence in the learning process.
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Cultivating Social Transformation: Expanding Pedagogical Boundaries

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Abstract:
The University of Dayton (USA) provides an educational program for the Society of Mary in India. This program began in 1997 and delivers a Bachelor of Arts (BA) degree to diverse Indian students, many of whom come from tribal cultures. This article explores the rich challenges that this program poses for the faculty and students. Faculty are pushed to cross the pedagogical boundaries created by the different academic and cultural traditions. Indian faculty learns to practice and appreciate active and connected learning. American faculty learns to appreciate the role of language and narrative in the learning process. Tribal culture is used as a positive educational resource. Everyone involved in the program is moved to reflect on the role of education for social transformation.

Deepahalli, the Hindi word for “village of light,” is the home for the University of Dayton’s Bangalore Program. Deepahalli is about 26 kilometers southeast of the city center of Bangalore, which is referred to as the “Silicon Valley” of India because of the high tech development which has taken place there. Bangalore is also referred to as the “Garden City” because of the great variety of foliage which grows there throughout the year due to its moderate climate. Deepahalli embodies both of these characteristics. It is a place of lush natural foliage with high tech computers and internet access, classrooms, and a library. The symbol for Deepahalli is a burning oil lamp. For the students who come to Deepahalli to develop academically, this is the light of learning.

The University of Dayton’s Bangalore Program first accepted students in 1997. It has provided an opportunity for Indian students and professors as well as for American professors to expand the boundaries of their worlds, cultures, and learning experiences. Both authors are faculty of the University of Dayton (Ohio, USA), and have been actively involved with the establishment and development of this Program. One author, from the
Department of Philosophy, has been involved since the very conception of the Program, serving as the University of Dayton’s liaison and coordinator and teaching philosophy in the June term. The other author, from the School of Education, has served for six years as the Executive Director of the Bangalore Program while teaching a range of courses including sociology of education. This article develops from our reflections upon our experiences and years of collaborative work. It is our sharing of the expanding of boundaries of our own learning and development as professional educators, “to derive meaning from [our] experience” (p. 322) as Garson has shared her experience of teaching at an undergraduate school of business in Egypt (2005). We first explain the history of the Program and then reflect on the manner in which the Program has helped us and others to expand beyond our traditional boundaries, learning new pedagogies and discerning more clearly the role of education in social transformation.

**History and goals of the program**

The Society of Mary (Marianists) is an international religious congregation of priests, brothers, and sisters within the Roman Catholic Church. It originated in France in 1817, founded by William Joseph Chaminade. The Marianists from the United States arrived in India in 1980 to work among the tribals of northern India. Soon after their arrival, young Indian men joined their ranks. Their present ministries include working with street children and rag pickers, elementary and secondary schools, and adult education.

The University of Dayton, a Catholic comprehensive university, was established by the Marianists in 1850, shortly after their arrival in the United States, and has become one of the major Catholic institutions of higher education in the USA. Marianist universities in the USA besides the University of Dayton are Chaminade University in Honolulu, Hawaii, and St. Mary’s University in San Antonio, Texas. Marianists in the USA and in several countries throughout the world are also involved in elementary and secondary schools, parishes, retreat centers, and social ministries.
In 1997, the University of Dayton initiated an undergraduate program for the Society of Mary in Bangalore, India as a key component of the scholasticate formation of the young Marianist brothers of the Region of India. This program offers a complete undergraduate degree, a B. A. with a major in philosophy.

Prior to the initiation of this Program, most Marianist brothers in India combined a course of study in philosophy with an Indian B.A. earned by correspondence. This was judged unsatisfactory for several reasons. The result was a split focus, an excessive academic load, and a lack of integration. The students were forced to lead a fragmented academic existence, pursuing the study of western philosophy and culture on the one hand, and working for a recognized B.A. degree by correspondence on the other. In addition, degrees achieved by correspondence seemed of doubtful quality. Moreover, this approach did not relate the materials studied to lived experience, nor did it facilitate the development of reflective judgment.

The Marianists wanted a program that would provide students with an educational foundation that enables them to have an integrated world vision anchored in a confluence of the Indian cultural heritage and the Christian cultural heritage. They wanted students to be able to think critically on the basis of this integrated world vision. Moreover, they wanted students to obtain a recognized educational degree that can serve as a basis for post-graduate work in India or abroad, either in master’s level programs or professional courses of study. The degree needed to prepare students to carry out effective ministry in the contexts of a worldwide church and an international religious community which functions in a multi-faceted cultural setting. This preparation had to emphasize fluency in speaking, writing, reading, and understanding English. Moreover, the program needed to work with an understanding of the tribal identity of many of the students, recognizing that many of these students would return to teach in tribal areas (Toppo, 1995; Anamalai, 1999; Areeparampil, 1999; Raj (n.d.); Kispotta and Abraham, 2002).

The curriculum offered by the University of Dayton, a Marianist university, seemed particularly suited to meet these goals. The mission statement of the University of
Dayton states that it is a “diverse community committed, in the Marianist tradition, to educating the whole person and to linking learning and scholarship with leadership and service.” The University’s curriculum is guided by Marianist principles of education which emphasize educating for formation in faith; educating the whole person; educating for adaptation and change; educating for service, peace, and justice; and educating in a family spirit. This education is carried out in the context of an explicated understanding of the Catholic dimension of Christian faith. Students are encouraged to reflect on their faith commitments in the context of a world that is both pluralistic and ecumenical. Courses in philosophy and religious studies are particularly important to this process of discernment. The curriculum provides an excellent education that develops competencies and sets high standards; it connects theory with practice; and it educates both the mind and the heart. The importance of critical analysis and the value of the constant critique of society are emphasized as is the importance of a life of service. Individuals and groups are encouraged to work for peace and justice, recognizing the importance of counter-cultural positions. This education values experiential and service learning. Marianist education recognizes that the best education takes place in the context of the recognition of the explicit bonds and commitments that unite learners. It recognizes that each person has unique talents and liabilities and treats each person as an individual while emphasizing the importance of equality. It develops structures that support individual capabilities and differences (Characteristics of Marianist Universities, 1999).

The goals of the Indian Marianists and the principles that guide the University were of fundamental importance in developing the Bangalore Program. The primary purpose of this extension program is to teach students who are already committed to the tasks of serving the poor in India through education and social work. The previous formation of the Bangalore students emphasizes spiritual and psychological maturation leading to an initial commitment and experience in service of India’s poor. For such students, further education must aim not merely at the imparting of information but, above all, at providing means to integrate knowledge gained from a variety of disciplines into a meaningful and viable synthesis. The program emphasizes studies that deal with problems of fundamental human concern and so help already motivated students
understand these problems in a deeper and more comprehensive way. The program aims to prepare students for their future work as well as for higher, more specialized studies in the various professions (education, social work, Christian ministry) through which they will translate their commitment into action. The students in this program are part of the international Marianist community, which is committed to active participation in the quest for a more just and humane society. The Program is intended to prepare students to work effectively in the contexts of a worldwide church and an international religious community with the aim of having a positive impact on society.

In implementing this Program, the boundaries of the University of Dayton have been expanded, as have the educational experiences of those involved in the Program. Each person who has experienced the program, either as student or professor, has expanded his or her boundaries of what it means to teach and learn. Faculty have been pushed to cross the pedagogical boundaries created by the two academic and cultural traditions. Indian faculty learned to practice and appreciate active and connected learning. American faculty learned to appreciate the role of language and narrative in the learning process. Everyone involved in the program has been moved to reflect on the role of education for social transformation. As Ambrose Pinto (2004) notes in *Higher Education, Ideology and Politics*, while it is often claimed that education is the most powerful tool for social transformation, it is usually the elite who have access to education. Providing access to education for tribals has required development of cultural understanding for all involved in the Program.

**Retaining rigor, developing active and connected learning**

Most of the faculty employed to teach in the Bangalore Program have been educated in and have taught in the Indian system of higher education. Higher education in India emphasizes lecture, memorization, the prescribed textbook, and examinations (V. Raina & Dhand, 2000; M. Raina & Srivastava, 2000). This serves students well in terms of transmitting a body of knowledge, but it does not provide them with skills in practical reasoning (Alexander, 2001). The Indian faculty is well versed in communicating the
canon of knowledge of both western and Indian philosophy. Indeed, philosophy graduates from the Dayton campus who have volunteered time as tutors in India consistently praise the knowledge of the philosophy faculty. This faculty is rigorous in their demands of students to be able to explain the positions and conceptual frameworks of various philosophers. However, as Ambrose Pinto (2004) notes, Indian education “is a dual system, encouraged by the state, for strengthening and perpetuating the unjust exploitation of the have-nots by the haves” (p. 53). In the Bangalore Program, most of the students come from tribal areas and so have not had access to the best of Indian education. Educating tribal students requires faculty to understand that “There is no culture of individual performance among tribal people” (Toppo, 1995, p. 109). Faculty need to move this understanding into pedagogical practice, developing skills in cooperative learning. A major challenge that Indian faculty face in teaching in the Bangalore Program is to retain their rigorous standards while helping students connect their education in philosophy to other disciplines and to a practical life of service.

Other aspects of the pedagogy of the University of Dayton are also quite different from that of most Indian colleges and universities (University of Dayton Bulletin). The whole program, like most universities in the USA, is based upon semester credit hours and one’s accumulative grade point average (GPA). Several universities in India are beginning to adopt this system and switch from the yearly examination system of the British university. To a certain extent, each term functions on its own, with its own set of courses for a specific year level and with a week for examinations related to what was taught and learned during the semester. Students receive a mark sheet for each term, which includes a mark for each course taken that term. There is a GPA for that term and a cumulative GPA. The marking scheme is also different from most Indian and Asian universities with marks taking on different percentages. For example, passing is 60% or better, with an A being 95% or better. The marks utilize letters ranging from A to F (A (95-100), A- (90-94), B+ (87-89), B (84-86), B- (80-83), C+ (77-79), C (74-76), C- (70 -73), D (60 -69) and F (59 and below). The marks are not solely based on one examination but are indicative of the student’s work throughout the term and include more than performance on examinations throughout the term. Assessment is also
determined by how well a student participates throughout the term in the course through discussions, presentations, and written assignments which often include a research paper. Both students and Indian professors need to adjust to a different language of marks and assessment from that to which they are accustomed. Many students and Indian professors refer to this as “the UD system” of teaching and marking, but in actuality, it is typical of most universities in the USA.

Connecting learning in the various disciplines of the liberal arts is a vital part of the University of Dayton pedagogy. This curriculum helps students understand how knowledge in one discipline relates to knowledge in another. The University of Dayton also requires that a student majoring in a discipline of the arts be exposed to courses in science and quantitative reasoning. Students do not study only in the disciplines of their major and minor. For example, the students at Deepahalli not only take courses in their major of philosophy and in their minor of religious studies, but also take courses in the areas of the social sciences, arts, sciences, and literature. In addition to requiring a breadth of courses, the curriculum provides students with the experience of integrating and connecting specific courses. For example, in the first year of study at the University of Dayton, all students complete a humanities base. This is a set of courses in English, history, philosophy, and religious studies that are connected by means of common texts and that all include a set of common themes that enable students to address the question, “What does it mean to be human?” Faculty teaching in these courses model an integrated approach to learning that recognizes the contributions of many disciplines.

Faculty and students in the Bangalore Program addressed these new pedagogical demands in creative and thoughtful ways. Many examples of the Deepahalli experience illustrate the richness of their pedagogical development reflective of Alexander’s (2001) understanding of pedagogy: “Pedagogy, then, encompasses both the act of teaching and its contingent theories and debates, for example, the character of culture and society, the purposes of education, the nature of childhood and learning and the structure of knowledge…there can be no teaching without pedagogy or pedagogy without teaching” (p. 513).
Mathew Areepampil (1999) suggests that tribal culture can be used as a positive educational resource. He refers to studies by Manmatha Kundu (1994) which identify qualities such as cooperation, peer and group learning, humour, and independence and responsibility. Faculty built on these qualities in developing seminar days as an annual event. Originally this was a one-day program but evolved into a two-day program. The seminar days are based upon a topic of concern, identified several months before the day itself, such as, “Conversions in India,” “Hinduvata,” “Fundamentalism,” and “India’s Experience of Globalization.” These days usually include a presentation by a guest speaker, a series of presentations and papers prepared by the students followed by a time for discussion, and brief responses to the speakers by the faculty. The papers are prepared with the assistance of the faculty and may also be utilized as an assignment within some courses, such as writing courses or a philosophy or religious studies course. Students, who do not deliver a paper, are usually requested to write an essay about the symposium in an English course. This day is planned and prepared for cooperatively by the faculty and the students and both look forward to this day as a unique connected learning experience. These events celebrate the qualities of the tribal culture and integrate them into a full education.

Addressing differences in grading and curriculum required a different approach. Students were quick to learn and embrace both the system of grading and the emphasis on connecting courses. Faculty was pressed to provide the expected learning experiences. In order to facilitate these experiences, faculty hold regular lunch meetings one day a week to focus upon information items and share what is happening within their courses, reporting how things are developing with the students. These meetings provide faculty with the opportunity to connect with each other as the facilitators and guides of the Deepahalli learning community. Many times, faculty members focus upon vocabulary within their disciplines which need to become more familiar with usage by the students in various contexts. A vocabulary word list might be developed for the next few weeks and faculty members within their different courses use these words as often as possible and in different contexts. Faculty also agrees to read papers from each other’s classes and discuss how they would evaluate and comment on the papers. They discuss the progress
of individual students and of specific groups and share ideas for helping students progress. As new faculty is hired, the experienced faculty explains the grading system and the curriculum and work to encourage new faculty to experiment with different ways of teaching and learning.

As faculty became comfortable in these discussions, they began to do more to integrate courses and materials from a wide range of disciplines. For instance, the introductory literature course is integrated with two basic communication courses which are part of the competency skill requirement of the University. A course on modern fiction utilizes novels which represent some recent and contemporary philosophies. Students apply philosophical reasoning and the theories they have studied as they journal their own experiences intersecting with those in a novel that is being read and studied, such as *Siddhartha* by Hermann Hesse. During a term, it often happens that a written assignment done in one course is expanded into a written assignment for another course. For example, utilizing the skills for doing a research paper on a specific philosopher is taught both from the grammatical perspective of the Modern Language Association writing style and with a focus on methods for doing philosophical research about what is addressed in the 20th century philosophy course.

The philosophy courses also include connected learning each term between Asian philosophies and Western philosophies. For example, while studying Darshanas or the Rig Veda, students are also studying Western perspectives and traditions concerning metaphysics and epistemology. Some class sessions are combined for debate and discussion on topics, such as, the nature of being and nothingness, the origins of knowledge, understanding reality, and the notion of spirit or soul. The philosophy professors in the University of Dayton’s Bangalore Program are Indians and from different backgrounds themselves. One male professor is a Catholic Christian with many years of teaching experience at various Christian educational institutes and the other two are women, one Hindu and the other Muslim, with several years experience of teaching at Bangalore University and other educational institutions, including Christian ones. All three professors are involved with the students meeting for discussions on an array of
topics while the students are studying other philosophical subjects, such as, the philosophy of religion or ethics. Some philosophy courses are taught by professors from the University of Dayton and during these terms, some class sessions are given to integrating and connecting with the other philosophy professors and topics. At times, the professors sit in on each other’s classes and participate both with teaching and participating in students’ questions and concerns.

The final philosophy paper provides a culminating experience in the Program’s approach to learning. The paper requires students to integrate Western and Indian philosophy on a specific point, issue, or topic of the students’ choice. They must also integrate a perspective on this topic from another discipline area to which they have been exposed during the Program, such as sociology, religious studies, science, or literature. This paper demonstrates the student’s skills for doing research and writing, while synthesizing and analyzing various disciplinary approaches to and perspectives on a specific topic. Some of the topics have included various questions dealing with social rights and responsibilities, justice, reality, telos and causation, human nature and the ideal society.

Connected learning is experienced many times within any given term as students are given assignments in various courses in which they must reflect upon their own experiences and relate these to a theory or academic perspective. For example, in the sociology of education course, students write their autobiography of schooling experiences and reflect upon these from Paulo Freire’s theory of education for critical consciousness and rejection of the banking method (1989; 1990), and also utilizing Krishna Kumar’s social critiques of Indian educational practices (1994). Likewise, in English courses, essays are assigned on topics of their own experiences, for example, a descriptive essay of their home state or the cause and effects of different social problems in local culture and society. In the sociology courses, the focus is on social concerns and issues for India and from their experiences, for instance, the role of women in India, education of tribals, the plight of street children, and migration to urban centers. These
courses are an integration of several courses including anthropology, modern problems of sociology and sociology of religion.

In the University of Dayton’s Bangalore Program, connectedness exists not only in a variety of learning experiences but also in the total learning community. Faculty and students connect together in understanding knowledge and new ways of communicating and learning about knowledge, society and culture. This connectedness affirms “teaching [as] an intentional and moral activity: it is undertaken for a purpose and is validated by reference to educational goals and social principles as well as to operational efficacy”. Furthermore, this connectedness of learning “in any culture…requires attention to a range of considerations and imperatives: pragmatic, certainly, but also empirical, ethical and conceptual” (Alexander, 2001, p. 517). In this educational process, Indian faculty and students affirm an academic rigor that informs moral and social action.

Language and narrative in the learning process

Faculty accustomed to teaching at the University of Dayton have developed many skills that promote active and connected learning and that enable students to integrate their education with their daily lives and career choices. However, they assume an approach to learning that emphasizes abstract concepts and the importance of an essay style of writing. Teaching in the Indian context, and especially teaching students from tribal backgrounds in India, has resulted in a deepened appreciation for the subtleties of language and the role of narrative in the learning process and for the rich function narrative can serve in educating for a life of service and reflection.

The students who enter into the University of Dayton’s Bangalore Program have satisfactorily completed the equivalent of upper level secondary education as demonstrated on the appropriate examinations held in their home states, passing with either distinction, first or second class. Some students who only earned a third class result on the examinations are conditionally accepted into the program and are assured
the necessary tutoring assistance which they might need to acquire at least a C- average to continue studying in the program.

