INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON 21ST CENTURY EDUCATION

ORGANIZED BY THE 21ST CENTURY ACADEMIC FORUM

PROUDLY SPONSORED BY PEARSON

CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES IN PREPARING 21ST CENTURY CITIZENS

Table of Contents

An Inductive Approach to Teaching Wireless Communication Fundamentals

Atef Abdrabou and Hosam Hittini
Electrical Engineering Department,
College of Engineering,
UAE University, 15551

.

Abstract

For engineering students, learning wireless communication fundamentals is often faced with the difficulty of relating theory to real-world practice. In this paper, we address the use of inductive teaching methods in wireless communication education for undergrad students in UAE University.

We offer a design of a series of collaborative laboratory and fieldwork tasks that can be integrated with the typical material of a course about wireless communication fundamentals. In addition, the paper outlines some low-cost and ultra-portable wireless communication devices that can be used in performing these tasks. The proposed design of the field and lab tasks follows a discovery-based learning approach that allows the students to learn about the wireless channel effects on transmitted signals before the relevant theory is presented to them in regular lectures. Moreover, the analytical modelling of wireless signal path loss, which is a core topic in a typical wireless communication course curriculum, is introduced to the students following a problem-based learning approach. Based on the outcome of the proposed tasks, the students will be asked to mathematically determine the amount of power lost by a wireless signal in its path to a receiver by using their background in statistics.

Different from the abstract concepts introduced in textbooks, the proposed approach helps the students to touch and feel the nature of wireless channels. Furthermore, it aims at strengthening their ability to form a mathematical model, which is a very important research tool in the wireless communication field.

Key Words: Inductive teaching, wireless communication, engineering, education.

INTRODUCTION

Wireless communication has become one of the most used technologies in the twenty-first century. However, there are difficulties of teaching wireless communication fundamentals to undergraduate students because they often have problems understanding the theoretical abstract concepts. A typical syllabus of an introductory course in wireless communication includes some concepts about wireless signal propagation and empirical modelling of received signal level. These concepts are usually introduced in an abstract way in most of the textbooks. Moreover, empirical (analytical) modelling of practical measurements is not easy to understand without performing real experiments.

In this paper, we address the use of inductive teaching methods in wireless communication education for the undergrad students of the Communication Engineering program in UAE University. Our approach is student-centred. It is hinged on a combination of discovery-based and problem-based learning methods. Usually the effects of the different impairments of a wireless communication channel on signal reception are often hard to imagine or to comprehend by undergrad students. Research shows that inductive teaching methods lead to a deeper student learning experience with longer retention of information than other methods (Prince & Felder, 2006).

The contributions of this paper are three-fold. First, we offer a series of collaborative laboratory and field tasks that can be seamlessly integrated into the design of a typical course about wireless communication fundamentals. The proposed design of the field and lab tasks follows a discovery-based learning approach that allows the students to discover wireless channel effects on transmitted signals before the theory is presented to them in regular lectures. Second, the analytical modelling of a wireless signal path loss is introduced to the students in a problem-based learning approach. Third, the paper presents some low-cost wireless communication devices that can be used in order to accomplish these tasks for classes with moderate or even large number of students.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 introduces a background about inductive teaching technique. It particularly highlights discovery-based and problem-based learning approaches. Section 3 provides the proposed modifications to the design of an introductory course about wireless communication fundamentals. The benefits of the proposed approach are discussed in Section 4. Finally, Section 5 concludes the paper.

INDUCTIVE TEACHING

Prince and Felder in (Prince & Felder, 2007) and (Prince & Felder, 2006) defined inductive teaching as a teaching technique or a strategy that urges students to know on their own what is the required theory, skills and experience in order to learn a certain subject. In inductive teaching, students are given the chance to teach themselves, exert effort to discover problems, and the information they need without instructor intervention. Teachers, who use inductive teaching method, only direct students to the way they should follow in order to discover information and solution to problems (Prince & Felder, 2007) and (Prince & Felder, 2006).

Indeed, it has been found that students may become motivated when they realize that the information they learned is helpful in practice and beneficial to them in their future careers. The authors Prince & Felder, (2006; 2007) indicated that several forms are available for inductive teaching as in the following.

Inquiry-based learning: This is a generic form of inductive teaching. Basically, all other inductive teaching strategies are variants of inquiry-based learning that differ mainly in how much the instructor is engaged with the students.

Discovery-based learning: In this type of inductive teaching, students are given an exercise to be solved. However, students are required to find out how to solve the exercise themselves as no guidance or intervention from the instructor is allowed. According to Prince and Felder (2006), there is a better version of discovery learning called "guided discovery", where course instructors may give some directions to students.

Problem-based learning: Students are requested to solve a relatively large, but practical problem in groups, which they should solve themselves by going through all the required phases such as problem formulation, exploring solution techniques, and identifying solution limitations. They should also figure out the background knowledge required to solve the problem themselves. In a lecture context, instructors can explain the required background information if it is complex for students to understand on their own. Alternatively, instructors can give students some hints and directions on where they can find the required information (Prince & Felder, 2007; Smith, Sheppard, Johnson, & Johnson, 2005).

Project-based learning: This kind of inductive teaching has mixed features of both inquiry-based learning and problem-based learning. Students are asked to work on a design project, which is an application to parts of the course material they have already studied. Students try to apply their practical and theoretical knowledge in order to come up with a reasonable solution to the project problem. It involves some instructor guidance since students will have already studied the necessary background information during the course lectures (Prince & Felder, 2007) (Prince & Felder, 2006).

Just-in-time teaching*:* This implies challenging students with a pre-lecture question that may be emailed to them. Students then send their answers to the course instructor prior to the lecture. After that, the course instructor collects students' answers, tries to identify any lack of background or the pieces of lecture material that may cause confusion to students, and then prepare for the lecture based on students' response (Prince & Felder, 2007) (Prince & Felder, 2006).

PROPOSED MODIFICATIONS TO COURSE DESIGN

This section addresses the proposed modifications to the design of a typical introductory course about wireless communications. The modifications include the introduction of guided discovery-based learning as an inductive teaching tool represented by a series of collaborative lab/field tasks. Moreover, we exploit another inductive teaching tool (problem-based learning) for introducing the Path Loss Modelling topic, which is usually offered by textbooks in an abstract manner. The section also provides some hardware equipment that can be purchased with an affordable budget to fit a class with a reasonable number of students.

Collaborative Lab/Field Tasks

The proposed tasks require collaborative effort from the students in the class. The students should be divided into groups with a maximum of 3 students in each group. Each task (experiment) should start with preparing a given setup.

Each group of students will be given a router, a WiFi adapter, a measuring tape, and a Linux Ubuntu (Ubuntu, 2015) installed as a Live CD option. A smartphone with a global positioning system (GPS) should be available with at least one student in each group. The router is considered to be the sender. The WiFi adapter is the receiver that measures the received power, i.e., the received signal strength indicator (RSSI) value. Each group of students should use their own laptop.

Students should be informed about the indoor and outdoor areas where the measurements are to be taken. There are some common steps of the setup that should be followed and documented before the measurements can be taken as in the sequel. First, students should measure the received power at least 10 times for some distance between the sender and the receiver. The students should also be instructed to take the measurements at different locations inside a room (or outdoors) in order to take shadowing effects into account. Second, the power should be measured over a distance range of 1 to 10 meters with a step of 1 m for indoor measurements. For the outdoor measurements, the distance range should be chosen differently in order to reach greater distances.

Lab tasks should be done to cover both line-of-sight LOS and non-LOS cases. LOS means there is a virtual straight line connecting the sender and the receiver without any obstacles intersecting it. On the other hand, non-LOS implies that the line passes through one or more obstacles such as computers, monitors, tables, and chairs in an indoor environment. One of the lab tasks is dedicated to address mobility effects on power measurements. The LOS field tasks, Non-LOS field tasks, outdoor field tasks, and mobility tasks are listed in the following experiments. The steps for each task are grouped into three main phases, namely, Setup, Measurements, and Observations.