The earlier schooling experiences of the students are varied. Few have been schooled in English medium and most of them have been schooled in their own local languages or Hindi. Some students have been schooled in residential schools while others have studied in local day schools. Some students have attended government schools and others either private Catholic or Hindu schools. Likewise, some students are from states, which have a high level of literacy and good schools, such as, Tamilnadu, Andra Pradesh, and Kerala. Other students are tribals and mainly come from states which have low levels of literacy and a schooling system which is in need of much development, such as, Jharkhand, Bihar, and Orissa. In point of fact, the majority of the students who have completed the program and the present students are tribals from the north of India.

Some of the students had no previous exposure to English language either as a formal course or usage until they joined the Marianists. As aspirants to the Marianists, they experienced a year of English courses at various levels, primarily beginning and intermediate. To amend for this limited usage of English, within the Bangalore Program, a term is spent on English grammar, written and oral usage, before taking the university level English courses of composition and literature. Throughout each year of the program, English courses of composition and/or literature are required of the students. Thus, each student gains a body of knowledge about English and uses it daily and throughout all of the courses each term. English is the medium of all of the courses of the program, both for instruction and assessment. Some of these courses are offered by Indian English professors and some by American English professors. At times, there is a conflict between these two modes of the English language, but the Indian English usage is respected and given the preference. This demands some adjustment on the part of the American professors and contributes to moments of humor in classes as language is negotiated.
A more difficult challenge for both Indian and American faculty, but especially for American faculty, is finding ways of helping students gain abilities in abstract thinking and writing when their cultural backgrounds and educational experiences have not emphasized this approach and have often worked in ways that are counter-productive for the development of such thinking. As Toppo (1995) notes, tribal children receive an education that uses textbooks with examples that are unrelated to their lives. He writes, “The sad consequence of these unintelligible textbooks is that children sit in the class hour after hour, day after day, month after month, without gaining anything. This becomes again a habit” (p. 108). What tribal students do bring to a classroom is a rich narrative imagination which, if called upon, can help them move into more abstract ways of thinking, while recognizing the practical implications of the abstractions.

The common reading used by all first-year philosophy classes in the humanities base is Plato’s *Apology*. In using this text, faculty in Dayton ask students to reflect on the meaning of the examined and the unexamined life. In beginning with this text, there is a certain agreement with Martha Nussbaum (1997) that “the unexamined life threatens the health of democratic freedoms, and the examined life produces vigor in the nation and freedom in the mind” (p. 49). Students are often asked to write a short essay on the claim that the unexamined life is not a human life. In teaching this text in the Bangalore Program, it became immediately clear that many students could simply repeat Socrates’ words or the words of the faculty member, but they were not grappling with the implications of the claim for their own lives and their own country.

With the recognition that tribal culture is full of songs and stories that are told together, a meaningful way of approaching the issue raised by the *Apology* was developed. Rather than asking students to explain what Socrates said, they are asked to write a narrative that helps them think about what it means to examine their lives. They are asked to make up a story or tell one that they have learned. Most students select the second approach. They tell a story that is familiar to them from their own culture. These stories often emphasize the importance of people working together and being responsible for each other and usually involve a community, rather than an individual, engaged in
self-examination. Students spend time perfecting the story, often telling it to the faculty member and then going away to write something more clearly. The stories are shared in the classroom and students help each other perfect the telling of the story. Only then are students asked to make an abstract move. They think about what the narrative shows them about what an examined life is. They move from narrative to definition. Then they formulate a definition and develop an introduction to their narrative that proposes a definition of an examined life and uses the narrative to illustrate that definition. As they read other philosophers in the course of the term, they return to the narratives and asked if a specific philosopher means the same thing or something different by “examination.” Using the narrative approach allows students to develop skills in abstraction, but it also greatly enriches the conversations about the examined life.

American faculty learned that the narrative imaginations that the tribal students brought to their education allowed them to enter into penetrating moral thinking. By telling stories, they approach the question of the nature of virtue and how virtues can be developed and destroyed. Beginning with a story enables them to empathize with others and to be open to differing opinions on what constitutes virtue and what the virtues are. There is a commitment to responsibility and a desire to identify what really can advance the common good. All of this enables them to begin to articulate in more abstract terms what they already grasp in narrative form. They and the faculty recognize that the abstract grasp is not a better understanding. Both forms are helpful, and the two together are richer than either alone. A one-credit class on friendship during a term was a particularly rich experience of the contributions of narrative imagination to the learning experience. While the course was only one-credit out of twelve or fifteen that each student was taking, the richness of their accounts of friendship led to discussions at meals and in many other classes. Students pulled in Aristotle, Cicero, and many other thinkers as they told stories of friendships and pondered over the advantages and disadvantages of friendship for life in a community. Faculty and students engaged in conversations that resulted in deep discernment and enriched lives for all involved.
**Opening boundaries, transforming learning together**

The examples provided illustrate the many opportunities that the Program presents to “redefine the teacher-student relationship in ways that allow students to draw upon their own experiences as real knowledge” (Giroux, 1992, p.136). Social transformation has taken place within the Bangalore Program. In deliberating together about the meaning and process of education, faculty members and students have come to appreciate the wealth of human potential in each other. Actualizing human potential and developing individual capabilities has required that each person move beyond his or her own initial presuppositions about learning and share the insights, experiences, and approaches of others. In opening the capabilities that others bring to the educational experience, each one has become a better educator. Perhaps, most importantly, the students from the program who have themselves begun to teach have become better educators.

Graduates who are now teaching utilize some of the pedagogies which they have experienced in their own learning process. They have reflected upon their experiences within the Bangalore Program and upon how they learned, and now share these methods and approaches with elementary and secondary students of schools for tribals in Bihar, Jharkhand, and Orissa. Some now serve as the principals of these schools and have their teachers reflect upon the characteristics of Marianist education. They provide opportunities for connected learning and a variety of learning experiences in these schools so that students do more than simply memorize and sit examinations. Workshops and meetings for teachers assist this process for ongoing learners and educators. Two students who completed the University of Dayton’s Bangalore Program have succeeded in doing graduate studies at other universities in the USA and have adjusted to the demands and environment of studying in another country and culture. So the process of cultivating social transformation and expanding pedagogical boundaries does not cease after leaving Deepahalli. Students and faculty continue in their own transformation and are transformers of education as they move to new locations and return to former locations, both in Asia and in the USA.
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Education Professional Standards in Thailand

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Abstract

Education shall be based on the principle that all learners are capable of learning and self-development, and are regarded as being most important. The teaching-learning process shall aim at enabling the learners to develop themselves at their own pace and to the best of their potential. Education can be provided through formal, non-formal, and informal approaches, with emphasis on knowledge, morality, the learning process, and integration of the following factors depending on their appropriateness for each level of education:

- Knowledge about oneself and the relationship between oneself and society.
- Scientific and technological knowledge and skills as well as knowledge, understanding and experience in management, conservation, and utilization of natural resources and the environment in a balanced and sustainable manner.
- Knowledge about religion, art, culture, sports, Thai wisdom and the application of wisdom.
- Knowledge and skills in mathematics and languages, with emphasis on proper use of the Thai language.
- Knowledge and skills in pursuing one’s career and capability of leading a happy life.

The Ministry of Education has played major roles in this regard, providing supervisory and co-coordinating functions so that the institutions responsible for production and development of teachers, faculty staff, and educational personnel shall be ready and capable of preparing new staff and continually developing in-service personnel, including sufficient funds allocated by the State for the budget required for development of teachers, staff, and educational personnel. The Secretariat Office of
the Teachers’ Council of Thailand is an organization for teachers, educational institution administrators, and educational administrators that has the power and duty for setting professional standards; issuance and withdrawal of licenses; overseeing the maintenance of professional standards and ethics; and developing the profession of teachers, educational institution administrators, and educational administrators. Then, teachers, administrators of educational institutions, educational administrators and other educational personnel of both the state and private sectors shall have professional licenses as provided by the law.

Education professional standards are provisions relating to desirable characteristics and quality in the practice of the education profession, to which the education profession practitioners shall adhere to ensure quality in the practice of the profession; build confidence and trust among clients that they would obtain quality services; and address the public that the law recognizes the significance of the education profession as a licensed profession because of the fact that it is a profession with particular characteristics that requires knowledge, skills and expertise in the practice of the profession.

The Teachers’ Council of Thailand was incorporated with the principal objective to determine professional standards, issue and revoke licenses, supervise and monitor compliance with the profession standards and code of ethics, including professional development, so that education professional practitioners, (those who are licensed to practice the teaching profession, educational institution administrators, educational administrators and other educational personnel such as educational supervisors) shall have knowledge and understanding in the practice of the education profession which is a licensed profession under the National Educational Act.

Accordingly, The Secretariat Office of the Teachers’ Council of Thailand, prepared education professional standards which consist of standards of professional knowledge and experience, standards of performance, and standards of conduct which
have been announced as the Teachers Council of Thailand Regulations on Professional Standards and Ethics B.E. 2548 (A.D. 2005).

In education professional practice, those who enter this profession shall meet the specified standards of professional knowledge and experience in order to be eligible to obtain a license to practice the profession. Upon entering the profession, they shall comply with the standards of performance and the standards of conduct. The details for compliance with the education professional standards for each area shall be separately delivered to the education professional practitioners as follows:

**Professional Standards for Teachers**

There are 4 main standards required for teachers.

1. **Standards of Teachers’ Knowledge.**
   A teacher must have minimum qualifications with a Bachelor’s degree in education or the equivalent or other degrees as accredited by the Teachers’ Council of Thailand, with knowledge in the following areas: language and technology for teachers, curriculum development, learning management, psychology for teachers, educational measurement and evaluation, classroom management, educational research, educational innovation and information technology, and teachership.

2. **Standards of Teachers’ Experience**
   A teacher is required to have completed teaching functions in educational institutions under an educational degree curriculum for a minimum of one year and passed the criteria for evaluation of the teaching functions in accordance with the rules, procedures, and conditions as set by the Teachers’ Council of Thailand Board as follows:

   1. Training on professional practice during study.
   2. Teaching functions in educational institutions on specific subjects.
3. Standards of Teachers’ Performance
A teacher has to maintain the standards of his/her performance as follows:

- Regularly practice academic activities relating to development of the teaching profession.
- Make decisions to practice various activities, taking into account their consequences on learners.
- Be committed to developing learners to reach their full potential.
- Develop teaching plans for effective implementation.
- Regularly develop effective instructional media.
- Organize instructional activities focusing on permanent results for learners.
- Systematically report on the results of learners’ quality development.
- Conduct themselves as good role models for learners.
- Constructively cooperate with others in their educational institution.
- Constructively cooperate with others in the community.
- Seek and use information for development.
- Create opportunities for learners to learn under all circumstances.

4. Standards of Conduct
A teacher is required to adhere to the following standards of conduct:

- personal ethics
- professional ethics
- client-centered ethics
- collegial ethics
- societal ethics
Professional Standards for Educational Institution Administrators

There are 4 main standards for educational institution administrators.

1. **Standards of Educational Institution Administrators’ Knowledge**
   
   1.1 An educational institution administrator must have minimum qualifications with a Bachelor’s degree in educational administration or the equivalent or other degrees as accredited by the Teachers’ Council of Thailand, with knowledge in the following areas:
      
      Principles and procedures for educational administration.
      
      - Educational policy and planning.
      - Academic administration.
      - Administrative, financial, procurement, and building management.
      - Personnel administration.
      - Student activities administration.
      - Educational quality assurance.
      - Information technology management.
      - Public and community relations administration.
      - Morality and ethics for educational institution administrators.
      
   1.2 An educational institution administrator must have completed a training course on educational institution administration as accredited by the Teachers’ Council of Thailand Board.

2. **Standards of Educational Institution Administrators’ Professional Experience**
   
   An educational institution administrator must have experience in teaching functions for a minimum of five years or have experience in teaching functions and also have experience in the position of division head, department head, section head, other administrative positions in educational institutions, for a minimum total of two years.
3. Standards of Educational Institution Administrators’ Performance

Carry out academic activities relating to the development of the educational administration profession

- Make decisions on the practice of various activities, taking into account their consequences on the development of personnel, learners, and community.
- Be committed to developing colleagues to perform tasks to reach their full potential.
- Develop work plans for the organization for effective implementation.
- Develop and use administrative innovation to gradually bring about and improve quality.
- Perform tasks of the organization focusing on permanent results.
- Systematically report on the results of educational quality development.
- Conduct themselves as good role models.
- Constructively cooperate with the community and other agencies.
- Seek and use information for development.
- Be a leader and create leaders.
- Create opportunities for development under all circumstances.

4. Standards of Educational Institution Administrators’ Conduct

- Personal ethics
- Professional ethics
- Client-centered ethics
- Collegial ethics
- Societal ethics
1. Professional Standards for Educational Administrators

There are 4 main standards for education administrators.

1. Standards of Educational Administrators’ Knowledge

1.1 An educational administrator must have minimum qualifications with a Bachelor’s degree in educational administration or the equivalent or in other degrees as accredited by the Teachers’ Council of Thailand, with knowledge in the following areas:

- Principles and procedures for educational administration.
- Educational policy and planning.
- Educational administration and management.
- Resource administration.
- Educational quality assurance.
- Educational supervision.
- Curriculum development
- Information technology management.
- Educational research.
- Morality and ethics for educational administrators

1.2 An educational administrator must have completed a training course on educational administration as accredited by the Teachers’ Council of Thailand Board.

2. Standards of Educational Administrators’ Professional Experience

An Educational Administrator must have experience as follows:

- Experience in teaching function for at a minimum of eight years; or
- Experience in the position of educational institution administrator for a minimum of five years; or
- Experience in the position of non-educational institution administrator at a level not lower than the division level or the equivalent for a minimum of five years; or
• Experience in the position of other educational personnel in operations relating to instructional process management, supervision, and educational administration for a minimum of five years; or
• Experience in teaching functions and also have experience in the position of educational institution administrator or educational administrator or other educational personnel in operations relating to Instructional process management, supervision, and educational administration, for at a minimum total of 10 years.

3. Standards of Educational Administrators’ Performance
• Carry out academic activities relating to the development of the educational administration profession.
• Make decisions on the practice of various activities, taking into account their consequences on development of personnel, learners, and community.
• Be committed to developing colleagues to perform tasks to reach their full potential.
• Develop work plans for the organization for effective implementation.
• Develop and use administrative innovation to gradually bring about improved quality.
• Perform tasks of the organization focusing on permanent results.
• Systematically report on the results of educational quality development.
• Conduct themselves as good role models.
• Constructively cooperate with the community and other agencies.
• Seek and use information for development.
• Be a leader and create leaders.
• Create opportunities for development under all circumstances.

4. Standards of Educational Administrators’ Conduct
• Personal ethics
• Professional ethics
• Client-centered ethics
• Collegial ethics
• Societal ethics

Professional Standards for Educational Supervisors

There are 4 main standards for educational supervisors.

1. Standards of Educational Supervisors’ Knowledge
1.1 An educational supervisor must have minimum qualifications with a Master’s degree in education or the equivalent or other degrees as accredited by the Teachers’ Council of Thailand, with knowledge in the following areas:
   • Educational supervision.
   • Educational policy and planning.
   • Curriculum and instruction development.
   • Educational quality assurance.
   • Educational administration and management.
   • Educational research.
   • Tactics on transfer of academic knowledge, concepts, theory, and work.
   • Information technology management.
   • Morality and ethics for educational supervisors.

1.2 An educational supervisor must have completed a training course on educational supervision as accredited by the Teachers’ Council of Thailand Board.

2. Standards of Educational Supervisors’ Professional Experience
An educational supervisor has to maintain professional experience as follows:
   • Experience in teaching functions for a minimum of 10 years or have experience in teaching operations and also have experience in the position of educational institution administrator and/or educational administrator for a minimum total of 10 years.
   • Experience in producing quality academic work that has been disseminated.
3. Standards of Educational Supervisors’ Performance

- Carry out academic activities relating to the educational supervision development for a result of educational profession development.
- Make decisions to practice educational supervision activities, taking into account their consequences on subordinates.
- Be committed to developing supervisees to perform tasks to reach their full potential.
- Develop educational supervision plans for effective implementation.
- Develop and use educational supervisory innovation to gradually bring about improved quality.
- Perform educational supervision-oriented activities focusing on permanent results from subordinates.
- Systematically report on the results of educational supervision.
- Conduct themselves as good role models.
- Constructively cooperate with others.
- Seek and use information for development.
- Be a leader and create leaders.
- Create opportunities for development under all circumstances.

4. Standards of Educational Supervisors’ Conduct

- Personal ethics
- Professional ethics
- Client-centered ethics
- Collegial ethics
- Societal ethics

The education professional standards serve as an important tool for professional practitioners to conduct themselves for the benefit of clients, which is deemed the primary objective of the practice of the education profession. Professional practitioners are required to familiarize themselves with such standards so as to be
well-informed on proper information and understanding that would be applicable in the practice of the profession to the level expected of a highly respected profession and as highly recognized and respected in society.

The fact that the education profession is regarded as a licensed profession signifies progress and raises the professional standards in Thailand, which would benefit clients by providing quality education with higher standards, and which would also bring trust, respect, honor and dignity in society to the education profession and its practitioners.

This article provides readers only brief information about the education professional standards in Thailand. There are many more details that readers can ask for from the Secretariat Office of the Teachers’ Council of Thailand, Ministry of Education.

References
Motivation, Job Satisfaction and Evaluation of Teaching Personnel in Relation to Quality Care

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Project School Management K.U.Leuven
Katholieke Universiteit Leuven (Belgium-Flanders)

ABSTRACT

For universities and other educational institutions quality care is from the 1980's an essential management task, which is also demanded by government and society. Management means planning with a purpose – in relation to the needs and desires of the target groups – and with insight – according to criteria and indicators. Quality care aims at a carefully planned and integrated action in order to tune into postulated needs and desires of the target group in a more efficient and effective way. Quality care is concerned with the degree to which preconceived objectives are efficiently and effectively being achieved according to specific carefully selected quantitative and qualitative criteria. In this respect, personnel management and evaluation are of considerable importance.

Key concepts in quality care

| Quality: the degree **certain criteria, needs, demands and objectives** have been achieved |
| Efficiency: the degree **certain demands and objectives** have been realized to the maximum |
| Efficacy: the degree **correct demands and objectives** have been achieved to the maximum |
The functions of quality care can be defined through the cyclical nature of each optimizing process. An analysis of weak and strong points brings forward a dialogue between the management and the various interest groups. This consultation leads to an evaluation of postulated objectives and to the planning of definite measures for follow-up. Afterwards a control of the adjustment is necessary.