Task 1: LOS Scenario Investigation

The main objective of this task is to measure the received signal power at different locations of the transmitters and receivers and different transmitter-receiver distances in an LOS setting. The experiment also aims at getting the students acquainted with the setup and the measurement procedure. In addition, they are expected to observe the effect of shadowing on the RSSI values for different locations. Students should provide their results in a table documenting the outcome of each time the experiment is performed, which includes the power received at each transmitter-receiver distance (from 1 to 10 meters).

Setup:
- Run Ubuntu Linux as a Live CD on your laptop.
- Connect the WiFi adapter to the pre-configured access point name broadcasted by the router

Measurements:
- Select two locations for the receiver and the transmitter. Make sure there are no obstacles in between.
- By using the measuring tape, determine the distance separating the router and the laptop then record it in a table.
- Measure and record the received power after staying stationary for few seconds to avoid fast fading effects.

- Repeat the measurements 10 times with the same separation distance but in different locations and record the results each time.

Observations:

After finishing the experiment, observe the variation in the RSSI values at one distance and explain what could be the reason behind it.

Task 2: Non-LOS Scenario Investigation

The same setup steps in Task 1 should be followed. The main differences lie mainly in the Measurements and Observations phases as indicated below. The objective of this task is to let students observe the effect of shadowing in non-LOS communication.

Measurements:

- Use the measuring tape and/or the Pythagorean theorem to measure/calculate the distance between a router and a laptop then record the measured distance.
- Make sure that there are some obstacles in between the router and the laptop. The variation of obstacles results in more accurate path loss measurements.
- Measure and record the received power after staying stationary for a few seconds to avoid the fast fading effects.
- Repeat the measurements 10 times, with the same router-laptop separation distance, but in different locations, and record the results.

Observations:

- Observe the variation in the RSSI values at one distance and try to explain the reason behind it.
- Observe the difference between the LOS and the non-LOS RSSI values and try to explain the reason behind it.

Task 3: Outdoor Scenario Examination

The same setup steps, which are mentioned in Task 1 and 2, should be followed.

Measurements:

- Use GPS coordinates obtained from a GPS-enabled smart phone to measure/calculate the distance between a router and a laptop then record the measured distance.
- First make sure there is an LOS between the transmitter and the receiver. Do the measurements the same way as in Task 1.
- Repeat the measurements with some obstacles in between the router and the laptop as in Task 2. The type of obstacles should cover both metal and non-metal objects.
- Measure and record the received power the same way as in Task 2.

Observations:

- Observe the variation in the RSSI values and the difference between the LOS and the non-LOS RSSI values. Explain the reason for this difference.

Task 4: Mobility Scenario Exploration

The objective of this experiment is to let the students experience the effect of mobility on received signal power. This setup requires one extra piece of equipment (robot) to hold one of the transceivers and move it around the area where the task is performed. A configured moderate speed robot should be available to each group of students.

Setup:

- Make sure that the robot is programmed to move correctly over a predetermined path. The path should make the distance between the laptop and the robot fixed.
- Run Ubuntu Linux as a Live CD on the laptop.
- Fix the wireless router over the robot firmly.
- Connect the laptop to the access point broadcasted by the router.

Measurements:
- Make sure the robots do not stay in the same place while measuring the power.
- Make sure there are no obstacles between the wireless router and the laptop for LOS measurements.
- Leave the robots running long enough to take about 10 RSSI measurements.
- Change the distance between the router and the laptop, record the new distance in a table until the whole range of distances is covered.

Observations:
- Observe the variation in the RSSI values at one distance and try to explain the reason behind it.
- Observe the difference between the results of Task 1 and Task 4 results then write down your observations.

Problem-based Teaching Approach for Path Loss Modelling

After finishing all the lab/field tasks, the students are expected to find the solution of a given problem. The problem asks the students to express mathematically the amount of power that a wireless signal loses in its path to a receiver (path loss) based on their lab/field measurements and by using their background in statistics.

Consequently, the students should be introduced to the theoretical background that is required to solve the problem. The theoretical background includes the following path loss equation (Rappaport, 2002)

$$PL(d)(dB) = \overline{PL}(d_\emptyset) + 10 * n * log\left(\frac{d}{d_\emptyset}\right) + X_\sigma$$

The terms of the above equations are commonly described in most of the textbooks as in the following. The path loss exponent n describes how quickly the path loss increases, d_ϕ is the close-in reference distance, d is the separation between transceivers, X_σ is the standard deviation for a zero mean Gaussian random variable with a standard deviation of σ, and *PL(d)* is the path loss at distance d in decibels (Rappaport, 2002).

In a regular deductive teaching approach, the majority of the students are usually not able to follow why the above equation is represented with the variables n and X_σ, which is different from the fairly simple free space equation. In our proposed teaching approach, students have to compare the path loss measurements they have done in Section 3.1 with the above equation. It should be emphasized that the calculated $PL(d)$ at distance d does not always equal the measured one. Based on the collected measurements, students should be able to discover for themselves the reason behind having a random component in the above equation. The solution to the problem requires finding the variables n and the standard deviation σ. The students should use the background that they acquired from previous statistics courses to be able to estimate the values of the two variables, and hence estimate analytically the path loss model. After that, the students should compare their findings for n and σ with the corresponding values in their textbooks and other sources from the literature. They should also comment on any discrepancy that may be found.

As a supplementary assignment, the students will be asked to investigate the current techniques that are used in the literature to mitigate wireless channel impairments. They should also mention some practical examples for commercial products that use these techniques.

Low-Cost Hardware for Lab/Field Tasks

Figure 1 A spectrum analyzer and a vector generator

Many transceivers can be used in our proposed lab/field tasks. Some of these transceivers provide a high degree of accuracy, whereas others are more affordable in terms of their cost. For instance, a vector signal generator and a portable spectrum analyser as depicted in Figure 1, can be used to perform all the proposed lab/field tasks. They provide highly accurate results. However, the configuration of a setup that includes this equipment is not straightforward. Moreover, it is very expensive to purchase more than one unit of each one of them. For educational purposes, high accuracy may not be required since the results, which are obtained with moderate accuracy, are sufficient to correctly represent the concepts under consideration.

Figure 2 A WiFi adapter and a wireless router

Given the relatively large number of students who usually register in wireless communication courses, we propose using a wireless router and a WiFi (IEEE802.11, 2012) adapter for educational purposes due to their availability, easy setup, and configuration.

Figure 3 A Zigbee gateway and a TelosB mote.

In fact, ZigBee (IEEE802.15.4, 2003) transceivers and gateways, as shown in Figure 3, can also be used. They measure the RSSI directly and easily. They are normally inexpensive with a price range that is between 25 and 50 US Dollars per unit. Figure 3 also shows a TelsoB mote (TelosB, 2015). TelosB motes represent a viable option as they are able to

measure RSSI values directly, however, they are a bit more expensive. Their price range is from 100 to 150 US Dollars each.

BENEFITS OF THE PROPOSED APPROACH

One of the main objectives of the introduction of the proposed inductive teaching approach is to help the students to touch and feel the nature of wireless communication channels and the impairments they may have. Field experiments often surprise the students with some results that need unintuitive explanation. Moreover, the students can be exposed to the physics of wireless signal propagation and the effect of different types of obstacles on the received signal level in a practical way. In addition, it helps students to understand typical empirical channel models that are usually introduced as an abstract theoretical part in most of wireless communication textbooks.

Furthermore, the proposed inductive teaching approach allows the students to engage in practical exercise of concepts they learn in statistics courses. This leads to the strengthening of their ability to form a mathematical model describing some random phenomena, which is a very important research tool in the wireless communication field. Thus, the proposed approach provides a smooth transition between the stages of acquiring basic knowledge, during the undergraduate education, to the next stage of seeking deeper knowledge through scientific research.

In addition to the technical learning benefits, the proposed teaching approach has also some non-technical positive impacts. First, it helps to develop the teamwork spirit among the students since they have to conduct the lab/field tasks together in groups and also to collaborate in order to solve the path loss modelling problem. Second, it promotes information sharing, in addition to knowledge and findings exchange among students. Third, it helps to enhance time management skills of the students as they are required to take a sufficient number of measurements within the allotted time of each lab\field task.

CONCLUSION

In this paper, we introduce an inductive approach to teaching wireless communication fundamentals to undergraduate students. We exploit inductive teaching methods in order to transfer the usually hard-to-comprehend abstract wireless communication concepts into an exciting practical experience. We offer a series of lab/field tasks that can be easily integrated into the design of a basic course about wireless communication fundamentals. The design of the lab/field tasks follow a discovery-based learning approach that encourages the students to discover by themselves the phenomena accompanying wireless signal propagation. Moreover, we propose using a problem-based learning approach to introduce one of the core topics in wireless communication courses, namely, path loss modelling. The proposed problem-based learning aims at strengthening the mathematical modeling skill for the undergraduate students, which is an essential skill for scientific research in the wireless communication field and electrical engineering in general. Furthermore, we present some inexpensive lab equipment that can be used in the proposed lab/field tasks for classes with moderate or even large number of students.

REFERENCES

Felder, M. P. (n.d.). The many faces of inductive teaching and learning.

IEEE802.11. (2012). *Part 11: Wireless LANMedium Access Control (MAC) and Physical Layer (PHY) Specifications.*

IEEE802.15.4. (2003). *WirelessMedium Access Control (MAC) and Physical Layer (PHY) Specifications for Low-RateWireless Personal.*

Prince, M., & Felder, R. (2006). Inductive teaching and learning methods: definitions, comparisons, and research bases. *Journal of Engineering Education, 95*(2), 123-138.

Prince, M., & Felder, R. (2007). The many faces of inductive teaching and learning. *Journal of College Science Teaching*, 14-20.

Rappaport, T. (2002). *Wireless Communications: Principles and Practice.* Prentice Hall.

Smith, K., Sheppard, S., Johnson, D., & Johnson, R. (2005). Pedagogies of engagement: classroom-based practices. *Journal of Engineering Education, 94*(1), 87-102.

std802.11, I. (2012). *Part 11: Wireless LANMedium Access Control (MAC) and Physical Layer (PHY) Specifications.*

TelosB. (2015). *TelosB Mote Platform.* Retrieved from http://www.willow.co.uk/html/telosb_mote_platform.php

Ubuntu. (2015). Retrieved from Ubuntu: The leading OS for PC, tablet, phone and cloud.

Assessment of Extent of Skill Acquisition for Self-Reliance by Students in Junior Secondary Schools in Ohafia Education Zone of Abia State, Nigeria

Benson Afianmagbon and Felix. E Obiukwu
Department of Educational Administration and Planning,
Faculty of Education, Abia State University, Uturu. Niger

Abstract

The preparation of students for acquisition of skills for self-reliance is dependent on the acquisition of basic knowledge about employment opportunities and possession of marketable skills. The study sought to ascertain the extent of skill acquisition by junior secondary school students in terms of self-reliance through three key school subjects. The study is a descriptive survey carried out ex-post-facto. The population of the study consisted of 2,819 junior secondary school students in the 30 public secondary schools in Ohafia education zone of Abia State, Nigeria. Out of this population, a sample size of 564 students was drawn using simple random sampling technique. A questionnaire tagged "skill acquisition for self reliance (SASRQ)" was used to collect the data. The questionnaire items were validated and a reliability coefficient of 0.79 was obtained using the Pearson product moment correlation coefficient statistic. Four research questions were formulated for the study and were analyzed using percentages. The findings revealed that the extent of skill acquisition by students is relatively poor. Based on the findings of the study, it was recommended that the government should provide enough funds for acquisition of materials and equipment for students' practical activities that will equip them adequately with skills and make them marketable in the labour market.

Key words: Skill acquisition, self-reliance, students, secondary school.

Introduction

During the pre-colonial era that ended in the latter part of the 15th century, vocational skills such as crop and animal husbandry, tailoring, blacksmithing, carpentry and bricklaying were traditionally passed from parents to offspring as a means to keep the family name going (Daramola, 1995; Sulaiman, 2012; Ogundele, Oparinde and Moronfoye, 2013). At that time, the education of these vocational skills included a high degree of self-reliance among children. According to the National Policy on Education, one of the broad aims and objectives of secondary education in Nigeria is preparation for useful living within the society with its specific objectives among others to include: offering a diversified curriculum to cater to differences in talents, opportunities and future roles; providing technical knowledge and vocational skills necessary for agriculture, industrial, commercial and economic development (FRN, 2013).

The key factor of the National policy on Education is the education of self-reliance. The national policies on education from 1981 through 2004 to 2013 laid a lot of emphasis on education for self-reliance. This National Policy provides in the curriculum of Junior Secondary School in Nigeria the teaching of pre-vocational practical subjects such as agriculture, home economics, music, business studies, introductory technology and fine arts. The focus was to expose students at that level of education to the world of work through exploration. Such exposure would enable them develop occupational skills that will help them to be productive citizens in the global society. Fafunwa (2002) pointed out that the specific objectives of the Junior Secondary School education are to develop the students manipulative skills, invention, respect for dignity of labour, including a healthy attitude towards technical advancement and use.

According to Oviawe (2010), secondary schools in Nigeria hardly prepare students for their roles as self-reliant citizens and workers in the 21st century. Moreover, the structure of most of the schools appears to inhibit knowledge-based teaching and learning as they lack the necessary conditions needed for production of quality graduates for the labour market and subsequent employment. Lack of productive and marketable skills has been identified as the major cause of unemployment as many school leavers are not adequately prepared to fit into the productive sector of the economy and cannot provide the services that can generate sustainable income (Yakubu, 2012; Akpan and Udo, 2014).

Bolt-Lee and Foster (2003) see skills as the art of possessing the ability to have power, authority or competency to do the task required of an individual on the job. Ezeani (2012) stated that skills are not a person's fundamental, innate capacities but must be developed through training, practice and experience. Skill acquisition is the process of acquiring or gaining effective and ready knowledge in developing one's aptitude and ability in a particular field (Kikechi, Owano, Ayodo and Ejakait, 2013). The preparation of students for skill acquisition in order to be self-reliant is dependent on the acquisition of basic knowledge about employment opportunities, requirements and trends as well as the possession of marketable skills. According to Ogundele, Oluwolara and Adegbemi (2011) skills acquired by students would aid job creation, youth empowerment and poverty alleviation, which in turn has the capacity to solve various social problems. Mbionwu (2008) avers that students who acquire

adequate work-skills have better options to become entrepreneurs after graduation. In support of this, Kikechi *et.al.* (2013) maintain that skill acquisition provides a platform for technological excellence in the face of globalization of the world economy. Akpotowoh and Amahi (2006) confirm that the skills acquired through business related subjects promote training in entrepreneurship as well as equip students with the requisite skills to establish and run small businesses of their own.

The development of the economy and the craving for self-reliance and sustainability is the key driving force for the introduction of the 6-3-3-4 and now the 9-3-4 system of education in Nigeria. This education system consist of six years of Primary School education, three years of Junior Secondary School (JSS) education, three years of Senior Secondary School education (SSS) and four years of ertiary education, depending on the course of study at the tertiary level since the minimum years of study of any course is two years in the polytechnic (for National Diploma), three years in the college of education (for Nigeria Certificate in Education) and four years in the university (for B.A. or B.Sc). Junior Secondary School is a part of the education programme which lays the foundation for the acquisition of knowledge, skills and competencies. In other words, skill acquisition is highly emphasized as the 6-3-3-4 scheme with self-reliance as its central theme. According to the 6-3-3-4 system of education in Nigeria, students are to be taught a number of subjects such as home economics, introductory technology and business studies at the Junior Secondary School level which is designed to equip them with the prerequisite skills for self-reliance. After the completion of this level, those students who may not want to continue their education up to the senior secondary school and will be able to become self-reliant as a result of the skills they may learnt at the Junior Secondary School level. The problem of youth unemployment and the high degree of poverty is attributed to the theoretical nature and non-practical orientation that is a frequent outcome of the Nigerian educational system (Ogundele et.al, 2013). Yakubu (2012) noted that many college graduates are not adequately prepared to fit into the productive sector of the economy as they cannot provide services that can generate income.