**Functions and stages in quality care**

| Analysis of both weak and strong points |
| Dialogue between management and interest groups |
| Evaluation of set targets |
| Planning of definite follow-up measures |
| Control of adjustment |

1. **Strategic view on quality care**

   *In order to achieve organizational quality with efficiency and efficacy it is essential to have a strategic view concerning quality care. This vision has to be supported by all staff members and includes: (1) achieving goals, (2) helping and training personnel and providing an adequate material infrastructure, (3) increasing results, (4) advancing an optimum organizational culture. Personnel management and personnel care are assimilating parts of this vision.*

1. First, quality is striven for in the achieving of the correct objectives by offering solid discussions and activities, which enable users and personnel to make efficient and effective use of the time available. Improvements at this level are aimed at, for example, approach, promoting creativity.

2. Second, quality can also be improved by paying attention to improvements in the field of personnel: evaluation, training and adjustment, and of infrastructure: rooms, library, information-and communication technology.
3. Third, quality can be achieved by concentrating on the quality of service as a product. For example, one can pay attention to information and help, output and feasibility, social-ethical and philosophical attitudes.

4. Last, one can pay attention to the advancement of an optimum organizational culture by emphasizing, for example, the strategic mission, discipline and consultation, rest and dynamism, or order and innovation.

Strategic views on quality care in educational institutions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Achieving the correct objectives for a maximum number of users</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>concrete objectives</td>
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<td></td>
<td>range of activities</td>
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<td></td>
<td>sufficient depth and creativity</td>
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<td>adequate connection with justified needs</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>Helping personnel and providing infrastructure</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>financing, personnel framework, task load and -distribution, career planning</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>working styles, strategies, continued development, self-study, training</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>function-, functioning- and evaluation discussions, feedback and guidance</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>infrastructure: buildings, rooms, educational aids</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>Increasing results</td>
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<td></td>
<td>information, counseling activities</td>
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<td></td>
<td>output, innovation, consultation and cooperation with colleagues</td>
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<td>feasibility, creativity, acting independently, guidance</td>
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<td>attitude training</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>Enhancing an optimum organizational culture</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>strategic mission or task and function declaration</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>discipline, consultation and good agreements</td>
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<td></td>
<td>balance between rest and dynamism</td>
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<td>order and innovation</td>
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2. **Education institutions are not commercial entities**

Because educational institutions are different from commercial organizations, they have to develop a different management strategy and hence organize their own strategy of quality care of the personnel. This different strategy reveals the *bottlenecks* for personnel evaluation.

1.) *The service offered by educational institutions is not always immediately tangible and measurable.*

2.) Educational institutions *do not seek profit* in a traditional sense, but fulfill a social function.

3.) The money of educational institutions is largely derived from the *government*, but nowadays also more and more from *third parties*, for which they obtain personnel, energy, goods and respect.

4.) Service of educational institutions includes *non-material costs*, which can not be calculated.

5.) The organization of educational institutions establishes a relationship with the service *clienteles*, which is not free of any obligations or consequences. This is why the selection of an educational institution is a process of consideration, which does not only involve personnel, but also *other parties*.

6.) The results of the service of educational institutions derive from complex teamwork with the organization, which has *many managers*. Success depends on the active involvement, expectations, degrees of liberty, capacity, and on the motivation of the personnel as well as the users, who are both clients and active products of the services provided. Besides, a few other partners are responsible for the design and coordination of the program, infrastructure and financing.

7.) The result of the services of educational institutions depends on the labor-intensive interaction with the *various partners*, who usually fulfill their tasks *quite autonomously*, according to their own vision, qualities and style. The evaluation of the organization by colleagues will often not take place, for example because of
wrongly understood academic freedom or out of fear for negative counter-reactions. Hence, quality control of personnel of educational institutions becomes considerably more difficult and often gives rise to resistance.

8.) Educational institutions have their own unique culture (norms, values, targets, opinions) and climate, which can not easily be altered.

9.) Educational institutions do not take part in the free market, but are limited by laws, rules and structures.

10.) The distribution (localization) of educational institutions is limited.

3. Central quality care for education at University of Leuven (K.U.Leuven)

1. Mission statement and personnel management

Quality is of central importance in the K.U.Leuven’s mission statement. This has an effect at every level and in all the processes of the university. The K.U.Leuven’s mission statement places especially the emphasis on in-depth research and transfer of knowledge. For every part of every study program, the K.U.Leuven gives lecturers teaching tasks for a period of five years. Then the lecturer’s performance is assessed for that task. If he has performed well, his tenure is extended for a new period of five years. In the case of poor performance, the university can demand improvements or even replace this lecturer. The faculty assessment commissions, whose job it is to make recommendations to the academic authorities regarding appointments and promotions use a central defined list of criteria for their assessment of the candidate's teaching capacities in addition to the scientific qualifications. Because K.U.Leuven places now equal weight on the teaching and scientific aspects of its staff's work, appointments and promotions were based both on the scientific and educational aspects. An assessment commission is appointed for each department for a period of three years. Each assessment commission has as members: the departmental Chairman – if he is an ordinary professor – two ordinary professors of the faculty, and two or three ordinary professors of the department. Two or three additional members, ordinary professors of the university or another Belgian or foreign university are appointed by the rector on the recommendation of the dean of the
faculty. The Program Director is asked also to give advice. The Dean of the faculty is consulted during the entire preparatory phase of the *decisions of the Academic Council*. The executive committee of the Academic Council has a threefold task: (1) to investigate of the proposals and recommendations of the assessment commissions, (2) to request the personal recommendations of the dean, (3) to formulate proposals for approval by the Academic Council. If proposals differ significantly from those of the assessment commissions, the Chairman of the assessment commission is contacted for discussion about these differences. The comments of the Chairman are given within one week and added for discussion by the Academic Council. The Academic Council has also to taken into account for decisions the specific policy options and the opportunities for new challenges of the department, the faculty, the university, and the government. For instance, a maximum of 20% of the legally permitted personnel allocation may be ordinary and extra-ordinary professors. Only one fourth of the demands for promotion can be answered positively. Every three years the teaching staff is evaluated by an *evaluation committee* taking into account the following portfolio. If the evaluation is negative a new evaluation takes place the next year. After two negative evaluations the member of the staff has to leave the university.

**Evaluation criteria for the assessment commissions and the portfolio**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scientific productivity and value and continuity of publications</th>
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<tr>
<td>- Articles in international journals with international referees</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Articles in other scientific journals</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Communications at international or other congresses</td>
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<td>- Internal reports</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Books or articles in books</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Editing of books and journals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- New products or findings, other than publications</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Research projects</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Guidance of doctoral dissertations</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Scientific grants, prices and distinctions</td>
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</table>
- Study visits
- Organization of congresses and workshops
- Participation in research committees

**Teaching tasks and transfer of research in teaching**
- Expertise in study fields other than the own research fields
- Development of educational forms, study materials and contents and evaluation forms
- High quality of teaching
- Teaching and educational management
- Guidance of students
- Professional Development
- Participation in educational committees and management

**Other services in research and teaching**
- Medical clinical activities
- International development co-operation
- Advice and expertise
- Participation in scientific organizations and committees
- Tasks in other organizations
- Participation in spin off companies
- Participation in application of scientific knowledge
- Participation in popularization of science
- Other activities of scientific service

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2. Central Academic and Educational Councils

The *Bureau of the Academic Council* (Rector and three Vice-Rectors, General Manager, three Coordinators – for research, education and students –) acts as the executive arm of the *Academic Council* (Bureau of the Academic Council, thirteen Deans of faculties, three representatives of professors, assistants and students).
In addition, an *Educational Council* (with academics, students, policy and supporting staff as members) advises the previously mentioned bodies for educational matters. All faculties are represented in the Educational Council, which is meant to guarantee good communication between central and the decentralized levels. Monthly meetings are held and task forces are established to cater for special needs. Special initiatives are launched to train educational personnel. For example, a training program for lecturers and teaching assistants has been developed. However, the Educational Council is consensus-bound by the University Council and Faculties, and any decision needs the approval of all concerned bodies and actors. Nothing is decided without a clear consensus. Curriculum and teacher evaluation procedures have been developed at the initiative of the Educational Council as a response to increased *pressure from students* to start systematic measurement of learning and teaching.

A special *Research and Development Cell on Innovation in Education* collaborates closely with the previous bodies on proposing solutions and identifying needs. Since 1996-1997, the K.U.Leuven has a budget for education-oriented research, development and implementation projects. It finances projects, which fall in priority areas such as ‘supervised self-study’. The projects must also fit in with the university policy on teaching, and its results should be useful for others.

### 3. Central Educational Services

The multiplicity of academic bodies dealing with education is matched by four central educational services. The *University Education Service* and the *Service for Educational Policy* provide services to users through targeted programs proposed to departments and faculties. Also, at the initiative of the Educational Council programs aiming at motivating teachers to new pedagogical approaches are developed by the University Education Service. The Service for Educational Policy advises and prepares policy-making documents to be adopted by the Educational Council and co-ordinates campus-wide actions. Additionally, the University Education Service provides pedagogical and didactic support to inter-faculty workgroups and to the educational training courses for lecturers and assistants. A tutoring project is being introduced for new lecturers. The Service for Educational Policy develops also research methodologies in university
pedagogy. The unit carries on research, studies and evaluation of pedagogical activities in faculties, departmental curriculum development. The Audio-visual and Net Service develops audio-visual and digital study and teaching materials and is functioning internally as a locomotive in educational approaches within the K.U.Leuven. The context chosen for reaching this primary goal is to foster Information and Communication Technology ICT-based ‘open and distance learning’. This service is conceived as a centrally funded permanent structure. It provides (1) expertise building and exchange, (2) support to faculties, (3) project co-ordination and subsidiary initiatives, and (4) external services. Additionally to external activities, the service subcontracts the management of distant education in a network of European and American higher education institutions and companies. The same role plays the Impulse Center for Educational Innovation at the K.U.Leuven Campus Kortrijk. The Louvain University Department for Information Technology coordinates the hardware aspects for the effective use of Information and Communication Technology (ICT).

4. Student representatives

Students are represented at every level: Permanent Educational Commission, evaluation commissions, Faculty Council, Educational Council, Research and Development Cell on Innovation in Education, Academic Council, Board of Management. The contribution of the students in these commissions is very important and of a high quality. The student representatives in the various councils are well organized and can count on financial support from the university, without any intervention in what they do. The views of the students on current matters related to quality assurance in academic education are explicit and well thought.
4. Faculty quality care for education at University of Leuven (K.U.Leuven)

1. Permanent Educational Commissions (POC's)

At curriculum level quality assurance is structurally imbedded at K.U.Leuven in Permanent Educational Commissions (POC). Every study program has a POC, chaired by a Program Director and consisting of professors, assistants and students. At least one third of the members of these commissions are students. It is the duty of the POC to guard the curriculum and to permanently oversee the quality of the education. This includes also the discussion about the content of the syllabi. Attention is also given to the measurement of study time, in an attempt to control the overall workload for the students. Finally, it plays a key role in initiatives that are directed at educational innovation.

Each year the program directors are invited to a study meeting concerning topics of common interest. Case studies are presented and discussed in group. The Education Council profiles the conclusions of the discussions in recommendations for decision by the Academic Council.

2. Internal and external quality assurance systems

From 1993-1994 external legislation and internal pressure from students resulted in an attempt to systematize evaluation efforts. Quality assurance by the government consists of examining the internal and external quality assurance systems.

External quality control is organized every eight years. This inspection system is set up in collaboration with the other Flemish universities (Flemish Inter-university Council: VLIR) and other higher education institutions (Flemish Higher Education Institutions Council: VLHORA) and the Dutch-Flemish Accreditation Organization: NVAO. This visitation system is based on a peer review system (five experts from other universities and one student visit each study program during several days) that follows on from prior self-evaluation by the discipline.

Internal quality assurance is programmed for each curriculum every four years. This process takes two years: one year of self-evaluation and one year of general and individual follow-up. The general report delivers the material for the self-evaluation report in preparation of the external visitation or as an internal follow-up evaluation after
the external evaluation. The individual reports define the results for each course component and person concerned.

One year after publication of the visitation report of the inspection team the POC has to submit a follow-up report to the Academic Council of the university after intensive screening in detail by the central committee. In this report must be explained in detail the changes that have been introduced. During that year a discussion takes place between the people involved in the study program and the members of the Education Council. The main purpose of these discussions is to support the study program to devise the most adequate follow-up.

There is also a periodical evaluation of the individual courses every two years by two tracks. Evaluations directed at quality improvement aim at giving teachers feedback on their teaching and at supporting them in optimizing their teaching. These evaluations are organized by the POC in agreement with the dean. The results are not included in the record of the individual teachers. This gives the POC and the instructors the chance to work on teaching in a safe environment and to experiment with evaluation procedures and teaching techniques. Evaluations directed to quality control follow a different logic. For this evaluation students are questioned at least every four years on the basis of closed questionnaires with free commentary space. The evaluation end up automatically in the teaching file one year later, after the teacher has had the opportunity to comment and to eventually remediate weak points.

Finally, at the level of individual courses and lectures, individual efforts are delivered to optimize quality. Spontaneously and increasingly after a negative evaluation, lecturers can decide to take part in a detailed evaluation of their teaching behavior. Some standardized evaluation instruments are available to examine various aspects. This includes questionnaires which lecturers can ask students to complete in order to ascertain the strengths and weaknesses of their teaching behavior or of the written course and the support material.
3. **Principles of the internal and external quality assurance system**

1.) The faculty is responsible for preparation, data collection and processing, reporting and follow-up. The faculty composes in consultation with the chairman of the permanent education commission and the student representatives an evaluation commission.

2.) All the categories concerned participate in this evaluation: teaching staff, students, alumni, and people from the professional field. An expert of the central university education service advises the commission. The collaboration of the students and the expert is very effective.

3.) The evaluation of educational quality requires the formulation of assessment criteria for the various aspects of university education. This frame of reference for high quality education sets out the objective of a course and the conditions to achieve the objectives.

4.) The educational evaluation contains a quality assessment on the overall program (curriculum, student results, teaching facilities and infrastructure) and the quality control of the evaluation of the individual course components (content, teaching, materials, testing, study and teaching time).

5.) Various methods and tools are used to gain insight into both the program and individual course components: closed or open questionnaires, interview, document analysis, observation. The choice depends on the size of the group, the objectives being pursued and the results of previous evaluations.

6.) Internal and external quality assurance systems are harmonized and integrated by developing a system of permanent quality assurance in which the rules on external quality monitoring are incorporated. An electronic handbook with concrete models is composed by a central working group for both internal and external quality assurance procedures and is evaluated very positively.

7.) Follow-up plans are made after each evaluation and ensure the development of a permanent system of educational quality enhancement.

   General reports describe and interpret the current situation based on the educational frame of reference and outline the consequences for the course as a whole and for the
various course components. The general report includes a follow-up plan for improvement and is further discussed by the Permanent Educational Commission, which can accept, reject or amend it.

*Individual reports* set out the evaluation commission’s interpretation of specific results for each course component and person concerned. Each staff member is asked to give his written answer to the interpretations of the commission. After a conversation between the chairman of the evaluation commission and the individual teacher a concrete plan of remedial action is defined, but not used as a sanction. Sometimes suggestions are given for educational training, further analysis or an individual mentoring by a more experienced teacher. In extraordinary cases a conversation with the dean of the faculty is recommended. After one year, the results of and comments on educational evaluation intended to control educational quality are taken into account for promotion.

5. **Formative evaluation of personnel**

*An analysis of weak and strong points of an organization is often based on an evaluation of the execution of tasks. Etymologically, the word ‘evaluate’ derives from the Latin ‘valere’, which means ‘to estimate the value’. This estimation of the value of an organization consists of the evaluation of objectives, environment and personnel. Given the idea of improvement, which means ‘to make better’, this also includes feedback and adjustment. As such, organizations and personnel do not only receive suggestions about the adjustment of what is wrong or not satisfactory, but also encouragement and affirmation of what is optimal and satisfactory. Besides, a finely tuned evaluation of personnel includes several aspects.*
Aspects of personnel evaluation in educational institutions

1. **Organizational skills**: well-arranged, orderly, decisive capacities, flexibility
2. **Targets**: usefulness, relation to other targets, feasibility, desirability, work load
3. **Quality**: subject knowledge, preparation, self-creativity and -activity, problem solving
4. **Motivation**: fascinating, use of methods and means, applications, activating students
5. **Difficulty**: clearness, structure, explanation, tempo, time management, prerequisites
6. **Depth**: relevancy, distinction between main and minor aspects, stimulating self study
7. **Interaction**: letting questions and opinions be heard, solving problems together
8. **Information**: accessibility, feedback about mistakes and wrong interpretations, guidance
9. **Evaluation**: transparency, reasonability, honesty, representative, care of own feedback
10. **Co-operation**: with colleagues, organizational alertness, relation to management, possibility of own comments and follow-up

In personnel evaluation, it is essential that the people involved should have the possibility to reflect and comment the evaluation themselves, both before and after. They should also give an overview of their activities themselves. It is especially important that they should have a chance for improvement under professional guidance and that the results of a new evaluation are added to their files. Most often, personnel to whom problems have been pointed out will still have a positive attitude, especially if there are still good opportunities for promotion.

An evaluation commission judges all aspects. The personnel file (portfolio) consists of a representation of the actual task as well as quantitative and qualitative data. Besides, it also takes the following into account: the quality of the guiding materials that have been used, the results of the evaluations made by others or third parties (colleagues) and the special efforts to follow training or continued education.

6. Evaluation discussion for personnel

Well-being, satisfaction, motivation, ability, task load and continued development are important points of attention for the personnel management. In addition to what school
managers are already doing about personnel management, it is good to have someone to
discuss one’s own functioning at fixed points in time. In order to counter resistance, a
clear agreement about the following aspects is necessary.

1) Measuring scale: preferably a 4 (or 5) point scale, but not everything can be measured:

- 5 excellent +++ AAA
- 4 (good or) excellent ++ AA
- 3 (requiring remedy or) satisfactory (? or) + (B or) A
- 2 requiring remedy ? (BB or) B
- 1 does not meet expectation - C
- N not applicable N N

2) Criteria: preferably not too many, maximum 7 to 10 fixed or flexible criteria:

- education
- administration and organization
- technical and logistical organization
- research
- services: internal (guidance) and external knowledge, ability and skills (languages, computer), and attitudes towards:
  - institution: training, program, department, faculty, service
  - function: tasks, involvement and availability
  - team: initiative, independence, co-operation
  - communication: behavior towards others, meetings
  - management: guidance or behavior

3) Expectations: agreed upon targets and bonuses

4) Extra-activities: decided upon in consultation and following the staff’s desires
5) Circumstances and difficulties at work and at home

Tasks vary according to their complexity and responsibility (beginners – seniors):

1) **executing**: implementing tasks without taking risks

2) **supporting**: co-operating, informing, deciding while bearing small risks

3) **organizing**: taking action with consequences for training or helping colleagues

4) **managing**: taking action with consequences for the entire school, guiding colleagues.

The emphasis is on **encouragement and future-oriented estimation of one’s value and feedback.**

It is justified to value in a positive way for a maximum number of personnel members.

There are three types of discussions with personnel. In **function discussions** one reaches an agreement about objectives, tasks, evaluation criteria and prior conditions for an agreed upon future period.

*Functioning discussions* are held at intervals; they are concerned with the state of affairs, bottlenecks, advancements and adjustments.

In the case of **evaluation discussions**, one evaluates to which degree arranged tasks have been achieved at the end of the agreed upon period, taking postulated criteria into account.

1. **Function discussion**

   The aim is to consult *mutually* about the tasks as defined in function- and task descriptions or profiles, about the evaluation criteria and prior conditions.

   Not only *tasks and expectations* of the supervisors, but also the staff’s *preferences, ambitions and desires* (personal goals and extra-tasks) are being made explicit with a lot of individual differences.
2. **Functioning discussion**

Functioning discussions take place at a previously planned point in time and according to a clear agreement about the procedure: preparation, themes, notes, confidentiality, evaluation, and agreements.

The emphasis is on mutual consultation (with equal contribution) about the execution of tasks and the relation with the management. Freedom of any obligation is avoided.

The evaluation of the functioning is based on a limited number of previously communicated criteria, concrete expectations and agenda (set targets). It is better to work on a small scale according to a specific (and limiting) motto or central theme, for instance, cooperation in the school, task distribution, extra-activities, continued development, responsibilities, job satisfaction.

Attention is paid to prominent, especially positive performances and experiences (and to areas for special attention). This is based on information from primary (individual), sometimes also from secondary (direct superiors, colleagues) and tertiary sources.

It is the intention to exchange experiences and perceptions and to come to feasible agreements about adjustments.

3. **Evaluation discussion**

The evaluation is done by the manager and at least one assessor, after the advice of other directly involved people, and preferably also by the staff member him/herself.

This takes place during a previously fixed time, for example 40 to 50 minutes: 10 minutes of introduction, 10 minutes about knowledge, skills, continued education, 10 minutes about future expectations and agreements, 10 minutes for defining the assessment of points which have been agreed upon, but it is also possible that one reaches an agreement after one week.

Only the tasks that have been executed during a previously fixed period are taken into account. Former assessments and discussions should not influence the evaluation.

One should pay special attention to the preparation of the people involved. These should be informed about the method, agreements (set targets), fixed criteria (which
can nevertheless be altered at regular intervals) of knowledge, ability and attitudes (quality of actual behavior and performance are more important than measurable quantity and personal characteristics), the target scores on the total promotion and career perspectives, adjustments (maximum 1, 2 or 3 themes) or sanctions.

The assessor thoroughly prepares him/herself for the likely defensive reactions of the staff member to possibly less positive aspects of the assessment.

After participation and agreement of the staff member, the evaluation is brought to an end with the possibility of objections. A negative evaluation is only defined after all means to motivation and guidance have been exhausted. One should offer chances of assessment at intervals.

4. Job satisfaction of the personnel

A function-, functioning- and evaluation discussion can easily start with an individual analysis of job satisfaction by the staff member him/herself. In comparison with the managers’ perception of job satisfaction, this analysis will bring about interesting data. It will also often unveil the shortcomings of the management, the study program and the degree, the department, school or service. When brought together, these data hence result in a synthesis of strengths, areas for special attention and of the opportunities and threats of the study program, the degree, the department, school or service. They may form the base and the challenge for action plans with respect to the management.

Assessment of job satisfaction

Assess the job satisfaction on a scale of 4: from 1 = minimum to 4 = maximum

- **Infrastructure**: space, technical aids, information- and communication technology
- **Information transfer**: from top to bottom and vice versa, and mutually between colleagues
- **Tasks**: education, research, service, working objectives, extra tasks, space of playground
• **Teamwork and meetings**: consultation, autonomy, optimizing, follow-up
• **Tackling problems**: openness towards management, agreements, follow-up
• **Professional climate**: team-spirit, support, willingness to listen, contact with colleagues
• **Professional development**: objectives, appreciation, continued development, self-study
• **Personal circumstances and perspectives**: preferences, desires, hindrances, shortcomings
• **Relations with others**: users of education, other people involved, suppliers, competitors

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<th>Strong points:</th>
<th>Weak points:</th>
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<tr>
<td>Opportunities and possibilities</td>
<td>I and the others</td>
<td>I and the others</td>
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<tr>
<td>Threats and improvements</td>
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</table>

10. **Follow-up after the personnel evaluation**

The main goal of personnel evaluation is to improve the quality of the organization and the various activities. In this respect, the *follow-up plans* are an important instrument. The evaluation commissions are not only responsible for the execution of the evaluation, but also for the follow-up of the improvements.

If shortcomings are observed, there is *oral consultation* between the evaluation commission, the people directly responsible and the staff member involved about the definition of *concrete actions* that aim at improvement of shortcomings. These actions are being defined in global or individual follow-up plans.

Evaluation may give rise to changes in *activities or tasks*, through e.g. shift in activities, doing more essential activities, increasing the cohesion or furthering the assimilation of several activities.
Care for personnel implies an increase of well being, job satisfaction and motivation, as well as the mastery of task load. This is why a less positive evaluation should rather concentrate on the follow-up of the improvement of the personnel than on sanctions.

One of the possibilities is personal guidance or improvement advice by a collaborator of the educational guidance service or a colleague. As such, a staff member of the educational guidance center could ask for a more elaborated evaluation with oriented relevant feedback. This quickly enables the person involved to learn which aspects of his behavior are liable to improvement. In consultation with a professional, the detailed evaluation can be translated into an adapted strategy: self-study continued development or individual coaching by a mentor or a tutor.

In the case of a clearly noticeable neglect of tasks, the discussions are more difficult. Neglect of tasks means the lack of willingness to improve or the conscious negation of the task. It is important that these discussions should include related positioning and positive feedback about the whole of tasks and the distinct aspects. A continued neglect may result in certain limiting or disciplinary measures.

The information given to staff members may certainly affect professional development. However, not all kinds of information or feedback are equally helpful. The degree to which the personnel is likely to appreciate and use feedback in order to do something constructively, depends on the person who gives feedback and especially on the topic and method.

The range of strategic interventions in personnel management is considerably wide.

**Strategic actions for an optimal personnel management**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Defining targets, tasks, responsibilities and criteria more clearly:</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>task declaration, consultation, function-, functioning- and evaluation discussions</td>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>Providing more opportunities for personal development:</th>
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<tr>
<td>delegating, self-organization, career guidance, self-study, continued development</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Decreasing the workload:
redistribution of tasks, personnel extension, better work planning, priorities

Improving relations:
teamwork, coaching, positive feedback, agreements, informal contacts

Offering rewards:
ingcreasing working aids, working space, budgets, responsibility, power; or extending contracts, higher salary, bonus, status, promotion, appreciation, holiday arrangements, timetable, career opportunities, continued development

Increasing the capacity:
personal development, relational skills, self-management, rational thinking, recognizing stress signals, good relaxation exercises

Individual guidance by a professional in education or a tutor

Importance of the personnel portfolio for recruitment, appointment or promotion

Conclusions
Personnel evaluation has to be prepared and executed carefully. Radical changes have little chance of effective realization.

Besides, there remains a tension between the striving for improvement or remedy, on the one hand, and the execution of control and sanctions, on the other hand.

Indeed, sometimes there remains an island structure in which people try not to hamper one another. There also remains a certain amount of resistance against any type of personnel evaluation.

Finally, with respect to any personnel evaluation and contents-related task interpretation, there should be an optimal equilibrium between essential tasks of the personnel and their individual preferences and desires.
All these interventions are oriented to increase motivation and job satisfaction of academic personnel and the educational quality.

References


Integration of ICT in Education: Pedagogical Issues

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Abstract

The progress of any country depends upon the quality of education offered and its practices. Indian education was well known for its Gurukul system of education in the Vedic age. Education in India has undergone various phases and stages of development starting in the Vedic age to the post-independent period. At all stages of development there was a concern for bringing in quality education reflecting on the practical aspects in education.

The great Indian thinkers had emphasized on developing the inner potential of individuals by reflecting on unique potential of individuals. Getting educated is solely dependent upon the individual teacher’s role to set conditions and generate environments for learning. The recent curriculum framework 2005 as proposed by NCERT (National Council of Educational Research and Training), India focuses on the issues of;

- Connecting knowledge to life outside
- Shifting from rote learning to constructing knowledge
- Providing a wide range experiences for the overall development of a child
- Bringing flexibility in the examinations

The recent developments in technology have changed the world outside the classroom; it is more eye-catching and interesting for a student then the classroom setting. As a result, students find classroom instructions as dull and devoid of life and do not interest them for learning. The information technology has made learner WWW-afflicted. This is because technological developments have brought developments in two ways: First, by enhancing human capabilities by helping people to participate actively in social,
economic, and political life in a society at large. Second, by giving advantage to technological innovation as a means for human development due to economic progress and increased productivity. The power of information is such that almost all decisions made in different sectors like science, technology, economics, and business development will be based on information that has been generated electronically. Information has become a key asset of the organization for its progress. Therefore, access to information is a key factor in the generation of wealth and there is a strong link between a nation’s level of development and its level of technological development. Educators and policymakers believe that information and communication technologies are of supreme importance to the future of education and, in turn, for the country at large. As ICT is becoming an integral element for educational reforms and innovations at secondary schools, this situation calls for an enhancement of pre-service education on ICT for prospective teachers.

There is a growing importance for ICT within the school curriculum. Not only it is used to support teaching and learning within other curriculum subjects, but it is also a subject in its own right as a separate discipline. The major objective is that developing skills, knowledge, and understanding in the use of ICT prepares pupils to use such technologies in their everyday lives. ICT tools enable pupils to access, share, analyze, and present information gained from a variety of sources and in many different ways. The use of ICT provides opportunities for pupils to work both collaboratively and independently. As such, the role of ICT within the curriculum is not only to enhance the learning experiences of pupils but also to help them develop the skills essential to participate effectively in the world of affairs. It generates avenues for working in groups developing team spirit, cohesion, and social values.

Here, a teacher plays a pivotal role in the process of teaching learning. Hence, knowledge of ICT and skills to use ICT in teaching/learning has gained enormous importance for today’s teachers. Teachers are expected to know to successfully integrate ICT into his/her subject areas to make learning more meaningful. This knowledge development during pre-service training has gained much importance with the notion that exposure to ICT during this time is helpful in increasing student teachers’ willingness to integrate
technology with classroom teaching. This paper focuses on issues relating to ICT in education as a core component in pre-service teacher education and the different models to be adopted for its integration.

**Review of studies conducted in the area of attitude, anxiety, and efficacy of teachers and development of computer skills**

Pre-service teachers need to plan to use computers in their classrooms. Vision is needed to motivate and direct their teaching and learning with the help of technology and using related instructional methods. There are various strategies used to make teachers understand and implement the integration of ICT in various curricula. They should serve as a basis for understanding computer operations and programming along with assisting pre-service teachers to learn computer concepts in developing a vision, value, and use of computers in learning. Many studies have been conducted on teachers’ attitude and their use of ICT skills. It has been found that teachers’ attitudes play an important role in the teaching learning process.

It has generally been found that pre-service teachers have demonstrated their ability for integrating technology into their teaching, but do not have clarity about how far technology can be beneficial for students. They will probably avoid teaching with technology once the requirement for the demonstration lesson is over. Hence, a negative attitude about teaching with and about technology in a subject matter area could work against well-planned instruction in teacher preparation programs. While, on the other hand, those teacher candidates who believe in the potential and utility of technology in the classroom and continue facing many challenges become the models for student teachers to emulate. Many studies have been conducted with regard to the attitude of teachers towards use and interactions of technology have revealed the importance of attitudes for learning to use technologies (Cox, Rhodes & Hall, 1988; Davidson & Ritchie, 1994; Hannaford, 1988; Kay, 1990). These findings were further supported by Bandalos & Benson, 1990; Dupagne & Krendl, 1992; Francis-Pelton & Pelton, 1996; Loyd & Gressard, 1984a; Mowrer-Popiel, Pollard, & Pollard, 1994; Office of Technology Assessment, 1995.) Several studies have found that individuals' attitudes toward computers may improve as a result of well-planned instruction (Kluever, Lam,
Hoffman, Green & Swearingen, 1994; Madsen & Sebastiani, 1987; Woodrow, 1992). Like other individual characteristics that are hypothesized to play a role in the continued growth of technology proficiency, attitudes and beliefs can’t be easily taught and must be developed by an individual over a period of time.

Another factor that is noted to have a profound effect on the student teacher's learning technology and its integration is computer anxiety. Computer anxiety, as defined by Rohmer and Simonson (1981), is "the mixture of fear, apprehension, and hope that people feel while planning to interact or while actually interacting with a computer" (p. 151). Research has shown that there is often a negative relationship between the amount of prior computing experience and the level of computer anxiety exhibited by individuals. Reed and Overbought (1993) and Hackney (1994) found significantly reduced levels of computer anxiety following instruction whereas Chu and Spires (1991) observed a significant reduction in computer anxiety for only the most anxious quartile of subjects. McKiernan et al. (1994) reported that some students experienced reduced levels of computer anxiety at the end of a computer training class while other students experienced continuing anxiety. The level of anxiety could be reduced with increased experience in using and working with computers and thereby succeeding in reaching goals.

Over and above the attitude of teachers, self-efficacy is also an important aspect to consider. Researchers have indicated that although teachers may have positive attitudes toward technology (Duane & Kernel, 1992; Office of Technology Assessment, 1995), they may still not consider themselves qualified to teach with it or comfortable using it. If teachers are to integrate technology into their teaching, they must feel self-efficacious about using it (Decorum & Kingie, 1993; Remer et. al., 1993; Office of Technology Assessment, 1995). Bandera (1986) defined perceived self-efficacy as "people's judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances. It is concerned not with the skills one has but with the judgments of what one can do with whatever skills one possesses" (p. 391). According to Bandura (1982), people acquire information about efficacy from four sources: performance attainments, vicarious experiences of observing the performances of others,
verbal persuasion, and physiological states from which people partly judge their capability, strength, and vulnerability (p. 126). This information would help an individual assess his/her performance and then generate self-appraisals of his/her ability. When the concept of computer-efficacy is applied to the domain of learning to use computers in teaching, hands-on computer experience becomes an important component in effective instruction at the pre-service level.

Research has shown a high correlation between efficacy judgments and subsequent performance (Bandura & Adams, 1977; Bandura, Adams & Beyer, 1977; Schunk, 1981). This particular link between self-efficacy and subsequent actions is significant in developing an idea for a teacher who continues to learn to teach with technology apart from instruction in teacher preparation (Ashton, 1985). Self-efficacy was originally conceived as having a high domain-specific component rather than one with high generalizability (Lennings, 1994), and this has led to recent research interest in the area of computer self-efficacy (Delcourt & Kinzie, 1993; Ertmer, Evenbeck, Cennamo, & Lehman, 1994). Computer self-efficacy represents the essential elements of self-efficacy as applied to the domain of computer learning. Several studies have found the positive effects of instruction on computer self-efficacy (Ertmer, Evenbeck, Cennamo & Lehman, 1994; Gist, Schwoerer & Rosen, 1989; Russon, Josefowitz & Edmonds, 1994; Torkzdeh & Koufteros, 1994).

There is little doubt that today's prospective teachers will be expected to teach with technology in the classrooms of tomorrow. However, the resources available to teachers in terms of hardware, software, networking, and professional development vary greatly at the school level. Hence, it is imperative that teachers become directors of their own learning with regard to using information technologies in the classroom. Through learning to teach with technology, teacher preparation programs have a unique place at the beginning of this challenging process. The development of a pedagogically-based framework of constructs that are related to learning to use computers and an approach for its application in teacher preparation shows promise for meeting these challenges as discussed above.
Another challenge for pre-service education is finding classrooms where pre-service teachers could observe teacher educators using technology appropriately and to understand where and how to include technology in their lessons. The computer has moved from an object to be studied to a teaching and learning tool for teachers and students. Hence, teacher preparation programs could no longer rely on an introductory course. We can’t just bolt on the technology in teacher education curriculum; we need to take proactive steps for its integration in teaching learning. Teacher education and technological competence should involve all aspects of the preparation of teachers, i.e., introductory competencies, use of technology in methods classes, school placements, and student teaching. Pre-service teachers need to develop a vision from the very beginning of their careers for using computers in their classrooms. For this, student teachers must understand computer operations and programming--leading them to develop a vision of the value and use of computers in learning.

Therefore, it is crucial that teacher preparation programs should develop the cognitive, social, and physical environments that will help teachers feel efficacious and in control of learning to teach with technology, a domain that is often overwhelming even for experienced teachers.

Another challenge of preparing teachers to teach with technology is that as a result of knowledge generation, our knowledge about computer technology is constantly changing. In addition to this factor, there are various other dimensions like attitude, motivation, computer anxiety, and computer self-efficacy which play an important role in developing skills and competencies among prospective teachers.

Pedagogy is primarily associated with formal school education. There are significant differences between the two concepts of pedagogy and “webogogy”, especially in terms of independence/dependence of the learners, resources for learning, motivation, and the role of the teacher. The context of learning is significant because learning is contextually and situationally specific. The teacher’s role in web-based teaching has already been identified as being very different from the teacher’s role in formal education, with terms like facilitator referring to the person who is on-line and interacting with students in various ways. It may be the same person who produces the course materials. Also, the on-
line teacher will need to arrange a range of activities in which he or she will engage students, and a range of roles that he or she will fulfill. In web-based teaching, the teacher would be engaged in preparation and organization of instructional materials based on the same kind of assumptions about learners that are held by textbook authors.