Ada, Omalle and Okedi (2008) attributed the poor level of skill acquisition to the implementation of the different subject matter, or among other things such as poor infrastructural facilities. Suleiman (2002) observed that pre-vocational subjects like introductory technology were poorly implemented with obsolete and non-functional equipment. Also Uwameiye and Oviawe (2006) in Oviawe (2010) asserted that pre-vocational subjects should be taught through field trips and practical activities as is expected. However, due to a lack of materials, laboratories, equipment needed for exploratory activities, these subjects are taught in a traditional teacher-centered classroom while students copy input from the chalkboard. Hence, the scope of this study is on home economics, introductory technology and business studies as courses/subjects that are geared towards providing students with basic skills for self-reliance.

Employment requirements in most establishments have been changing as a result of technological impact, and as such educational institutions have a herculean task of ensuring that students acquire necessary marketable skills (Ottah, 2008).

Statement of the Problem

The major reason for unemployment and the increase in social vices results from a lack of marketable skills on the part of most school graduates (Akpan & Udoh,2014). In Nigeria today, there is an increasing rate of poverty, unemployment and other social problems that had bedeviled the Nigerian society. This has become worrisome to both the government and the Nigerian public. The incidence of poverty and unemployment is high as the number of students graduating from various levels of the education system is increasing. This may have resulted from the lack of appropriate skill acquisition by graduates in the education system

In Abia State, the researchers have observed that there seem to be little or no impact of schooling on the quality of students output at the Junior Secondary School level of education as most graduates from this level of education, who could not proceed to the senior secondary level as prescribed in the 6-3-3-4 system of education are indecisive and unable to find employment.

It seems that Junior Secondary School teachers and the school administrators are not capable of redeeming the situation as a quick assessment of what is being taught reveals too much theory, with little or no practical experience being acquired by the students during their course of study. It is against this backdrop that this paper strives to find out the extent of skill acquisition for self-reliance by Junior Secondary School students in Abia State, Nigeria.

Research Questions

To guide this study, the following research questions were formulated.
1. To what extent do students acquire skills for self-reliance through home economics?
2. To what extent do students acquire skills for self-reliance through introductory technology?
3. To what extent do students acquire skills for self-reliance through business studies?
4. What is the extent of skills acquired by students for self-reliance in Junior Secondary Schools in Ohafia Education Zone of Abia State, Nigeria?

Methodology

The study employed a descriptive survey design. It was done ex-post-facto. The population comprised of 2,819 former third year Junior Secondary School students in the 30 public secondary schools in Ohafia education zone of Abia State, who had completed their junior secondary education. The sample consist of 564 students drawn from the proportionate stratified random sampling technique. Data was collected by means of the researcher constructed questionnaire titled "Skill Acquisition for Self- Reliance Questionnaire (SASRQ)"

The instrument (SASRQ) was subjected to face and content validation by experts in the department of educational administration and planning and measurement and evaluation of Abia State University, Uturu. The reliability of the instrument was tested on 20 individuals who were not selected as part of the sample

using test-retest method. The Pearson product moment correlation coefficient statistic was implemented in order to obtain a reliability coefficient of 0.82, which was considered adequate for the realization of the objectives of the study. The researchers personally administered the questionnaires along with the help of trained research assistants. The completed questionnaires from the respondents were collected through the same process. A 100% return rate was recorded. The results are calculated in percentage, which was used to analyze the research questions.

Findings

The data from the former Junior Secondary School students on skill acquisition leading to self-reliance are presented in tables one to four respectively.

Research Question one: To what extent do student acquire skills for self-reliance through home economics?
Items 1-6 of the questionnaire represent the answers to the research question. The results are presented in Table 1.

S/N	Item Statement	Agree	%	Disagree	%
1	There seems to have been enough funds which was provided by the school authorities and by parents for home economics practical in our school	141	25	423	75
2	There were regular home economics practical classes as a result of availability of raw materials and equipment	169	30	395	70
3	As a result of teachers commitment to duties, students were taught skills in baking and other catering services and interior decoration	310	55	254	45
4	My teachers ensured that particular periods meant for home economics practical's in the time-table were adequately utilized	141	25	423	75
5	The effort and zeal by our home economics teachers enabled us to acquire skills in catering and decoration services	141	25	423	75
6	Our home economics teacher was adequately skilled and professionally qualified	338	60	226	40
	Aggregate percentage		**37%**		**63%**

Table 1: Percentage Analysis of Perceived Responses of Skill Acquisition by FormerJunior Secondary School Three Students through Home Economics

Table 1 shows the opinion of Junior Secondary School students regarding the extent of skills which they acquired for self-reliance through home economics. Items 1 – 6 of the questionnaire revealed that 37% of the respondents agreed that enough skills for self-reliance were acquired through the teaching of home economics, while the students who disagreed represented 63%. A breakdown of the table showed that 25% agreed that there seems to have been enough funds provided by the school

and parents for home economics practical experiences while 75% disagreed. 30% agreed that there were regular home economics practical classes due to enough provision of materials and equipment while 70% disagreed. 55% agreed that as a result of teacher commitment to duties, students were taught skills in baking and other catering services while 45% disagreed. 25% of the students agreed that specific periods for practicals allocated in the time-table were adequately utilized through the teacher's commitment while 75% disagreed. Also, 25% agreed that the efforts and zeal by home economics teachers enable them to acquire skills in catering and decoration services while 75% disagreed. 60% of the respondents agreed that teachers employed to teach home economics were adequately skilled and professionally qualified with 40% disagreeing.

Research Question Two: To What Extent do Students Acquire Skills for Self-Reliance through Introductory technology?

Items 7-11 in the instrument were used to answer this research question. The result is presented on table 2.

S/N	Item Statement	Agree	%	Disagree	%
7	There was an adequate, skilled and qualified introductory technology teacher in my school	395	70	169	30
8	There were adequate instructional technology facilities, tools and equipment for teaching introductory technology in my school	56	10	508	90
9	There was regular supply of electricity to power introductory technology machines in my school	0	0	564	100
10	Practical experiences were taught more than theoretical experiences in my school for introductory technology	85	15	479	85
11	There was a functional introductory technology laboratory in my school	85	15	479	85
	Aggregate percentage		**22%**		**78%**

Table 2: Percentage Analysis of Perceived Responses of Skill Acquisition by Former Junior Secondary School Three Students through Introductory Technology

The item responses to questions 7-11 of the questionnaire indicate that overall 78% of the respondents disagreed that the teaching of introductory technology provided skills required for self-reliance, while 22% agreed. An analysis of each of the items shows that 70% of the respondents agreed that skilled and qualified teachers were provided to teach the subject, while 30% disagreed. 10% agreed that there was adequate provision of instructional facilities, tools and equipment for the teaching of introductory technology, while 90% disagreed. 100% of the respondents disagreed on the supply of electricity for the powering of the

machines. 15% agreed that they had more practical experiences than theoretical experiences while 85% did not agree. Finally, 15% agreed that there was functional introductory technology laboratory in their schools while 85% disagreed.

Research Question three: To what extent do students acquire skills for self-reliance through Business studies?

In answering this question, items 12-16 of the instrument were used. The results are presented in table 3.

S/N	Item Statement	Agree	%	Disagree	%
12	There was adequate provision of time for practices in typing, accounting and book keeping skills	197	35	367	65
13	A qualified teacher handle the teaching of business studies in my school	423	75	141	25
14	The interest and commitment of our teacher in teaching business studies greatly enhanced our understanding of the subject	479	85	85	15
15	I acquired enough knowledge through the teaching of business studies in petty business skills	395	70	169	30
16	Our school business studies class/unit was well equipped to enhance the teaching of the subject	56	10	508	90
	Aggregate percentage		**55%**		**45%**

Table 3: Percentage analysis of perceived responses of skill acquisition by former Junior Secondary School three students through Business Studies

Table 3 shows the responses of Junior Secondary School students regarding the extent of skill acquisition through the teaching and learning of business studies that should enable them to be self-reliant. The aggregate percentage of items 12 – 16 of the questionnaire indicate that 55% of the respondents agreed that they acquired skills that will enable them to be self-reliant through business studies, while 45% disagreed. In each of the items, 65% of the students disagreed with the adequate provision of time for practical lessons, while 35% agreed; 75% of the students agreed that qualified teachers taught business studies in their school, while 25% disagreed. 85% of the students agreed that their teachers' interest in teaching the subject was high, while 15% disagreed. However, 70% agreed that they acquired knowledge in business skills of which 30% did not agree. Also, 10% agreed that their school business studies unit/class was well equipped, while 90% disagreed.

Research Question 4: What is the Extent of Skills Acquired by Students for Self-Reliance in Junior Secondary Schools in Ohafia Education Zone of Abia State, Nigeria?

In answering this question, the information from the respondents on the extent of skill acquisition is presented in table 4 below.

Item specification	Percentage Agreed	Percentage Disagreed
Home Economics	37%	63%
Introductory Technology	22%	78%
Business Studies	55%	45%
Aggregate percentage	**38%**	**62%**

Table 4: Percentage analysis of skill acquisition by students for self-reliance in Junior Secondary Schools in the Ohafia Education Zone.

The above table shows that 62% of the students did not agree that they were able to acquire skills needed for self-reliance by the time they completed Junior Secondary School. Only 38% agreed that skills for self-reliance were actually acquired during this time of their schooling at that particular level of education. This then provides additional evidence that Nigerian students who complete their Junior Secondary School education may not possess appropriate and marketable skills needed for self-reliance.

Discussion

The findings of this study as presented in tables 1 – 4 show that the teaching approach in secondary schools may not be meeting the objectives set by of National Policy on Education in terms of self-reliance. The perception of a poor level of skill acquisition as exhibited by Junior Secondary School students for self-reliance resulting from the teaching of the relevant subjects is an indication that public secondary schools have not been able to achieve what is expected of them at the Junior Secondary School level in the Nigeria educational system.

The findings of table one shows that the level of skill acquisition for self-reliance through home economics is poor with a percentage of 37%. This is evidence of the inability of the system in achieving one of the objectives of the National Policy on Education, which should put emphasis on skill acquisition for self-reliance. The findings of the study are thus in alignment with Ogundele et. al. (2013), who noted that the degree of unemployment and poverty could be attributed to the theoretical nature and non-practical orientation that appears to be a common feature of the education system. It also supports the view of Akpan and Udo (2014), who aver that the inability of Junior Secondary School graduates to become self-reliant results from a lack of productive and marketable skills that should have been learnt by the students during their time at school.

The data presented in table two shows that Junior Secondary School graduates may not have possessed the required skills for self-reliance through introductory technology with a percentage of 22%. This suggests that the level of skills acquired through introductory technology for self-reliance is still not

encouraging. This finding is consistent with that of Ada et.al. (2008) who attributed the poor level of skills to result from poor infrastructural facilities. It also corroborates with the work by Yakubu (2012) who noted that school graduates were not adequately prepared to fit into the productive sector of the economy as they cannot provide services needed to generate income.

Results from table 3 indicate that skills acquired through business studies are high with 55%. This shows that efforts are being made to equip the students with knowledge and skills to become useful in the society after schooling. This supports the findings of Ezeani (2012) that skills acquisition does not depend on person's innate abilities but must be developed through training and practice. It also corroborates with the findings of Ogundele, *et. al.* (2011) who claims that skill acquisition will aid job creation, youth empowerment and poverty alleviation.

Results from table 4 show that the extent of skill acquisition by Junior Secondary School students needed for self-reliance is poor with an aggregate percentage of 62% disagreeing. This shows that the effort of all the stakeholders in the education system to see to the realization of curbing youth unemployment has not yielded much, and may occur when students do not acquire the requisite skills for self-reliance while in school.

Recommendations:

Based on the findings of the study, the following recommendations are made.

1. The government should ensure that enough funds are injected into the education system, and especially for secondary education. These funds should be used for the purchasing of materials and equipment required for practical learning activities that relate to self-reliance. This should aid students with the acquisition of practical and marketable

2. Teachers should be encouraged to update their knowledge and skills through seminars and workshops as their experiences and abilities may have become obsolete.

3. Students should be encouraged to develop more interest in vocational subjects so as to acquire practical skills which can help them become self-reliant.

4. There should be an establishment of functional laboratories in subject areas that require practical experience.

5. Electricity supply should be provided in schools in order to power machines meant for the teaching of practical experience.

Conclusion

The achievement of self-reliance will continue to be a mirage if there is no attitudinal change by all the stakeholders of education in ensuring that the subjects meant to equip the learners with the needed skills are adequately taught.

References

Ada, O.C., Omalle, M.C. & Okedi, P.A. (2008). Privatization of Vocational and Technical Education for the Attainment of National Goals. *Journal of Vocational and Technical Education 1 (1), 22-28.*

Akpan, E.O. & Udoh, O.A. (2014). Wealth Creation in Nigeria: The Need for Science, Vocational-Technical and Technology Education. *International Journal of Vocational and Technical Education. 3 (1), 9-15*

Akpotowoh, F.C. & Amahi, F.U. (2006). Perceptions of Business Teacher Educators and Small Business Operators on Identified Critical Factors for a Successful Entrepreneurship*. Business Education Journal. 5 (2), 72-81*

Bolt-Lee, C. & Foster, S. (2003). The Core Competency Framework: A New Element in Continuing Call for Accounting Education Change in the United States. *Accounting Education, 12 (1), 33-47.*

Ezeani, N.S. (2012). The Teacher and Skills Acquisition at Business Education: From the Perspective of Accounting Skills. *Arabian Journal of Business and Management Review 2 (4), 25-36.*

Fafunwa, A.B. (2002). *History of Education in Nigeria*. Ibadan: NPS Educational Publishers Ltd

Federal Republic of Nigeria (2013). *National Policy on Education. Lagos:* NERDC Press.

Kikechi, W., Owano, A., Ayodo, T.M.O., & Ejakait, E. (2013). Do Entrepreneurial Skills Acquired from Technical Subjects Help Secondary School Graduates in Self Employment in Kenya. *International Journal of Education and Research 1 (8), 1-12.*

Mbionwu, U. (2008). *School Administration in a Dwindling Economy: Nigeria Case.* Awka: Erudite Printers.

Ogundele, M.O., Oluwolara, F.K & Adegbemi, F.O. (2011). *Fundamentals of Organizational Behaviors.* Ilorin: Ramfik Concepts.

Ogundele, M.O., Oparinde, O.F. & Moronfoye, S.A. (2013). Entrepreneurship Education: A Panacea for Secondary Schools Transformation in Nigeria. *European Journal of Educational Services. 1(1),46-52*

Ottah, F. (2008). Technology in Education. The Way Forward. *Tropical Issues in Education 4 (5), 22-29.*

Oviawe, J.I. (2010). Reforms and Innovations Needed in Secondary Education for Convergence of Skills Acquisition and Development. *The Nigerian Academic forum. 19 (1),1-5*

Suleman, A.O. (2002). A Study of the Material Control Competencies Needed by Introductory Technology Teachers, in Oriaifo S.O., Nwaokolo, P.O.E. and Igborgbor, G.C. (Eds). *Refocusing Education in Nigeria*. Benin City: Da-Sylva Influence 185-190.

Sulaiman, F.R. (2012). Internalization in Education: The British Colonial Policies on Education in Nigeria, 1882-1926. *Journal of Sociological Research 3(2),84-101*

Yakubu, E.J. (2012). Re-Engineering Vocational and Technical Education for Youths Empowerment and Sustainable Development. *Knowledge Review: A Multidisciplinary Journal. 26 (3), 45-48.*

Management of Education for All (EFA) By 2015: The Situation So Far in Developing Countries.