The Internet provides a wide range of scope for integrating varied learning experiences and making learning holistic. All of the resources developed by an individual teacher could be shared in a web forum for further refining the lesson plans.

*The various skills and competencies to be developed on the part of student teachers would be:*

- Surfing the Internet and locating useful information from the Internet for the development of lesson plans.
- Developing lessons plans incorporating student use of technology in the learning process.
- Evaluating and selecting appropriate software for a particular subject and per student needs.
- Generating printed documents like student assignments, newsletters, communication, etc. utilizing a variety of applications software like word processing and desktop publishing.
- Managing student data ; using data management tools for efficiently managing learning.
- Using technology to gather, organize, and report information about student performance like Excel and Access for database management.
- Developing tools to evaluate technology-based student projects including multi-media, word processing, database, spreadsheet, PowerPoint, desktop publishing, and Internet/telecommunications.
➢ Using the Internet to support professional development including locating professional organizations, communicating with other teachers electronically, and participating in on-line professional development workshops and seminars.

➢ Developing assignments and project work for students; giving them broader and deeper knowledge in a field of study; developing critical thinking and infusing creativity among students.

**Computer Education at The Secondary Level**

Recognizing the growing importance of ICT in the education area, policy makers in the school education sector have taken proper care to integrate computer education at the school level. The Curriculum Guide and Syllabus for Information Technology in Schools developed by NCERT, India, has the following objectives for the secondary school level:

1. Selecting appropriate IT devices for a given task; making his/her own informed choice of browser and search engines; trouble-shooting for peripherals.

2. **Identifying specific strengths and weaknesses of technology resources; demonstrating legal and ethical behavior regarding the use of technology and information.**

3. Communicating to a variety of audiences using IT tools; using a variety of technology tools for data collection and analysis; using tools to present and publish information with interactive multi media features; using tools to make models and simulations; manipulating images.

4. Using on-line information resources for collaboration and communication; collaborating with others to build content-related knowledge bases.

5. Developing strategies to find relevant and appropriate electronic information sources.

6. Investigating technology-based options for lifelong learning; using productivity tools, communication tools and research skills.
IT competency standards at the end of Class X to be developed in students are:

- Ability in and understanding of fundamental computer operations and concepts.
- Using a variety of programs to accomplish learning tasks.
- Exhibiting skills in the use of communication networks.
- Exhibiting skills in the selection and use of technology to gather, process, and analyze data and preparation of reports.

The expectations from the school sector in terms of established student objectives and expected skills to be developed demonstrate the need to develop necessary knowledge and skills among teachers with positive attitudes and the right inclination.

**Techno-Pedagogy a Skill**

The aim of teacher education is to develop skills and appropriate knowledge among teacher trainees for using and integrating the correct technology in an appropriate manner. Every teacher should know how to use technology, pedagogy and subject area content effectively in their daily classroom teaching. It is clear that merely introducing technology to the educational process is not enough. One must ensure technological integration since technology by itself will not lead to change. Rather, it is the way in which teachers integrate technology that has the potential to bring change in the education process. Hence, attitude and self-efficacy towards technology play an important role. For teachers to become fluent in the usage of educational technology means going beyond mere competence with the latest tools to developing an understanding of the complex web of relationships among users, technologies, practices, and tools. Teachers must understand their role in technologically-oriented classrooms. Thus, knowledge about technology is important in itself, but not as a separate and unrelated body of knowledge divorced from the context of teaching--it is not only about what technology can do, but perhaps what technology can do for them as teachers.
In techno-pedagogy, there are three areas of knowledge, namely: content, pedagogy, and technology.

*Content (C)* is the subject matter that is to be taught.

*Technology (T)* encompasses modern technologies such as computer, Internet, digital video and commonplace technologies including overhead projectors, blackboards, and books.

*Pedagogy (P)* describes the collected practices, processes, strategies, procedures, and methods of teaching and learning. It also includes knowledge about the aims of instruction, assessment, and student learning.

Speaking truthfully, technology integration entails the understanding and negotiating of the relationships among the aforementioned three components. Good teaching is not simply adding technology to the existing teaching and content domain. Rather, the introduction of technology causes the representation of new concepts and requires developing sensitivity to the dynamic, transactional relationship between all three components suggested by the TPCK framework. (Koehler, M. J. and Mishap, P. 2005)

Depending upon the nature of content, scope of content, and level of students, appropriate technology integration must be sought. Technology as an aid enhances the process of learning and helps in achieving higher level objectives.
Approaches to ICT integration in Teacher Education

Use of ICT within teacher training programs around the world is being approached in a number of different ways with varying degrees of success. These approaches were subsequently described, refined and merged into following approaches:

1. *ICT skills development approach*: Here importance is given to providing training in use of ICT in general. Student teachers are expected to be skilled users of ICT for their daily activities. Knowledge about various software, hardware and their use in educational process is provided.

2. *ICT pedagogy approach*: Emphasis is on integrating ICT skills in a respective subject. Drawing on the principles of constructivism, pre-service teachers design lessons and activities that center on the use of ICT tools that will foster the attainment of learning outcomes. This approach is useful to the extent that the skills enhance ICT literacy skills and the underlying pedagogy allows students to further develop and maintain these skills in the context of designing classroom-based resources.

3. *Subject-specific approach*: Here ICT is embedded into one’s own subject area. By this method, teachers/subject experts are not only exposing students to new and innovative ways of learning but are providing them with a practical understanding of what learning and teaching with ICT looks and feels like. In this way, ICT is not an 'add on' but an integral tool that is accessed by teachers and students across a wide range of the curricula.

4. *Practice driven approach*: Here emphasis is on providing exposure to the use of ICT in practical aspects of teacher training. Focus is on developing lessons and assignments. Using ICT and implementing it in their work experience at various levels provides students an opportunity to assess the facilities available at their school and effectively use their own skills.

Thus, ICT in teacher training can take many forms. Teachers can be trained to learn how to use ICT tools. ICT can be used as a core or a complementary means to the teacher
training process (Collis & Jung, 2003). The various ways in which ICT teacher training efforts could be classified into four categories are shown below in Figure 1.

From the above suggested approaches, regarding ICT as a core component at the pre-service level, integration of all approaches would help in developing proper attributes among prospective teachers. There should be joint efforts of educators and prospective teachers in implementing and sharpening ICT skills. Whatever approach is followed in educational institutions to develop knowledge about ICT, it has inherent limitations. Coupled with other reasons, we are not making student teachers fully confident in using ICT in their daily classroom activities. As reported by Larose F. in their study, the level of computer literacy of the teaching staff is satisfactory but there is little transfer of these competencies to teaching practices (Larose F., et al. 1999). Efforts are required on the part of teachers to make use of the available facilities for the best use in teaching/learning.

**ICT in Education Course Scenario at the Pre-Service Level**

The syllabi for ICT in education courses offered by some of the universities in India were analyzed in terms of the objective of the course, weight given to theory and practice, and other syllabus components. The Curriculum Guide and Syllabus for Information Technology in Schools developed by NCERT, India, has the following expectations.
about basic competencies of teachers to achieve the objectives of ICT education at the secondary level:

- **Understanding the role of technology in change and the implications of technology-mediated changes for education.**
- Creating interest in learning among students through unique utilities like animation, simulation, the Internet, etc.
- Demonstrating a sound understanding of basic IT concepts and operations.
- Planning and designing effective learning environments with necessary technology support.
- Making the best use of technology-enhanced lessons to enrich student learning.
- Adopting assessment strategies to evaluate (a) student competencies in IT skills and (b) student learning in the new environment.
- Using technology to enhance our own creativity and professional practices.
- Demonstrating understanding of social, ethical, legal, and human issues surrounding the use of technology in schools.
- Fashioning a climate of values that encourage questioning, exploration, problem-solving, decision-making, and group co-operation.
- Striving for education to emerge from its disciplinary narrowness.
- Identifying useful learning material from various sources.

The teacher has to take an active part in developing his own checklist for evaluation of learning materials and use it in the context of (a) the learner profile, (b) the learning environment, and (c) the technical strength of the computer laboratory of the school. Moreover, the tasks of the teacher are:

1. Design one’s own checklist.
2. Review software to be procured or on the World Wide Web
3. Report his/her assessment of courseware to the principal so a purchase decision can be made.
ICT is introduced in secondary teacher training courses at various levels as a compulsory subject or a special field subject. Sometimes, it is also introduced as one of the subjects to be studied under a course titled ‘Educational Technology’. Various objectives/rationales for introducing the course are as follows:

1. Understanding the scope and importance of ICT in contemporary society.
2. Developing effective perspectives and attitude towards emerging technologies.
3. Developing skills in handling, maintaining and protecting different types of hardware and equipment in the institutions of learning.
4. Acquiring a theoretical basis of ICT and to develop an awareness about recent developments in the area of ICT.
5. Acquiring adequate knowledge about the fundamentals of computers and operating systems.
6. Acquiring the necessary skills of handling software packages for the purpose of education in the institutions of learning.
7. Acquiring knowledge about new Internet technologies and their place in the field of education.

Regarding the weight given to the subject, different approaches are followed. Overall the weight given to theory and practice is 60/40 (60% for theory and 40% for practice). Broadly the content areas regarding theory/practice include:

a. Introduction to Computers
b. Introduction to Operating Systems
c. Application of Computers in Teaching
d. Functions of Computers – Knowledge of M.S. Office and other related packages and Computer languages
e. Application of computers in Education
f. New Trends and Techniques in Computer education (EDUSAT etc.)
g. Knowledge of Internet, World Wide Web, etc.
In the majority of teacher education institutions, the syllabi exhibit less weight to practical than theoretical aspects. Since the nature of ICT subjects is more practical and application-oriented, there needs to be more practical than theoretical input. This aspect seems to be neglected in designing and framing curricular objectives.

The present approach for ICT integration is dismal as an “add on” approach for ICT course is adopted:

- ICT basics are taught to teacher trainers focusing on technical issues, but little emphasis is given to the pedagogical aspects
- Educational technology courses are taught in a rather traditional way and show little evidence of using new technology to support instructional innovations
- Students don’t know how to use new technology in their classroom instruction when they go to schools
- Technology input is not integrated in the curriculum courses, especially method courses.

These are certain basic problems associated with the integration aspects of technology. These are major hurdles in the integration of ICT in the teaching/learning process. This scenario shows that the objectives of introducing ICT at the pre-service level are developing technological know-how and awareness regarding various other technologies and software packages. Further, the time spent for practical sessions is less, as more time is spent for theory sessions. The total approach of introducing ICT at the pre-service level is not very serious. It is very clear that student teachers will not get much scope in order to integrate ICT in curriculum or the teaching/learning process. In teacher training programs at the secondary level, the ICT education scenario is struggling with the following problems:

- Only at the awareness development level are objectives being achieved, but higher order thinking skills regarding the use of ICT tend not to be occurring.
- Technology, pedagogy and content area integration is a rare feature. All components are dealt with separately which creates confusion for students.
• There is a serious discrepancy among syllabi of teacher training institutions and secondary schools. Syllabi at various institutions are not on a par with school level curriculum.

• Time duration of the courses related to ICT education is too short to develop knowledge and necessary skills among students to achieve higher order thinking skills.

• There is a lack of availability of proper infrastructural facilities at most of the institutions.

• There is a mismatch between available hardware and software to develop required learning resources.

• Support from technical staff for maintenance is dismal.

The objective at the pre-service level is not to prepare technocrats, but to develop techno-pedagogues. Teachers should be in a position to integrate technology into teaching / learning as well as develop the art and skill of “webogogy” (i.e., to make use of Internet technology, exploring it, accessing information from it to use in teaching learning, etc.). So, objectives must be set at the attainment of application and skill levels rather than just at the knowledge and understanding levels. The professional development of teachers needs to be given importance. There must be congruence between the school curriculum and teacher training curriculum at the secondary level. Otherwise, teachers are not ready to utilize their knowledge to effectively design teaching/learning processes, project work, and assignments. In addition to offering ICT as a compulsory and special course, integrated approaches need to be studied along with methods courses. This will help student teachers to develop the concept of ‘techno pedagogy’ to a greater extent.

Thus, management of change in teacher education is a complex and demanding task involving comprehension, concern, caution, and contemplation. Planners and administrators of teacher education have to provide academic leadership to prepare reflective teachers who can manage the educational system efficiently at various stages of education at the pre-primary, primary, elementary, secondary, and higher secondary levels. Effective change in schools is possible only when there are corresponding changes in the management of teacher education programs.
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The Impact of Distance Education on the Future Demand for College Faculty

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Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to build a conceptual framework to help scholars think systematically about the impact of technology-based distance education on the future demand for faculty. The proposition which we consider is the impact of technology-based distance education on the future demand for faculty will depend on whether increasing markets will increase the numbers of faculty needed to teach faster than increases in productivity will decrease the numbers of faculty needed, without negatively affecting educational quality.

To begin addressing this proposition, let us examine trends in six segments of the distance education market:

1. Adult learners seeking further education and professional certification

The U.S. Bureau of the Census projects an increase from 2000 to 2010 of slightly more than 10 percent in the adult working-age group from 25 to 64. While the
numbers of potential workers is increasing, their job prospects are less certain. Pressures of the global knowledge-based economy on this group and consequent job insecurities are likely to increase the number of adults seeking to further their education as a way to change careers.

While many manufacturing jobs have already been shipped out to countries with lower wages, more and more service jobs are also becoming vulnerable to outsourcing overseas, intensifying the needs of workers for training to develop new skills. Though the adults need further training, they are place-bound and therefore prime candidates for distance education.

2. Traditional college-age students

The Census Bureau also projects an increase of about 13 percent from 2000 to 2010 in the numbers of 18 to 24 year-olds, the traditional college age. If students continue their willingness to borrow to overcome shortfalls in student aid, we can expect increases in the college-going rates and consequently increases in potential enrollment.

The state of California is expecting a Tidal Wave II of additional students. But California, along with many other states, is facing state budget crunches and is reluctant to construct sufficient buildings to provide traditional classrooms to meet the additional demand. Distance education is being proposed as an alternative to investment in bricks and mortar. Thus, the increase in demand for college from the traditional college-age group may be met, at least in part, by distance education.

3. High school students

An entirely new but growing segment of the distance education market is high school students. In fact, the National Center for Education Statistics recent survey of school districts across the county reports that close to one-third of the districts have students taking one or more distance education classes. Presumably, most of this distance education is being provided by colleges and universities to the students taking advanced placement and other college-level classes.
4. Military
The U.S. military made a major commitment to the use of distance education with the establishment in 2002 of eARMYU. This new virtual university currently works in partnership with 29 two- and four-year primarily traditional colleges and universities. eARMYU enables enlisted men and women to earn college credit, and even degrees, on-line. Close to a million active military men and women are taking advantage of these distance education benefits.

5. Corporate training
Corporate training was once considered a threat to colleges because they had the ambition and the potential to expand their operations and take over some of the college courses. The reverse seems to have happened, however. As profits sank, in-house training was often among the first of the corporate cuts made to save money. Thus, some corporate training seems to have migrated back to the traditional colleges and universities, if the classes meet the needs of the corporate world. Many of the corporate training programs are delivered via distance education channels to save employee time and corporate money.

6. Foreign students
The new General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS), which is currently being negotiated under the auspices of the World Trade Organization, covers the delivery of educational services. GATS, for the first time ever, could effectively globalize higher education markets. This has a tremendous potential to affect the international flows of foreign students. The United States is still the destination of choice for the majority of students traveling abroad to study. GATS could increase the number of foreign students studying in the United State, and consequently increase the demand for faculty. This potential may not be realized, though, because of the difficulties foreigners experience getting student visas since 9/11.
American colleges and universities are actively engaged in delivering educational programs overseas, particularly MBAs, but they also face newly aggressive marketing competition on the part of other nations, including Australia and Great Britain, in particular. (Video conference with Australian university March 18, 2005).

Considering all six of these components of the market for distance education, on balance, it looks to us as if the United States is on the threshold of a major expansion over the next decade of education markets potentially served by technology-based distance education. This implies that the numbers of faculty who will be needed in the future will increase.

On the other hand, some forces will operate to reduce the number of faculty needed. Factors potentially decreasing the numbers of college faculty needed to teach include increasing productivity and competition from other education providers.

Forces which could affect faculty productivity include:

**Conceptual Framework**

*A Partial Systems View*

![Diagram of Conceptual Framework](image)

**Economies of Scale**

Increasing faculty productivity, all other things being equal, will decrease the demand for faculty, if more students could be served by fewer faculty. Increasing productivity could
be achieved by economies of scale in the delivery of education. The possibilities differ, of course, depending on the discipline. There are two different ways to achieve economies of scale in higher education. One way is to serve more students at one point in time. Few people argue that the numbers of students served can be continually increased, however, without at some point affecting educational quality. There is debate over what the quality tipping point is, though it may be moved much further out by redesign of the classes.

The other way to achieve economies of scale is to serve more students over time, using the same educational materials. The problem with this approach is that it runs head on into the inherent Paradox of Information Technology. The very technology which creates the potential to achieve economies of scale over time is also likely to render education materials obsolete. In many fields, probably most, the students’ ready access to new information requires faculty to continuously update, or even make major revisions, of their educational materials. This Paradox of Information Technology is likely to prevent economies of scale from being achieved over time in most quality higher education programs.

**Class Size**

The amount of interaction with faculty which students seek and expect may limit the size of distance education classes. In some distance programs using a cohort model, for instance, the amount of interaction with the students limits the class size. The class size for a distance education program may be even lower than for an on-campus program. Faculty who report potential class sizes for the distance classes up to 100 students also report actual class sizes of 10 to 20. Some enthusiasts of distance education argue that large freshmen classes are ideal candidates for asynchronous distance education. Others, equally enthusiastic about the great potential of distance education for adult learners, argue that freshman classes are not at all suited for replacement by distance education. The freshmen students are in transition from high school and the teaching mode where they are told what to do, to college where the learning mode requires that the students
must take more responsibility for their own education. Quality is once again defined in a way which increases the demand for faculty rather than decreases it.

**Workload**

Universally, faculty report that it is more work to prepare an on-line course than a traditional classroom course. Some faculty have been compensated for additional work with overload pay or fewer courses. This is becoming less frequent, however, particularly as the on-line distance courses move from the periphery of the institutions to the central core. Transformations are taking place in higher education affecting the faculty, as more part-time faculty are hired, and more full-time faculty are kept off a tenure track. This transformation is driven primarily by financial strains and the desire to increase institutional flexibility, not by information technology as such. IT installation and accompanying cost-overruns, may contribute to the financial strains, however. Some faculty report that faculty time per student with technology-based distance education may decrease slightly with larger enrollments, but without documenting student performance or student satisfaction. What does this all mean for faculty? More teaching requirements for faculty already typically expected to research and serve their communities, places a burden on administrators to solve a new equation for division of labor. Failure to do so can result in faculty burnout or worse.

**Unbundling**

Some education institutions, particularly those which are profit-oriented, are achieving economies by unbundling the separate functions involved in delivering education, contracting separately for curriculum development, course design, class preparation, instructional delivery, communication with students, and assessment and grading. Costs are reduced by hiring faculty only for the high value-added components and hiring people who earn less than faculty for all the other components. The burden of proof is on the unbundlers, however, to show that students learn as well from “messengers” as they do with faculty, and that they are equally well satisfied with their experience.
**Profit–Oriented Education Institutions**

Profit-oriented educational providers are the fastest growing segments of higher education. They may operate as free-standing entities, or in partnership with traditional colleges and universities. They may skim off the high enrollment programs which are least costly to deliver. This leaves traditional institutions with the more specialized, and higher cost, programs. These profit-oriented firms may in the future pose a greater competitive threat to traditional institutions than they do now. As of 2001, however, profit-oriented private institutions employed, mostly part-time, about 30,000 faculty, or about three percent of a total number of faculty of over 1,100,000. An additional consideration is that, in many cases, the private profit-oriented educational institutions draw their faculty from traditional institutions.

**Corporate Competitors**

Corporate training is a huge business. Critiques of high education lamenting what they perceive as an industry slow to change, have projected that traditional institutions will become obsolete and that their role will be taken over by corporate providers more cost effectively. Cold showers of reality have softened this rhetoric more recently as corporate providers confront the complexities of providing quality education and re-examined their bottom lines.
Conclusion:
The most fundamental lesson to take away from this initial examination of the influence of technology-based distance education on the numbers of faculty needed to teach is the already accepted maxim: "It's not about technology, it's about learning.". The assessment movement and the national survey of student engagement are likely to provide the best ideas to guide the way forward to quality education, whether in traditional classrooms or online.

Expanding education markets are likely to increase the numbers of faculty needed, faster than increases in productivity decrease the numbers. As long as the quality of the learning experience is defined by students to include substantial interaction with faculty--either face-to-face or mediated by technology--the numbers of faculty needed to teach college students will increase, not decrease.
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Abstract

Peers are the front line support group for most adolescents both inside as well as outside college or university. Students’ adjustment at the university is also largely determined by the formation of good and lasting relationships with peers and these relationships are largely dependent on many factors including family relationships. Good and close family relationships tend to ensure better social adjustment and relationships with peers at the university together ensure less student distress and college/university adjustment problems. This paper explores this issue of students in distress in colleges and universities and what research says regarding the problems they face and causes of these problems. It also provides a theoretical framework based on peer and family relations to understand the multitude causes of student distress and recommends some solutions that university authorities may need to take into account to help alleviate these problems that plague universities all over the world.

Introduction

With the increase of student enrolment in institutions of higher learning and the limited human resources in these institutions, the issue of lack of help for students with problems is becoming more and more serious, especially for foreign students. Several instances of students dropping out of college, resorting to drugs and violence and even committing suicide in institutions of higher learning recently are ample proof of the lack of support in these institutions for students in distress. Many studies have shown that although these institutions have counseling centers, students seldom seek help from these places (Sharkin, Plageman, Mangold, 2003). Many reasons could account for this situation. This paper intends to synthesize the findings of research relating to the factors causing these
problems, the reasons why students do not seek help and how institutions of higher learning can enhance efforts to help students in distress before it is too late.

**Rationale**

The Malaysian media has consistently highlighted incidents of students unable to cope with the demands of university life, parents, peers and society. Cases of students committing suicide only after a few weeks in college, students dropping out of college and joining the already crowded unemployment market, students hurting other students and university professors perhaps indicate the need for more effective measures to help students cope with university life. There is indeed a great need to understand the root causes of these problems and set up various mechanisms in institutions of higher learning to help students in distress. Research has indicated that peers and family relations may form crucial support mechanisms that can be integrated in the overall counseling services to enhance the efficacy of the counseling efforts at these institutions.

**Objectives**

This paper will attempt to explore the problems facing students in institutions of higher learning, and the contributory factors to such problems. The paper proposes a framework, based on these factors, on how institutions of higher learning may be able to help students in distress from the perspective of peer and family influences.

**Review of Literature**

A plethora of research exists on problems students face in colleges and universities, factors causing these problems and how authorities and significant others can help students overcome these problems. Among the most common problems are depression, loneliness (Wiseman, Guttfreud & Lurie, 1995), problems in peer relationships, substance abuse, eating disorders (Sesan, 1989) and life transitions.
Common Problems of Students in Higher Institutions

On an average about 10% of university undergraduates suffer from some form of depression (Lewinsohn, Hops, Roberts, & Andrews, 1993). In another study (Sharkin, et al., 2003) of those who seek help, about 40% was for depression, 38% was for missing classes, 33% for relationships problems, 29% family and relationships issues, 27% for drinking and drugging, 23% for anxiety, 15% for eating problems, 10% for unusual or strange behavior and 9% for death of a family member or friend (Sharkin, et al., 2003) (there are cases with multiple reasons for not seeking help). Other problems reported include potential suicide risk (6%), self-harm (4%), physical and sexual assault (4%) and potential harm to others.

However, studies have also shown that not many students seek clinical or counseling assistance. A large percentage also do not know where to seek help. Among the people most able to help are their peers and teachers or lecturers. The peers form the best group of individuals who will be able to first detect problems amongst their friends, as they are ‘on the front lines and may have knowledge of other students having problems well before anyone else on campus’ (Sharkin, et al., 2003, p. 691). One way counselors can assist these students is to train student counselors as well as teachers or lecturers to identify students going through depression and help them by referring to the relevant authorities for further assistance.

Loneliness is another major problem students face in institutions of higher learning (Uruk & Demir, 2003; Wiseman, et al, 1995) and this problem is more evident among adolescents. This is attributed to the fact that the development task of adolescents at this stage is the relinquishing of parental attachment and establishing of attachments with either same-sex or opposite sex friends or groups (Brown, 1990). It is during adolescents’ development that peers become more important than parents (Rice, 1999). Several factors could have brought about loneliness among adolescents. One is the lack of ability of some adolescents to form relationships with their peers and others in their surroundings (Ponzetti, 1990). This may result in lower self-esteem among them and other problems including dropping out of school, substance abuse and depression (Brage & Meredith, 1994; Page & Cole, 1991).
Factors Contributing to These Problems

Studies, both local and overseas, have shown that there are many common factors causing students in institutions of higher learning to be distressed and perform poorly academically or drop out. Among the most common factors include their own personality characteristics and personal factors, peers, family, school and society.

Personality characteristics commonly reported in literature include hardiness which refers to the ability to withstand a reasonable amount of stress (Kashubeck & Christensen, 1992) and resiliency (or the lack of these factors). Peers include classmates, course mates or age mates who indulge in delinquent behavior such as bullying and harassment. Low peer acceptance (Sletta, Valas, Skaalvik & Sobstad, 1996) and peer rejection (Rotenberg & Bartley, 1997) are also strongly related to the problem of loneliness, mentioned above. Adolescents tend to place a lot of importance on friends and any slight ridicule or rejection from these friends tend to lead to low self-concept and loneliness (Demir, 1990).

Family factors include family structure, parent-child interaction (Lopez & Brennan, 2000; Skowron, Wester & Azen, 2004) which include parenting styles (Baumrind, 1991) and financial issues. Family relationships help in the resolution of the adolescent’s identity crisis as indicated in Erik Erikson’s stages of psychosocial development (Erickson, 1963) since they provide sense of cohesion, adaptability and communications network that help the individual learn how to communicate, listen, interact and negotiate. These family factors especially warm and supportive parenting styles are highly correlated to the formation of the adolescent’s self-esteem and the formation of close friendships and that are learned in the family (McCombs, Forehand & Smith, 1988; Dekovic & Meeus, 1997; Demo, Small & Savin-Williams, 1987).

Parenting styles also influence adolescents in that parents who are authoritarian tend to lead adolescents towards low self-esteem, low social skills and higher level of depression. Children of indulgent parents may have higher self-esteem, have better social skills and lower levels of depression but they tend to have behavior problems and perform poorly in school. Parents who are authoritative tend to have children who are more socially and
instrumentally competent. However, children of parents who are uninvolved tend to have children and adolescents who perform poorly in most domains. Karadayi (1994) found that adolescents who have good and close relationship with their parents tend to be optimistic, self-reliant and have high self-esteem while adolescents with parents who enforce strict discipline tend to be pessimistic and highly dependent on others.

School factors include the level of enforcement of discipline, academic issues (Crespi & Becker, 1999) and existence of effective counseling facilities.

Personal factors comprising the type of thinking styles whether collectivist or individualistic. (Aydin, 2000), and Physiological factors relating to the nature of the illness and depression also tend to determine the level of social adjustment in universities. Other than this Societal factors that relate to what extent policies and regulations are in place to help students at risk stay do well in school are also important.

a) Model of Peer and Family Relations

From the research findings and discussion above, it appears that Peers and Family Relations form the two main factors that shape adolescent behavior and determine how well they adjust to the university environment. This contention is also supported by many studies (Uruk & Demir, 2003, for example). Based on these two factors, it is possible to create a 2 X 2 matrix that classify in which category / quadrant these students fall based on the nature of Peer Relations and Family relationships and what their resultant effect will be on their adjustments at the university and also in their personal life (see Figure 1).

Students who are in quadrant A are those who have positive effect on both Peer and Family influences while students in quadrant D are those who have negative effects on both these influences.
Quadrant B comprises students who have negative peer influences but these bad influences may be mitigated to some extent by the positive family influences. Students in quadrant C, on the other hand, are students who have negative family influences but these influences may be mitigated by positive peer influences.

The relative positions of these students in the matrix determine the severity of these influences. Figure 1 shows the characteristics of students in these quadrants.

Quadrant A: Positive peer effects and family influences
1. Socially well adjusted
2. Independent
3. Have many friends
4. Helpful and will make an excellent peer counselor and educator
5. High self-esteem
Quadrant B: Negative peer effects but good family influences
1. Independent
2. Have many friends but may indulge in bad behavior
3. High self-esteem
4. May suffer from depression
5. May present discipline problems

Quadrant C: Positive peer effects but bad family influences
1. Dependent
2. Low self-esteem
3. Friends replace parents as main motivators
4. Not socially adjusted
5. May not have many friends

Quadrant D: Negative peer and family influences
1. Lonely
2. Suffer from depression
3. Most likely to drop out of college
4. Indulges in substance abuse
5. Low self-esteem

The above characteristics of adolescents were gleaned from research reviewed above and it stands to be empirically tested. More research on the nature of the problems faced by students in these four quadrants would certainly throw more light on the different types of problems students face and more effective corrective interventions may be designed at the university level to help these students with full knowledge of the causes of these problems.
Helping Students in Distress

University students present a wide range of problems stemming from various sources and causes which could be based on the matrix indicating the relative influences of both Peer and Family Influences described above. In order to understand these problems and to design intervention programs to help them, universities may need to first establish the nature of Peer and Family Influences and which quadrant these students fall into. Based on this theoretically based classification, it may be possible to design intervention programs most suitable for these students in distress.

Students in quadrant A are not expected to have serious forms of distress. As such efforts may be expanded to help them maintain or enhance their level of social adjustment in the college.

Students in quadrant B, due to bad peer influence may suffer from depression and delinquency problems. Since peers are closer to these students, peer counselors may be engaged to help them. Peer counselors have been found to be one of the most cost effective and efficient approaches to help students at risk (Hayes, McKenzie & Privette, 1975). Counseling centers may also need to be organized to facilitate these students who wish to seek help.

Students in quadrant C, due to poor family influences, may suffer from loneliness and depression. Depression could result from loneliness and as such counselors may need to look at the causes of depression first. Also, family relationships need to be looked into. Student counselors may be able to step in and provide the kind of support these individuals lack at home.

Students in quadrant D who are doubly disadvantaged, may present with more problems than the others and may need more help. Student counselors alone may not be able to help them overcome the many problems they may be facing. One possible suggestion would be to first identify them before they start succumbing to the problems at college.
and getting peer counselors to help them from the very beginning. Peer counselors may be able to recommend to these students to seek expert help at the counseling centers.

**Conclusions and Implications**

The literature review and findings indicate that it is extremely important for institutions of higher learning to step up efforts to address student stress and distress at their institutions. Two factors appear to form the major issues that may cause these problems, namely peer and family influences. A matrix for identifying these students based on the nature of peer and family influences is proposed to help classify the causes of these problems as well as the students so that effective steps or intervention strategies may be formulated to address these problems from the beginning. It is recommended that empirical investigation be undertaken to ascertain the validity of these classifications and the effectiveness of the interventions proposed.
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Effects of Blind Students’ Literacy Development through Concentrated Language Encounter and Traditional Instruction

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Abstract

This paper is a summary of a study that compared two approaches to teaching literacy to blind students: the Concentrated Language Encounter (CLE), which has a strong functional orientation, and the traditional approach, which emphasizes structural skills. The results of the study revealed that (with the exception of one small group in Kindergarten) students taught through CLE performed significantly better in Thai language development than those taught through the traditional method. CLE students had more opportunities than the traditionally taught students in learning, participation, boldness of expression and demonstration of emotional intelligence. Teachers showed a greater range of student-centered teaching behaviors in the CLE classes than that in the traditional classes relative to modeling thinking, encouraging and allowing students to evaluate and improve their own work or achievements.

Introduction

Background of the study

According to the United Nations Decade for Human Rights Education (1995-2004; Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights, 2003), it was recommended that the U.S. should strive to eradicate illiteracy and should direct education towards the full development of the human personality and the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. All children have right to learn at all stages of their development, and to do so in ways that are appropriate and easily accessible to them. A report on World Statistics (UNESCO, 2000) stated that there were about 130 million primary school children in the world who do not go to school; ninety percent of these children live in Africa. Also, one in ten of the world’s population is physically or
mentally disabled or has a learning disability. Furthermore, less than 2 percent of
disabled children have the opportunity to go to school, and girls have fewer opportunities
for schooling than boys. Students who are either visually impaired or blind have major
problems in gaining educational or learning opportunities because of discrimination in
education on the basis of gender, race, or disability. Illiteracy, which often results from a
lack of opportunity, relegates many people to life as second-class citizens and sometimes
even as non-persons (Blake, 2003).

Since literacy involves the ability to acquire information and communicate with others,
the blind person’s literacy skills involve many methods of acquiring, storing, and
accessing information, and of communicating one’s own ideas, opinions, and needs.
Literacy includes the ability to use Braille, print, and computers as well as the ability to
use readers and recorded materials to gain access to and acquire the most knowledge
from information. Education empowers students to direct and control their own learning,
to awaken their intelligence. Accordingly, teachers and families of blind children must
strive to empower them to direct and control their learning, thus giving them an
opportunity to move upward in society as full participants (Doake, 1995). A number of
blind people are growing up illiterate and Braille literacy is one answer to the problem of
illiteracy (Ianuzzi, 1999; Johnson, 1996; Mullen, 1990). Learning to read and write in
Braille can make a dramatic difference in the life of the blind children or adults. Braille
literacy has become an issue of great concern to blind adults, parents of blind children,
and teachers of blind students. Some negative attitudes about Braille, such as the
complexity of Braille codes and the lack of standardized Braille teaching methods, often
inhibit the teaching and learning of Braille (Ianuzzi, 1999; Wittenstien, 1996; Blake,
2003).

Problems of organizing teaching and learning for blind students in Thailand

Thailand’s National Educational Act of 1999, sections 10 and 55 (Office of National
Educational Commission, 1999), states that any disabled person has the right to
educational equity in order to live ordinarily and independently. Students with vision
impairment or who are blind are one of the groups of students who have the most problems in improving their lives. According to research studies on organizing teaching and learning for blind students in Thailand for the last decade (Office of National Research Council of Thailand, 2000), three aspects are of importance. They relate to students, teachers, and other aspects of instruction.

1.) Students: Blind students usually learn how to read and write more slowly than sighted students since much learning, concept development, and detailed discrimination is a function of sight. However, blind or vision-impaired students must learn by other sensory means; feeling, touching, smelling and listening. Anxiety about survival and safety needs cause shyness, lack of confidence, introversion, and moodiness because they cannot see and imitate others (Janaim, 1982:74-79; Kittiwattanakul, 1987:f).

2.) Teachers: Teachers’ lack of knowledge of appropriate teaching methodologies and techniques, their lack of enthusiasm, and an emphasis on learning content rather than processes negatively impact blind students’ literacy development. There is an overuse of lecturing and rote memorization, so that instruction tends to be repetitive and boring (Wanawananon, 1985: 58; Meesri, 1997: 8). The traditional way of teaching Braille, starting with writing before reading, contrasts with literacy learning by normal students, in which reading precedes writing (Sathornsamritiphol, 1987: 67; Kasemsaihol, 1988: 96; Theepapan, 1988:76; Meesri, 1997: 61).

3.) Other Instructional Aspects: Problems that need to be solved regarding the teaching of literacy to blind students include the appropriateness of instructional media, students’ levels of participation in activities, the availability of tools for measuring and evaluating of learning, and the trend to integrate blind students in mainstream classes (Kittiwattanakul, 1987: e; Sathornsamritiphol, 1989:69; Meesri, 1997: 61-62). Solutions to the above problems can be found in current research that seeks ways of developing blind students’ spoken and written language communication as well as their body language.
Levels of Literacy and Illiteracy

To organize an appropriate program for teaching literacy for students who are blind, a complete cycle of the curriculum development process must be developed. The standard literacy levels defined by the United Nations can help us formulate the goal and objectives of such a program. That program, as noted by UNESCO (1990), defined literacy at 3 levels: basic literacy, functional literacy, and computer literacy.

**Basic literacy** refers to being able to communicate by using spoken and written language at an uncritical thinking level, for example, reading and pronouncing words by blending vowels and consonants, writing one’s name but being unable to write to express what one thinks.