Uche Grace Emetarom and Levi Nwokocha
Abia State University, Uturu, Abia State, Nigeria

Abstract

Education is seen as a right and a tool for sustainable development, hence the adoption of the six Education for All (EFA) goals by world governments in the year 2000 as a roadmap for the global community to follow. These goals, which received broad national and international support, ensure that all children would have access to, and be able to complete a free, compulsory primary education of good quality by the year 2015. However, verbal commitments do not always translate into practice and compliance. This paper, therefore, looks at the situation so far with the management and attainment of the EFA goals by the year 2015 in developing countries. The aim is to bring into a special focus, the efforts of countries in meeting their commitment to the EFA goals made at the Dakar World Education Forum of April 2000. In doing this, information was sought mainly from the reports of EFA international monitoring committee. The paper commenced with a brief background followed by a discussion of the concept of EFA, the goals and their implications. Next, the importance of EFA is underscored. It goes on to discuss the situation in developing countries in the global EFA goals attainment. Furthermore, the paper has attempted to describe the challenges to the achievement of EFA. Thereafter, recommendations are made on concrete management strategies to be taken to close the EFA goals attainment deficit. The paper concludes by noting the need for developing countries to be aware of the enormity of the tasks facing them in achieving EFA goals.

Key Words: Management, EFA, Situation, Developing Countries

Background

In the past ten years the world has made giant strides in educational development. However, many people seem to be far from benefitting from it. Since education is the right of all, Education for All (EFA) by 2015 has been identified as one of the means of reaching this goal. Verbal commitments are not enough to ensure that such goals are implemented. The authors see the need to examine how developing counties have managed EFA in the last 14 years.

The paper attempts to bring into a very special focus, the effort develop[ping countries are making to meet their commitment to the Education for All (EFA) goals made at the Dakar World Education Forum of April 2000. Information on this was sought mainly from the reports of the EFA international monitoring committees from 2002 to 2012. The paper is certainly not a comprehensive compendium on EFA-related initiatives on the countries.

For this reason we have focused on the following basic areas: Concept and goals of EFA, Importance of EFA, The situation so far with EFA, Challenges to Achieving EFA and Recommendations on the possible way(s) forward in developing countries.

Concept and Goals of EFA

Education for All is a global commitment to access of quality education by children, youth and adults. It was first launched in 1990 and later in 2000 by the following United Nations Agencies - UNESCO, UNDP, UNICEF, World Bank - with emphasis on the achievement of six goals by the year 2015.

Goals of EFA
 The recommendations of the Dakar EFA Forum of April 2000 are as follows:
1. **Expand early children care and education**. This entails expanding and improving early childhood care and education, especially for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged children.

2. **Free and compulsory primary education for all.** This should ensure that by 2015 all children, particularly girls, those in difficult circumstances and those belonging to ethnic minorities, have access to free and compulsory primary education of good quality.

3. **Promote learning, skills for young people and adults**. This aims at ensuring that the learning needs of all young people and adults are met through equitable access to appropriate learning and life skills programmes.

4. **Increase adult literacy by 50 percent**. This should aim specifically towards women and should allow for equitable access to basic and continuing education for all adults.

5. **Achieve gender parity by 2005 and gender equality by 2015**. This goal aims at eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, and achieving gender equality in education by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girls' full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality.

6.   **Improve the quality of education at all levels**. This means improving all aspects of education and ensuring excellence so that rcognized   and measurable learning outcomes are achieved by all, especially in literacy, numeracy and essential life skills.

Implications of EFA Goals

The six goals of EFA indicate that by the year 2015 everyone, both adolescents and adults should benefit from pre-school, primary school through formal secondary technical and vocational education, non-formal adult learning or skill training. EFA is a driving force for the achievement of the MDGs as all MDGs are Education-Related. The implication of this is to pursue the twin sustainable human development goals of promoting quality-equitable access to Education in order to boost the MDGs while vigorously pursuing the MDGs to give the necessary thrust to fast track EFA.

Importance of EFA

Evidence from global EFA Monitoring report (2013/14) supports assertions that education transforms lives in significant ways: Firstly, education reduces poverty and boosts jobs and economic growth. It has potential for offering the poor a route to a better life. Also, it accelerates escape from chronic poverty as it increases earnings up to 10 percent. Furthermore, it prevents the inter-generational transmission of poverty, improves employment prospects, increases the chances of better work conditions, and closes gender wage gaps. Education enhances prosperity since it fuels economic growth. However, it must be equitable to yield economic rewards. It improves people's chances of a healthier life. For instance, child mortality can be reduced by 50% in families with literate mothers. It is a key way of improving maternal and children's health as it plays a major role in containing diseases. It can be used to help in reducing the spread of HIV and other preventable diseases through access to health care facilities. Education in fact promotes healthy societies. Moreover, hunger cannot be eliminated without education.

In terms of governing, education builds the foundations of democracy and good governance, improves political participation, and strengthens democracy. It promotes political activism that influences policy changes. Education increases tolerance, helps prevent conflict and heals its consequences if it occurs. Due to its potential for imbuing the individual with knowledge and understanding of the environment, education can be a potent instrument for tackling climate change through the promotion of environmentally, friendly behavior. Education empowers men and women to make better life-choices and promotes gender equality. It yields higher returns – 11% to 30% more than investment in physical capital. (See table I below).

Education Level	Private rate of return	Social rate of return
Primary Schooling	26.4	20.6
Secondary Schooling	18.5	14.1
Higher Education	22.4	11.3

Table 1: Education in Low-income Countries Yield High Returns. (*Source: Mingat, A. and winter, C. (2002). Education for All by 2015. A Quarterly Magazine of the IMF, March Vol. 39, No. 1*

The Situation so far with EFA Goals in Developing Countries

There was sustainable improvement in the gross enrolment ratio in developing countries between 1960 and 1980. Thereafter, enrolment stagnated in Africa and universalizing primary education stagnated and declined in many developing countries in the 1990's. In 2000 gross enrolment increased but fewer children completed their schooling with only 6% of the children in developing countries having completed primary education. To gain a better insight into the level of goal achievement, each of the six goals will be discussed.

Goal 1: Early Childhood Care and Education

This goal is about expanding and improving comprehensive early childhood care and education especially for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged children.

Access, measured in terms of Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER), showed that some 23 developing countries had a GER of less than 30% by the year 2000; even then most of them had made gains compared to the situation in 1990. Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCE)-- GER for selected African countries in 2000 are: Djibouti (0.1), Burundi (0.5), Niger (1.3), Mali (1.6), Ethiopia (1.8), Togo (2.7), Cote d'Ivoire (3.2), Senegal (3.3), Algeria (4.2), Congo DRC (4.2), Uganda (4.2), Eritrea (5.3), Benin (6.2), Libya (7.8), Egypt (12.8), Cameroun (14.3). In 2006, pre-primary gross enrolment ratio averaged 36 percent in developing countries up to 14 percent in sub-Sahara Africa as opposed to 79 percent in developed countries.

Available data (see Table 2 below) shows that some developing countries are making slow progress towards the generalized provision of ECCE, and that this conclusion is also applicable to many other developing countries. For instance, African countries featured prominently on the list of countries providing some form of organized ECCE experience by the year 2000, which is ten years after the 1990 World Conference on Education for All in Jomtien, Thailand (28 African countries among the 46 for which data were available).

Country	Total (%)	36-47 months (%)	48-59 months (%)
Tunisia	46.7		
Equatorial Guinea	45.4	34.0	58.9
Lesotho	22.5	16.7	28.6
Sudan	20.2	16.2	24.8
Sao Tomé and Principé	18.2	14.4	22.7
The Gambia	16.3	11.2	22.3
Cameroun	15.4	9.7	21.3
Swaziland	14.7	8.5	16.3
Botswana	14.5	10.5	19.1
Comoros	14.3	9.9	19.3
Kenya	12.8	5.3	21.5
Sierra Leone	11.7	7.7	16.9
Togo	9.6	6.5	11.0
Senegal	8.1	7.5	8.8
Angola	6.6	5.0	8.6
Guinea Bissau	6.5	5.1	7.9
Egypt	6.4	2.6	10.7
Côte d' Ivoire	6.2	4.2	8.8
Madagascar	5.5	3.0	8.3
Burundi	4.6	3.6	5.9
Congo DRC	3.0	1.5	4.4
Central African Republic	2.7	1.8	3.8
Rwanda	2.6	1.4	3.9
Niger	2.5	1.6	3.5
Somalia	1.9	1.1	2.6
Chad	0.8	0.6	1.0

Table 2: Children Aged 36-59 Months Attending Some Form of Organized ECCE Program

One ready conclusion from Table 2 is that a greater proportion of children aged 48 to 59 months are engaged in organized ECCE activities than children aged 36 to 47 months. It appears that less formal ECCE learning is going on for which statistics are not available.

Africa and Central Asia rank abysmally low in terms of enrolment in organized ECCE programmes when compared with the rest of the world (See figure I below). The figure indicates that there could be some positive correlation between the state of socio-economic development and participation in GER programmes. Poverty is therefore, a likely explanation for poor participation by developing countries in ECCE.

There are major global disparities in enrolment between the world's richest and poorest countries. With increasing conflict in developing countries, fewer children enroll in schools. This goal is yet to be achieved as early child care and Education is not yet well expanded.
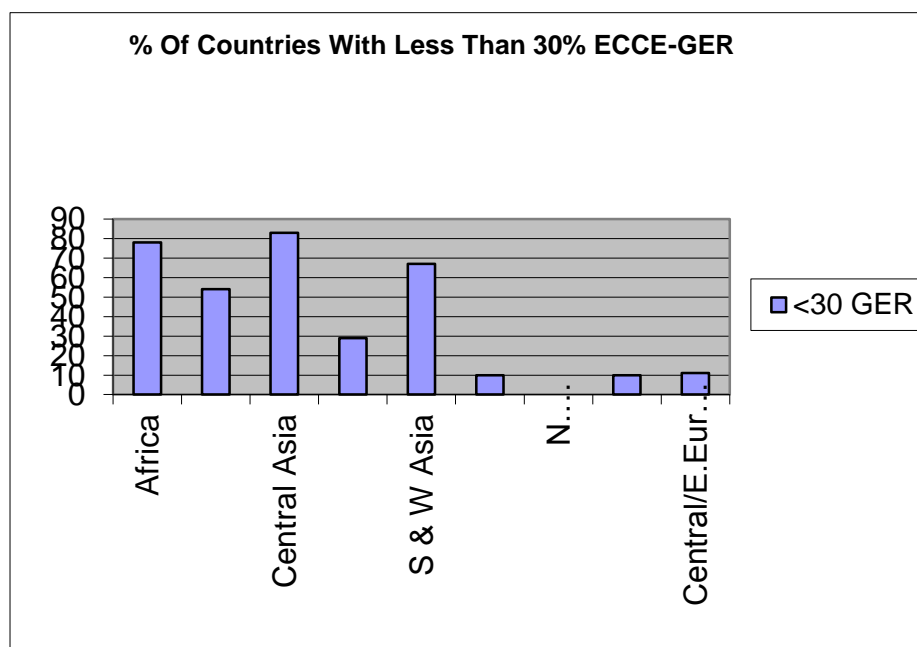
Fig. I: Level of Enrolment in Organized ECCE Program:% of Countries with less than 30% ECCE-GER

Goal 2: Universal Primary Education

This goal states that by 2015 all children, especially girls and those belonging to ethnic minorities have access to free primary education of acceptable quality.

For developing countries, the issues here are related to the broad coverage area of EFA Goal II. It is tempting to refer to it as "universal primary education" but it means a lot more than that. The emphasis here is on the expression "all children", and the term is there to draw special attention to (i) girls, (ii) children in difficult circumstances, and (iii) children from ethnic minority groups. The challenge here is that countries have to get every child into school, but most especially, every group should be adequately catered for. Thus, special needs education of different types would have to be developed to respond to different forms of 'difficult circumstances'. Enrolment patterns in primary education, in terms of NER and GER, are presented in Tables 3 and 4 respectively.

NER <50%	50%> NER <70%	70%> NER <90%	90%> NER <100%	Data not Available
Angola, Burkina Faso, Eritrea, Burundi, Guinea, Niger, Tanzania, Djibouti, Sudan	Chad, Comoros, Cote d'Ivoire, Gambia, Guinea Bissau, Lesotho, Madagascar, Mozambique, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Zambia.	Benin, Botswana, Equatorial Guinea, Namibia, Zimbabwe, Morocco	Mauritius, Rwanda, Togo, Swaziland, Algeria, Egypt, Tunisia	Cape Verde, Central Africa, Congo-Brazzaville, Cameroun, Congo DRC Ethiopia, Gabon, Ghana, Kenya, Liberia, Mali, Malawi, Nigeria, Sao Tome, Seychelles, Somalia, South Africa, Uganda, Libya, Mauritania.

Table 3: Classification of Countries According to NER level (1999)

GER <70%	70% >GER<100%	GER>100%	Data not Available
Angola, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Djibouti, Eritrea, Guinea, Niger, Sierra Leone, Sudan Tanzania,	Benin, Bissau, Cameroun, Chad, Congo, Cote d'Ivoire, Ethiopia, Egypt, Gambia, Guinea, Mauritania, Mozambique, Morocco Senegal, Zambia, Zimbabwe,	Algeria, Botswana, Equatorial Guinea, Gabon, Lesotho, Liberia, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Namibia, Rwanda, South Africa, Swaziland, Togo, Tunisia, Uganda,	Cape Verde, Central Africa, Congo DRC, Ghana, Kenya, Libya, Mali, Nigeria, Sao Tome, Seychelles, Somalia,

Table 4: Classification of Countries According to GER Levels (1999)

The tables show the clustering of the Net Enrolment Ratios (NERs) and Gross Enrolment Ratios (GERs) around the 70%> range. Compared with major regions of the world, developing countries have very low enrolment rates in primary education. (Figure 2 below)
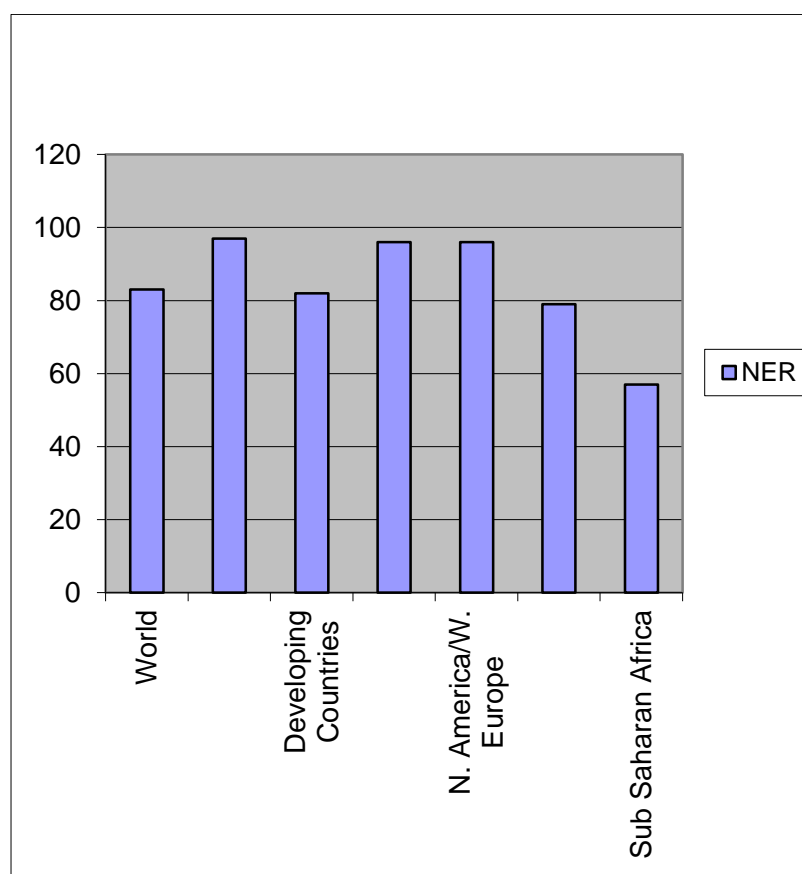
Fig. 2: Primary Net Enrolment Rates (1999)

The low GER and NER are an indication that primary education is still unavailable to large numbers of children in developing countries. Figure 2 shows that 34% of primary school-age children are do not attend school.