**Functional literacy** refers to being able to communicate by using both spoken and written language at a critical thinking level, being able to apply the communicative information to develop one’s daily life (in earning a living and developing morality and ethics) and being able to learn about a range of subject areas. Functional literacy is mostly aimed at life development and can lead to computer literacy when the language is learned through critical thinking processes.

**Computer literacy** refers to being able to communicate and process data by using a computer. It also includes the comfort level someone has with using computer programs and other applications that are associated with computers.

A person’s level of literacy has a direct impact on his/her physical and psychological well-being. It affects his/her ability to care for oneself, to read directions on a cleaning product, follow a recipe, and even hold a job (Ryes, 1996). It affects emotional well-being by enabling independence and confidence. These factors are what make literacy so important for blind and visually impaired students, their families, and their teachers. Developing functional literacy in terms of being able to communicate by using both spoken and written language through critical thinking processes was the main concern of this study.
Gray and Walker (Walker et al., 1992) developed the notion of a “Concentrated Language Encounter” (CLE) to refer to generating significant learning situations in which students learn language in use. Working with a general model of language curriculum, Gray and Walker developed the teaching and learning contexts in which teachers and students negotiated the nature of the learning activity as well as the kind of language needed to deal with it. The teacher had a critical role in scaffolding appropriate models of language, and students were engaged in developing and using necessary language. CLE became the central organizing principle around which curriculum took place. Illustrations or photographs of contextualized learning activities and other related materials were developed and used in the classroom for continuing and further work. Around these materials, talking, reading, and writing were generated in many other concentrated language encounters.

Through the joint efforts of Srinakharinwirot University, the Thai Ministry of Education, and Rotary International, a lighthouse literacy project using CLE was conducted in Thailand’s Northeast schools in 1988-1997 and spread across the entire country within the National Primary Education Plan (Rattanavich, 1997; Walker et al., 1992).

CLE for blind students was initiated by Rattanavich while working on a Rotary literacy project in Egypt in 1999. Egyptians sought the possibility of using CLE with some Egyptian blind students. Initial teaching to those blind students revealed that they were very interested in and enthusiastic about learning language. Some action research studies on CLE teaching with kindergarten, primary, and secondary level blind students in both Thai and English were later conducted at the School for the Blind in Bangkok (Rattanavich, 2006).

Many research studies on teaching literacy to the blind showed that blind students require access to curriculum developed for sighted students. Although adaptations and modifications to the curriculum may be required, blind students should be treated in the same manner as all other students (Hatlen, 1997; Blatch, 1997; Arter, 1997; Gale, Kelly and d’Apice, 1998).
As the CLE teaching program for sighted students at the primary level throughout Thailand has shown significantly better results in literacy skill development than the traditional teaching program in most areas (Rattanavich, 1997), it was considered appropriate to adapt it for use with blind students with the same aims as indicated in the Thai national curriculum.

**Objectives of the Study**

The purpose of this study was to compare the effects of using the Concentrated Language Encounter and traditional instruction on blind students’ literacy development at the beginning level (2nd year of Kindergarten, 1st and 2nd grade) in regard to the following:

1.) Development of students’ literacy performance or Thai language use.

2.) Students’ learning behaviors.

3.) Students’ emotional intelligence.

4.) Teachers’ teaching behaviors when stressing a student-centered approach.

(Refer to the Glossary of the Terms in the Appendix)

**Methodology**

**Population and Samples**

The population was students at the beginning level at The Bangkok School for the Blind in the 2nd semester of the 2001 academic year (November 2001-February 2002). Using random sampling techniques, students’ names were drawn from each class of the 3 grade levels (14 students in kindergarten 2, 14 students in Grade 1, and 15 students in Grade 2) and randomly assigned to experimental and control groups as follows:

- 7 kindergarten students in each of the experimental and control groups

- 7 first-grade students in each of the experimental and control groups

- 8 second-grade students in the experimental group and 7 in the control group
Five steps of teaching through the **Concentrated Language Encounter** method were planned. These were delivered in sequence using appropriate teaching materials for blind students in different text types organized into text-based and activities-based units. One year before the study began, trail teaching to test instrument efficacy and their improvement was conducted with a non-sample group of blind students at each level (Kindergarten 2, Grade 1, and Grade 2). The five steps were as follows:

*For a text-based unit*

1.) Shared reading by using audio-tapes with realistic sound/voice supported by materials for feeling and touching to make the text comprehensible.

2.) Reviewing the text, using role-playing, voice acting, and discussions.

3.) Negotiating the text orally and learning how to write and read Braille at the same time. Drawing by low-vision students and making imaginative models with play dough by totally blind students were included.

4.) Making a big book using Braille, illustrating (by low-vision students) or making play dough models (by totally blind students) and practicing reading from a group big book were included.

5.) Elaborating activities through games.

*For an activity–based unit:*

1.) Experiencing the materials by touching, feeling, smelling, and tasting as appropriate under the teacher’s guidance. Demonstrating the steps of doing or making things.

2.) Doing or making things step-by-step under the teacher’s supervision and assistance.

(Steps 3-5 are the same as those in the text-based unit)
The teaching steps based on the Traditional Method for the control group were:

Kindergarten level:

1.) Alphabet memorizing and practicing writing Braille.

2.) Practicing reading and writing isolated words and sentences.

3.) Practicing reading by blending consonants and vowels including tones.

4.) Practicing writing Braille in different words and sentences.

   (Real objects and model materials are also used in teaching words)

Grade 1-2

1.) Reading the Braille text aloud individually or in chorus.

2.) Explaining vocabulary items or meanings of the words found in the text.

3.) Asking the students questions about the text.

4.) Students working on textbook exercises stressing spelling, conjugation of tones, and learning grammatical rules—the emphasis being on Braille writing and reading.

Criteria/Instruments used

1. Pragmatics tests on Thai language performance at each level consisted of dictation, cloze, and interview tests (for Kindergarten level), and dictation, cloze, composition writing and interview tests (for Grade 1 and 2 levels). For estimating the reliability of the tests, the Test-Retest method was used. The Pearson Product-Moment correlation coefficient are shown in Table 1.

2. A discourse analysis form was designed for recording observation and data collection regarding student and teacher behaviors, based on the standards of the National Education Reforms plan from the Ministry of Education, 2000 (Office of National Educational Commission, 2000), and emotional intelligence behaviors based on
recommendations of the Ministry of Health (Department of Public Health; Ministry of Public Health, 2001).

All tests were pilot tested with non-sample groups of students at the same levels at the same school, one academic year before the research project. All items on the discourse analysis form were evaluated for their content validity by three experts in literacy and the teaching of language to the blind. William A. Scott is formula was used for the reliability test between two co-observers ($r = .80$ up).

Table 1. Reliability Estimates of the Tests in the Study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade Level</th>
<th>Close Test</th>
<th>Dictation</th>
<th>Interview</th>
<th>Composition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>K.2</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td>.81</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>No test at this level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G.1</td>
<td>.98</td>
<td>.93</td>
<td>.91</td>
<td>.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G.2</td>
<td>.97</td>
<td>.97</td>
<td>.93</td>
<td>.80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data Collection Procedures

A randomized control group pre-test and post-test design was used in the study. Efficacy-verified pragmatic tests in Thai language use and discourse analysis of observation forms were used as the instruments for data collection (with reliability of .80-1.00). The data collection procedures were conducted as follows:

1.) An orientation meeting was held between the researcher and the teachers of the three sample classes (Kindergarten 2, Grade 1 and 2) to ensure understanding of the experimental process and also how to teach the experimental and control groups. Both groups were taught by the same teachers.

2.) Pretesting of the experimental and control groups was conducted during the first week of the study, using the pragmatic tests in Thai language Performance at each level.

3.) The teaching of the experimental and control groups for the study was carried out by trained teachers at the three levels. Although the same person taught both the experimental and control groups at each grade level, Concentrated Language Encounter instruction was used with the experimental groups, whereas traditional
instruction was used with the control group. The teaching of both the experimental and control group was also based on the same content and the length of teaching periods was identical.

4.) All the teaching of both groups at all grades was video tape recorded to allow analysis of the discourse and behaviors of students during learning, expressions of emotional intelligence, and teachers’ teaching behaviors as related to a student-centered approach.

5.) Post-testing of both groups at each level was conducted at the end of the semester.

Data Analysis
Dependent and independent samples t-tests and Chi-Square analysis were used for data analysis (as shown in Table 2 and 3).

Table 2 Summary of the Comparison between the Experimental and Control Groups of Blind Students’ Thai Language Performance Development (Literacy Skills), Using t-test (Dependent & Independent Samples)

\[
\begin{align*}
X_1 &= \text{Average Scores of Experimental Group} \\
X_2 &= \text{Average Scores of Control Group} \\
S_1 &= \text{Standard Deviation of Experimental Group} \\
S_2 &= \text{Standard Deviation of Control Group} \\
\text{MD}_1 &= \text{Average Different Scores of Experimental Group} \\
\text{MD}_2 &= \text{Average Different Scores of Control Group} \\
S_{\text{MD}1} &= \text{Standard Deviation of Different Scores in the Experimental Group} \\
S_{\text{MD}2} &= \text{Standard Deviation of Different Scores in the Control Group} \\
t &= \text{Test of Significance} \\
* &= .05 \text{ Level of Significance}
\end{align*}
\]
Table 3 Summary of the Comparison between the Frequency of Students’ Learning Behaviors, Emotional Intelligence and Teachers’ Behaviors Stressing Student-Centered Approach in the Experimental and Control Groups using Chi-Square

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class Levels</th>
<th>Tests</th>
<th>Within Groups Pre-post Experiment</th>
<th>Between Groups Pre-post Experiment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>$X^2$</td>
<td>$S^2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kindergarten 2</td>
<td>Cloze Test</td>
<td>Pre</td>
<td>5.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post</td>
<td>5.79</td>
<td>1.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dictation</td>
<td>Pre</td>
<td>5.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post</td>
<td>8.50</td>
<td>.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interview</td>
<td>Pre</td>
<td>3.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total Scores</td>
<td>Pre</td>
<td>13.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post</td>
<td>17.93</td>
<td>2.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 1</td>
<td>Cloze Test</td>
<td>Pre</td>
<td>5.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dictation</td>
<td>Pre</td>
<td>45.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post</td>
<td>52.29</td>
<td>4.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Essay</td>
<td>Pre</td>
<td>14.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post</td>
<td>19.00</td>
<td>4.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interview</td>
<td>Pre</td>
<td>14.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post</td>
<td>20.37</td>
<td>1.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total Scores</td>
<td>Pre</td>
<td>80.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post</td>
<td>106.57</td>
<td>9.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 2</td>
<td>Cloze Test</td>
<td>Pre</td>
<td>5.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post</td>
<td>19.50</td>
<td>5.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dictation</td>
<td>Pre</td>
<td>53.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post</td>
<td>58.38</td>
<td>4.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Essay</td>
<td>Pre</td>
<td>15.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post</td>
<td>20.00</td>
<td>9.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interview</td>
<td>Pre</td>
<td>7.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post</td>
<td>8.38</td>
<td>.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total Scores</td>
<td>Pre</td>
<td>81.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post</td>
<td>106.73</td>
<td>8.08</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Learning Behaviors
2. Emotional Intelligence
3. Teachers’ Behaviors Stressing Student-Centeredness

Table 3: 
** = .01 Level of Significance
\( O_1 \) = Average Frequency of Experimental Group \hspace{1cm} \( O_2 \) = Average Frequency of Control Group
\( \chi^2 \) = Chi-Square Value

Results of the Study

Kindergarten 2 level

1.) There was a significant difference in the overall development of Thai language performance of the blind students in the experimental group at the .01 level and at the .05 level in reading and writing, but no significant difference of those in the control group between the pre- and the post – experimental stages. When comparing both groups, it was found that there was no significant difference in the development of Thai language performance between them.

2.) The experimental group of blind students showed a significantly higher frequency of learning behaviors in regard to learning participation, boldness of expression or initiative than those of the control group students at the .01 level.

3.) The experimental group of blind students showed a significantly higher frequency of emotional intelligence at the .01 level in regard to self-control, sympathy toward others, and self-esteem. The level was .05 in regard to learning enjoyment, except for making decisions and problem-solving.

4.) Teachers' teaching behaviors stressing a student-centered approach in the experimental group showed a significantly higher frequency level than those in the control group at the .01 level in regard to thinking, modeling, allowing students to apply their knowledge through their own thoughts and motivating them. The level was .05 in regard to using consoling words, correcting individual mistakes, and allowing students to evaluate their own work, a form of self-learning.
Grade 1 level

1.) There was a significant difference between the pre-and post-experimentation stages in Thai language performance of the experimental group in every aspect at the .01 level and at the .05 level in the control group, except for composition writing and listening-speaking. When comparing both groups, the experimental group of blind students showed a higher significant difference in overall Thai language performance and composition writing than those in the control group at the .05 level, especially in conveying meaning, language structure, grammar and initiative, except for writing organization and spelling.

2.) The experimental group of blind students showed a significantly higher frequency in learning behaviors than those in the control group at the .01 level in regard to learning participation and boldness of expression or initiative.

3.) The experimental group of blind students showed a significantly higher frequency in emotional intelligence behavior than those in the control group at the .01 level, in regard to showing sympathy towards others, responsibility, making decisions, and problem-solving as well as learning enjoyment, and at the .05 level, in regard to self-esteem.

4.) The teachers showed a significantly higher frequency level in their teaching behaviors when stressing a student-centered approach in the experimental group than in the control group at the .01 level in regard to modeling, allowing students to evaluate their work, and motivating and encouraging them. There was also a significant difference at the .05 level in sub-behaviors in regard to encouraging, correcting individual mistakes, allowing students to evaluating their own work with friends or on their own.

Grade 2 level

1.) There was a significant difference in Thai language performance of the experimental group in every aspect at the .01 level; especially in writing composition, conveying meaning, and creative thinking, except for language usage, structure, grammar and
spelling. There was also a significant difference in Thai language performance of the control group at the .01 level, except for listening – writing, listening-speaking and composition writing. When comparing the experimental and control groups, the blind students in the experimental group showed significantly higher development in Thai language performance than those in the control group at the .01 level, especially in listening –writing, composition writing, and reading-writing.

2.) The blind students in the experimental group expressed a significantly higher frequency of learning behaviors in aspects of learning participation, boldness of expression, and initiative in thinking than those of the control group at the .01 level.

3.) The blind students in the experimental group showed a significantly higher frequency in emotional intelligence than those in the control group at the .01 level in the areas of conveying sympathy toward others, responsibility, self-control and learning enjoyment. The level of significance was .05 in making decisions and problem-solving.

4.) The teachers' teaching behaviors when stressing a student-centered approach in the experimental group were significantly higher than those in the control group at the .01 level.

**Recommendations:**

1.) Concentrated Language Encounter instruction should be adopted in teaching blind students at the beginning level by emphasizing the use of media such as audio-tapes and materials organization so that students are able to experience through touching, hearing, smelling, and tasting (real things) associated with different texts in a variety of different contexts, especially procedural texts and activities with which they’re concerned. Students need more opportunities in listening-speaking along with continuous practice in Braille. Problem words for the blind students, such as homonyms and spellings should be taught in the context of language use. Kindergarten students need more experiences in listening and speaking about things around them because of their comparative lack of world knowledge.
2.) Teachers should practice more scaffolding techniques in helping blind students in the interactive process of learning in order to help them to be more courageous and successful in communicating with friends and teachers especially the practice of listening and reading.

3.) Better library facilities for the blind stocked with a variety of books in various fields of knowledge in Braille should be organized so that they can spend their time reading and writing with pleasure. The big books in Concentrated Language Encounter classes can be displayed for students to read in appropriate places.

4.) Homework for individuals to practice particular skills can help blind students more effectively in remedial teaching programs.

5.) It would be beneficial to conduct research on Concentrated Language Encounter programs for blind students stressing the effect of learning subjects across a curriculum, and attitudes towards reading and writing after the treatment.

Implications of the Study

This research, especially the reported use of the CLE model of teaching, can be adapted to other language teaching situations involving both disabled and able-bodied children. The Concentrated Language Encounter process can assist students to learn in enjoyable settings enhancing creative thinking and humanistic attitudes.

Research Result Implementation and Dissemination

The results of the study have been disseminated through various seminars and workshops for teachers or key personnel training to teach literacy to blind students. They have been conducted in both the Thai and English languages at local, national and international levels. The Bangkok School for the Blind has adopted Concentrated Language Encounter instruction in teaching language classes, and has become a center for training in CLE literacy for other institutions for blind people.
References


Meesri, L. (1997). *A Study on the State of Instructional Organization for Blind Students at Mattayom Suksa I level in the Inclusive Schools*. The Office of General Education. Research and Evaluation in Special Educations Section, Department of Special Education. The Office of General Education, Ministry of Education. (Mimeographed)


UNESCO. (1990, 4-5 March). World Declaration on education for all and framework for action to meet basic learning needs. World Conference on Education for All, Jomtien, Thailand.


Appendix

The Glossary of Terms Used in the Study

Thai Language Performance refers to the ability of blind students in the study’s experimental and control groups to communicate daily in both spoken (listening and speaking), and written language (reading and writing) at a level of critical thinking by conceptualizing their own ideas. It also includes being able to learn other knowledge areas as measured by the pragmatic test, dictation, cloze test, essay test and interview test, at different levels.

Students’ Learning Behaviors refers to blind students in both experimental and control groups showing how often they are involved in learning activities and expressing their feelings confidently as measured by an analysis of videotaped classroom discourse between the teacher and students. The behaviors pertained to 1.) participation in learning such as answering questions, following teachers’ direction/instruction and doing activities independently and 2.) volunteering to do activities, asking the teacher questions, asking friend(s) questions, and expressing personal ideas to the teacher /friend(s).

Students’ Emotional Intelligence refers to blind students’ ability to control themselves in working with friends, sympathizing with others, being responsible for their learning tasks, being able to make decisions to solve problems, having self-pride and enjoying learning activities. All behaviors were measured by the analysis of videotaped classroom discourse between the teacher and students tape in terms of the frequency of each type. All analyzed behaviors represent the students’ tendency to be good (controlling themselves, sympathizing with others, being responsible); being smart (being able to make decisions and to solve problems), and being happy (being proud of themselves and enjoying learning and activities). (Department of Public Health, Ministry of Public Health, Thailand, 2001).
Teachers’ Teaching Behaviors refers to teachers’ teaching performance in the experimental and control groups showing how often they are involved in using a student-centered approach through thinking modeling, allowing students to independently apply their leaning knowledge though their own thoughts, motivating students in learning, reinforcing encouragement and allowing students to improve achievement and learning by themselves.

Text-Based Unit refers to the learning unit in which story and factual texts are used as teaching materials.

Activity-Based Unit refers to the learning unit in which activities or how (procedural) texts are used as teaching materials.
Abstract

This study was designed to determine and analyze the relationships among selected perceptions, attitudes, needs, and expectations of postgraduate international students at a Thai private university. These relationships were determined by using three variable sets: (1) demographic, (2) academic, and (3) institutional. The set of institutional variables was chosen as the key set to determine statistical relationships with the set of academic variables. The participants surveyed (N = 306) were postgraduate international students who were enrolled for at least one semester prior to semester 2, academic year 2003.

The participants were measured and evaluated by use of an instrument developed by the researcher which consisted of six sets of variables and an open-ended question. Neither the demographic items nor the open-ended question were responded to. However, the canonical analysis conducted between the set of academic variables and set of institutional variables produced statistically significant results (p < .05). The multiple regression and Pearson product-moment analyses produced statistically significant results between some of the academic and institutional variables. Using criteria established by the researcher, only certain results were accepted as being meaningful.

International students enrolled in American universities have often faced a number of problems that are not always recognized as important by the appropriate administrative levels of the institutions. Perhaps imperceptible and not understood by some administrators and faculty, the alienation of many international students in the U.S. has been well recognized and reported on in the collective literature on international
student relations. Some studies offered advice and potential solutions to some of the more troublesome aspects in the hope (many times vain) that realistic remedies would be implemented to ameliorate most of these seemingly intractable problems (Ciszek, 2000).

In many ways, the same problematic situations are evident in Thai private and public universities with international programs and students. However, in contrast to numerous studies of international students at Western universities, there are no generally available studies in English which pertained to international students at universities in Southeast Asia relative to their perceptions, attitudes, needs, and expectations at a institution outside of their homeland. A lengthy search yielded one study which was primarily directed at developing a model of organization management based upon a study of four private universities in Thailand (Thewphaingarm, 1998). Her study included some comments relative to international students at these four universities that pertained to the issues underlying the present study.

“Student satisfaction also reflects the quality of the program and helps promote the program’s good reputation. Furthermore, foreign students are an indispensable element of the international program; they enrich the international atmosphere. If the majority of the student body is Thai, the students will not be encouraged to communicate in English and will be deprived of one potential benefit of participation in an international program” (Thewphaingarm, 1998, pg. 127). Further, “In addition------administrators take institutional culture and internal environment into account because these factors can influence students’ behavior and ability to learn. The administrators have to make sure that the international environment------is provided on campus. International culture is also important; it is a mold that forms the students’ values, behavior, and thoughts” (Thewphaingarm, pg. 128).

Lastly, “All four universities studied have experienced cultural, political, economic and organizational barriers to international program management. Cultural barriers embody differences between Thais and foreign students’ learning styles and language. Thai students are familiar with non-interactive learning styles while foreign (especially Western) students prefer interactive classroom learning. Therefore, a conflict may arise between these two groups of students------” (Thewphaingarm, 1998, pg. 142).
The purpose of the present study was to focus on two aspects of international students’ perceptions, attitudes, needs, and expectations relative to one Thai private university, Assumption University of Thailand. One aspect was academic in nature and the other aspect related to the institution. Because of probable differences in these aspects dependent on student level (undergraduate or postgraduate), these two groups should be studied separately. Thus, only postgraduate students were included in the present study.

Subjects and Method:

The subjects selected for the present study were all of the postgraduate international students enrolled at Assumption University for at least one semester prior to Semester 2, 2003. This targeted group contained 306 postgraduate international students from 57 countries, and included nine doctoral students, 280 Master’s degree students, and 17 graduate diploma students. The targeted students were contacted by The Graduate School, which distributed the questionnaires and collected the ones returned. Several attempts were made to contact each student, e.g. by telephone and/or email, but an unknown number could not be reached. Eventually, 143 questionnaires were collected, corresponding to a return rate of about 47%.

The questionnaire used to survey these subjects contained 10 demographic items, 54 6-point Likert scale items, and an open-ended question. The instrument used was a revised version of the original which was used to survey international students at several U.S. universities relative to the same research purposes (Ciszek, 2000). Since item revisions were minor and the original instrument had sufficient validity and reliability, a pilot test of the revised instrument was not necessary. However, neither the demographic items nor the open-ended question were responded to, which unexpectedly but necessarily limited the scope of analyses conducted in the present study.

The 54 6-point Likert scale items were divided into five sets of variables. The intent of the present research was to determine if relationships existed between variables in the Academic and Institutional sets only. The Academic set of variables contained 11 items and the Institutional set of variables contained 15 items. The set of Institutional variables was selected as the “key” variable set since this study was
Results:

A canonical analysis was performed in order to determine the relationship between the set of Academic variables and the set of Institutional variables. The proportion of variance accounted for between the two sets of variables was 70.7%.

Eleven multiple regression analyses were performed between each Academic variable and the set of Institutional variables. Table 1 contains the computed values for $R^2$ and other statistics that pertained to the relationship between a selected Academic variable and the set of Institutional variables. The significant $R^2$ values ranged from .20 to .58, $p > .05$. Table 2 contains $\beta$ and other statistics which pertain to the relationship between a selected Academic variable and an Institutional variable controlling for the remaining 14 institutional variables. Only significant $\beta$ values, $p<.05$ (two-tailed tests), are provided in the table. Twenty-one positive and 10 negative relationships between were found.

Table 3 contains $r$ and other statistics pertaining to the linear relationship between each Academic variable and each of the Institutional variables. The results are provided for all of the linear relationships between each pair of variables. Four of these linear relationships were nonsignificant, $p > .05$. Twenty of the $r$ values which pertained to the paired Academic and Institutional variables were significant and positive, and four of the $r$ values were significant and negative.

Table 4 contains a listing of each Academic variable and the percentage of respondents who either agreed or disagreed to varying degrees with the stated item. For one Academic variable, item Q10, the majority of respondents disagreed (65.7%). For the remaining 10 items, the majority agreed (from 71.0% to 87.6%). The response to item Q41 is of particular interest because 72% of the respondents believed that less would be expected of international students academically than of Thai (native) students. Table 5 contains a similar listing for the Institutional variables. For these variables (items), the majority of respondents agreed (from 68.8% to 93.0%).
The 21 positive and 10 negative relationships included in Table 2 were derived statistically. However, statistical relationships may or may not have meaningful significance. Accordingly, the following criteria were used to identify estimated, meaningful relationships:

1.) $R^2$ must be equal to or greater than .25 (refer to Table 1). Thus, the proportion of variance accounted for between each Academic variable and the set of institutional variables must be at least 25%.
2.) $r$ must be equal to or greater than .25 (refer to Table 3). A magnitude of .25 generally represents a relatively low degree of linear correlation between an Academic and an Institutional variable (Hinkle, Wiersma, & Jurs, 1994, pg. 119).

Application of these criteria resulted in the rejection of 11 positive relationships and nine negative relationships from the total 21 positive and 10 negative relationships in Table 2.

Conclusions:

Relative to the overall research question “What is the relationship between the set of academic variables and the set of institutional variables pertaining to postgraduate international students?”, the conclusions included the following:

1.) There is a relationship between the set of academic variables and set of institutional variables.
2.) There is a positive relationship between the following academic and institutional variables controlling for the remaining 14 institutional variables:
   a.) “I feel uncomfortable discussing academic problems with students who are not from my homeland” (Q10) and “I feel that students and faculty should communicate only in English” (Q13).
   b.) “There are academic support services available to help me in difficult courses” (Q21) and “I participate in campus activities sponsored by this university” (Q22).
c.) “I feel comfortable discussing academic problems with students who are from my homeland” (Q35) and “I believe that international cultural activities should be supported by this university” (Q19).
d.) “I feel comfortable consulting with International Center advisors on academic matters” (Q40) and “I participate in campus activities that are sponsored by this university” (Q22).
e.) “Faculty have lower academic expectations of international students than for Thai students” (Q41) and “International students are not treated with respect at this university” (Q17).
f.) “Faculty have lower academic expectations of international students than for Thai students” (Q41) and “My decision to attend this university was based mostly on information that I read” (Q34).
g.) “Faculty have lower academic expectations of international students than for Thai students” (Q41) and “I feel uncomfortable when student activities are promoted in a different language than English” (Q39).
h.) “I feel comfortable in resolving academic problems without institutional help” (Q54) and “I participate in campus activities that are sponsored by this university” (Q22).
i.) “I feel comfortable in resolving academic problems without institutional help” (Q54) and “Social life at this university is more difficult for me than it is in my homeland” (Q56).
j.) “My coursework helps me develop my reasoning skills” (Q60) and “I believe that my experiences at this university help me adapt to its culture” (Q59).

3.) There is a negative relationship between the following academic and institutional variables controlling for the remaining 14 institutional variables:

a.) “I feel comfortable discussing academic problems with students who are from my homeland” (Q35) and “I feel that academic support services are useful in reducing my difficulties” (Q48).
**Discussion:**

In the “Results” section, 11 positive and nine negative relationships were rejected by application of the described criteria. Accordingly, only the 10 remaining positive and one remaining negative relationships that pertained to the same Academic variable were evaluated separately.

Regarding the positive relationship between Academic variable Q10 and Institutional variable Q13, about 66% of the respondents disagreed with Q10 and about 79% agreed with Q13. This relationship appeared to indicate that the greater the tendency to use English as the medium of communication, the greater the tendency to discuss academic problems with peers. Also, faculty and other university personnel should be included as well. The overall implication is that the university’s promotion of English, not only in words or regulations, would be beneficial for international students per se.

Turning to the positive relationship between Q21 (76% agreed) and Q22 (79% agreed), it appeared reasonable to conclude that the greater the tendency to participate in sponsored campus activities, the greater the tendency to be aware of academic support services offered by the university. The implication of this relationship is that the university should actively encourage more international student participation in sponsored activities. One of the important results of this effort should be greater usage of existing academic support services and possibly revisions in these services based upon the input of international students.

The positive relationship between Q35 (71% agreed) and Q19 (93% agreed) seemed to indicate that the more the university supported international cultural activities, the greater the tendency for international students to discuss their academic problems with homeland peers. One implication of this relationship could be that some international students would know more of their peers (homeland and others) by interaction during international cultural activities. Thus, these activities should be supported and encouraged by the university.

Regarding the positive relationship between Q40 (77% agreed) and Q22 (79% agreed), greater participation in sponsored campus activities would correspond to more comfortable interaction with International Center advisors concerning academic matters. One implication could be that, since both the International Center and other campus
activities are university sponsored, international students degree of satisfaction with the university itself could be a “common denominator” in this relationship.

The majority of respondents (72%) agreed with Q41—they perceived their faculty’s academic expectations for international students to be lower than for native (Thai) students. Although perhaps atypical, the overall perception of this group was accepted “as is”. Three positive relationships were found: between Q41 and Q17, between Q41 and Q34, and between Q41 and Q39. For the latter variables, 69%, 87%, and 80% agreed respectively.

The positive relationship between Q41 and Q17 indicated that the greater the perception of not being respected at this university, the greater the tendency to feel that the academic expectations of faculty relative to Thai students would be higher than for international students. One implication might be that perceived lack of respect at this university would transfer to faculty academic expectations being lower psychologically, not in actuality. Thus, university administration should be aware of the importance of international students’ self-perceptions of respect and do more to reverse this negative situation.

Another positive relationship was between Q41 and Q34. In this case, the more international students based their decision to enroll on written material, the more they perceived that less would be expected of them academically compared to Thai students. An implication, for some potential international students, might be that careful reading and perhaps revisions in promotional materials should be undertaken to reduce this type of expectation. Also, this relationship could be due to the presence of other factors, e.g. a confounding variable(s) not identified.

The third positive relationship derived was between Q41 and Q39. Accordingly, the more uncomfortable international students felt when English was not used to promote student activities, the greater their tendency to believe that their faculty’s academic expectations of them were lower compared to native students. This relationship could be an extension of the one between Q41 and Q17 because campus activities promoted in Thai (verbal or written) instead of in English could affect their perception of being treated with respect. An obvious implication would be that the university use only English for all communications, especially regarding international students.
Two positive relationships were found relative to academic variable Q54: between Q54 and Q22, and between Q54 and Q56. For Q54, 82% agreed, for Q22, 79% agreed, for Q56, 77% agreed. Regarding the first relationship between Q54 and Q22, the greater the tendency of international students to participate in university-sponsored activities, the more they would tend to resolve their academic problems without help from the university. One explanation might be that these students, through greater participation, would have more access to peers from whom they would seek assistance in resolving their academic problems. An implication for the university is the apparent need for using campus activities to also promote its other student services, e.g. academic counseling.

The second positive relationship was between Q54 and Q56. In this case, the greater the tendency of international students to perceive their social life here as being difficult, the more they would tend to seek academic assistance from non-institutional sources, e.g. homeland peers, other friends, etc. This relationship indicated possible adjustment problems relative to overall life at this university. An implication would be that university administration should pay more attention to the non-academic aspects and interests of international students during their sojourn so that would feel more comfortable as a result.

Turning to the positive relationship between Q60 and Q59, 88% agreed with the former and 85% agreed with the latter. This relationship indicated that the more international students adapt culturally to this university, the more their overall experiences would help to improve their reasoning skills relative to coursework. This relationship illustrates again the importance of adaptation per se relative to the academic success of international students. Since the development of critical thinking/reasoning is emphasized here, the implication is that this development process could be enhanced through university efforts which recognize and respond to this linkage.

One negative (inverse) relationship was found between Q35 and Q48; 71% agreed with the former and 91% agreed with the latter. Accordingly, the more international students perceived university academic services as useful in problem-solving, the less they will tend to rely on peers from their homeland. The implication of this relationship is that the university’s promotion of both the awareness and usage of its academic support services by international students is very important to their academic success.
It was noted earlier that 72% of the respondents felt that less would be expected of international students academically than of native (Thai) students. Logically, the converse would have been substantially more reasonable. This unexpected result could indicate that other items might have been responded to inappropriately, e.g. carelessly. Despite this reservation, it is reasonable to assume that the responses from this selected group of subjects represented their honest beliefs and perceptions. Whether this group’s perceptions, attitudes, needs, and expectations are representative of the overall international student body can be determined by further research, e.g. by surveying undergraduate international students.

In conclusion, Thewphaingarn (1998) reported on the importance of an international environment in Thai private universities that enrolled international students. She stated that the responsibility for supporting and maintaining an appropriate institutional environment was primarily a function of university administration, irrespective of the number of international students relative to Thai (native) students. The overall results of the present study, which focused on the relationships between academic factors and institutional factors, supported her position. They also supported the importance of international student relations as reported by Ciszek (2000).

References:


### Table 1

R² and Other Statistics Pertaining to Relationship between Academic Variable and set of Institutional Variables

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Academic variable</th>
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<th>F</th>
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**Note.** p < .05 for significance
Table 2

β and Other Statistics Pertaining to Relationship between Selected Academic Variable and Institutional Variable Controlling for Remaining Institutional Variables

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Note. p<.05 for significance, two-tailed t-tests
Table 3

r and Other Statistics Pertaining to Linear Relationship between Academic and Institutional Variable

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Note. p(one-tailed tests) < .05 for significance
## Table 4

Academic Variables and Other Statistics

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<td>“I feel uncomfortable discussing academic problems with students who are not from my homeland”</td>
<td>34.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>Q21</td>
<td>“There are academic support services available to help me in difficult courses”</td>
<td>75.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q30</td>
<td>“Advisors in the International Center are interested in helping me succeed in my studies”</td>
<td>76.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q31</td>
<td>“I feel comfortable consulting with my professors when their help is needed”</td>
<td>85.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q35</td>
<td>“I feel comfortable discussing academic problems with students who are from my homeland”</td>
<td>71.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q40</td>
<td>“I feel comfortable consulting with International Center advisors on academic matters”</td>
<td>76.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q41</td>
<td>“Faculty have lower expectations of international students than for Thai students”</td>
<td>72.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q49</td>
<td>“I can establish mentoring (advisory) relationships with my professors”</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q52</td>
<td>“International students should be allowed to participate in the design of their curriculum”</td>
<td>87.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q54</td>
<td>“I feel comfortable in resolving academic problems without institutional help”</td>
<td>81.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q60</td>
<td>“My course work helps me to develop my reasoning skills”</td>
<td>88.3</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Table 5

Institutional Variables and Other Statistics

<table>
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<tr>
<th>No.</th>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Q13</td>
<td>“I feel that students and faculty should communicate only in English”</td>
<td>79.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q15</td>
<td>“I have felt unsupported by the service providers at this university”</td>
<td>73.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Q17</td>
<td>“International students are not treated with respect at this university”</td>
<td>68.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q19</td>
<td>“I believe that international cultural activities should be supported by this university”</td>
<td>93.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Q22</td>
<td>“I participate in campus activities that are sponsored by this university”</td>
<td>78.7</td>
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<tr>
<td>Q25</td>
<td>“Some of the nonacademic personnel help me to feel comfortable on this campus”</td>
<td>78.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q26</td>
<td>“The recreational facilities that are available are enjoyable”</td>
<td>83.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>Q28</td>
<td>“I feel that attending this university is important for my future career success”</td>
<td>81.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>Q34</td>
<td>“My decision to attend this university was based mostly on information that I read”</td>
<td>86.7</td>
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<tr>
<td>Q39</td>
<td>“I feel uncomfortable when student activities are promoted in a different language than English”</td>
<td>80.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Q46</td>
<td>“Financial aid should be available to all international students experiencing unexpected monetary problems”</td>
<td>89.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Q48</td>
<td>“I feel that academic support services are useful in reducing my difficulties”</td>
<td>91.4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Q56</td>
<td>“Social life at this university is more difficult for me than it is in my homeland”</td>
<td>76.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Q59</td>
<td>“I believe that my experience at this university help me adapt to its culture”</td>
<td>84.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>Q63</td>
<td>“I believe that Au administrators should actively promote communications only in English”</td>
<td>91.3</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
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3. The manuscript is composed according to generally understood and accepted scholarly standards.

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