However, average net enrolment ratio has increased since year 2000 from 54 to 70 percent in sub-Sahara Africa. About 7.5 million, 55 percent girls are currently not attending school, half of which live in developing countries. In most developing countries, the repetition rate for boys tends to be higher than for girls. Also in some of those countries repetition is more common with boys while in others, the reverse is the case. Although lack of data makes it difficult to make generalize statements

about this for the developing countries, the fact remains that developing countries are lagging behind other regions of the world (except South Asia) in pursuing the goal of universal primary education. In addition, low enrolments (GER as low as 30% in some countries), GER that are even lower, high repetition and survival rates simply mean that they are still far from achieving Universal Primary Education goals. With this current trend, millions of children will still not be in school by the end of 2015 – the target date.

The point must, however, be made that there are variations amongst the countries, just as there are variations within countries. Generally speaking, countries such as Mauritius, South Africa, the countries of North Africa, and Namibia should have few lessons to share with the rest of the countries. On the whole, the goal is not yet achieved as education is not yet free and compulsory in most developing countries to get all children in school. There is need to delve more deeply into the facts behind the figures. What factors can explain the high dropout rates? Why do they reach a peak at specific levels of primary education? Why have conditions not really improved since the year 2000? Why statistics are still a problem? Probing further into these and other issues unearthed by the figures would be one way of giving concrete assistance to developing countries in their march towards EFA.

Goal 3: Learning and Life Skills for Youth and Adults

This aims at ensuring that the learning needs of all young people and adults are met through equitable access to appropriate learning and life skills programs.

The need for learning and life skills for youth and adult in developing countries can be seen from the nature of the region itself – generalized poverty, a youthful population, the failure of universal primary education, and the changing nature of the world of work. Most developing countries have not gone beyond the stage of merely issuing statements of intention in regard to promoting life skills education. In most cases, the perception of 'life skills' is still that of technical skills (in the form of hands-on experience), for 'productive' activities. They are yet to make a beginning in their march to attaining this goal. A lot of little things are happening. The need is felt, as youth restfulness is witnessed everywhere. However, concerted efforts are still a long way off. Generally, Governments in developing countries are not yet giving priority to youth and adult learning needs in their education policies. No strong political commitment and less public funding as well as absence of data seem to pose challenges. This Goal is, therefore, not achieved as many young people and adults who pass through educational institutions at all levels lack skills.

Goal 4: Adult Literacy

This means achieving a 50% improvement in levels of adult literacy by 2015, especially for women and equitable access to basic and continuing education for all adults.

The 2002 monitoring report affirms that illiteracy is concentrated in countries whose school systems are known to be weak. The report also predicts that a large number of developing countries (in keeping with global expectations) would have made some gains in literacy education by 2015 (Table 5).

Literacy Rate in 2000	Literacy rate in 2015			
	<50%	50-70%	70-90%	>90%
<50%	Burkina Faso, Mali, Mauritania, Niger	Benin, Burundi, Centrafrique, Chad, Cote D'Ivoire, Ethiopia, Gambia, Guinea-Bissau, Morocco, Mozambique, Senegal		
50-70%	Comoros, Egypt, Eritrea, Liberia	Comoros, Egypt, Eritrea, Liberia	Algeria, Congo, Djibouti, Madagascar, Malawi, Nigeria, Rwanda, Sudan, Togo, Uganda	
70-90%			Botswana, Cameroun, Cape Verde, Ghana, Lesotho, Libya, Mauritius, Swaziland, Tunisia, Tanzania, Zambia	Congo, Equatorial Guinea, Kenya, Namibia, South Africa, Zimbabwe
>90%				

Table 5: Progress Toward Literacy By Developing Countries (2000-2015)

As table 5 shows, developing countries are still likely to be lagging behind the world average for literacy attainment by the year 2015. This is in spite of the progress expected to be made during the one and a half decade of promoting EFA. One possible explanation here is the fact that three of the countries of Africa (Egypt, Ethiopia, and Nigeria) harbor large numbers of illiterates, in view of their large population sizes. Africa will still harbor 8% of the world's illiterates, as two of the three countries are likely to experience an increase in the number of illiterates as indicated in Table 6 below.

Table 6: Three High Population Countries: Evolution on Literacy Rates

COUNTRY	2000 (862 million world illiterates)	% Of world illiterates	2005 (799 million world illiterates)	% Of world illiterates
Egypt	17.24 million	2	23.97	3
Ethiopia	17.24 million	2	23.97	3
Nigeria	25.86 million	3	15.98	2
TOTAL	68.96 million	8	63.92	8

Women Literacy

Table 7 shows that women literacy rate reached over 70% by the year 2002 while nine countries still had rates between 30 and 49%, and nine others below 30%.

RANGE	COUNTRIES
>70%	Botswana, Congo, Equatorial Guinea, Kenya, Lesotho, Libya ,Mauritius, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland, Zambia, Zimbabwe
50-70%	Algeria, Cameroun, Cape Verde, DRC Congo, Egypt, Gambia, Madagascar, Nigeria, Mauritania, Morocco, Rwanda, Tanzania, Tunisia, Uganda
30-49%	Burundi, Central Africa Republic, Chad, Comoros, Cote D'Ivoire, Eritrea, Liberia, Malawi, Togo,
<30%	Angola, Burkina Faso, Bissau, Ethiopia, Gabon, Guinea Mali, Mozambique, Niger, Senegal

Table7: Categorization of Developing Countries According to Female Adult Literacy Rates (2002)

Youth Literacy

There is a distinction between youth and adult literacy, the former meaning persons aged 15-24 and the latter persons aged 25 and above. Generally speaking, and as is the case in other regions of the world, the rate of youth literacy in developing countries tend to be higher than adult literacy rates. Part of the explanation could be the spread of formal education in the past two decades. There are only three countries in which youth literacy is below 50%. A majority of the countries is in fact in the 70 to > 90% rate. See Table 8 below.

There are significant gender differences in youth literacy rates, according to the monitoring reports. Four countries (Kenya - 95.1% young women literates, Lesotho—98.1%, Namibia – 96.6%, and South Africa – 91.2%) had by 2000 higher literacy rates for young women than was the case for young men. Other countries within the 90% literacy range for young women are Libya (93%), Congo (96%), and Equatorial Guinea (95.4%).

On the other side of the scale are countries with relatively low rates of literacy for young women - Niger (13.8%), Burkina Faso (23.3%), Mali (25.1%), Benin (36%), Senegal 41%), Guinea Bissau (43.7%), and Ethiopia (48.7%). It is worrisome that there is still gender gap in literacy attainment among youth.

RANGE	COUNTRIES
<50%	Burkina Faso, Mali, Niger
< 50- >70%	Benin, Burundi, Central Africa Republic, Chad, Comoros, Ethiopia Gambia, Liberia, Mauritania, Mozambique, Senegal
<70- >90%	Botswana, Cote D'Ivoire, DRC Congo, Djibouti, Egypt, Guinea-Bissau, Morocco, Sudan, Togo, Tanzania, Zambia
>90%	Algeria, Cameroun, Cape Verde, Equatorial Guinea, Congo, Ghana, Kenya, Lesotho, Libya, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Namibia, Nigeria, Rwanda, South Africa, Swaziland, Uganda, Zimbabwe

Table 8: Categorization of African States According to Youth Literacy Rates

Literacy is still a serious problem in developing countries as little progress has been made in recent years to increase adult literacy. Over 700 million adults will be lacking literacy skills in 2015. Nearly all developing countries are off track in meeting adult literacy target of 50 percent by 2015. Many of them have literacy rates less than 55 percent (EFA Global Monitoring Report 2009). It is worrisome, as suggested by the monitoring reports, that a number of developing countries might increase the number of illiterates in their population, instead of reducing it by 50%, as envisaged by EFA. The task before the developing countries thus becomes intractable.

Hence this Goal is yet to be achieved and it raises a number of questions on the efficacy of the innumerable literacy projects mounted over the decades: To what extent have these projects addressed the real issues? What factors can explain their apparent lack of sustainability?

Goal 5: Gender Equality

This goal aims at eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, and achieving gender equality in education by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girls' full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality

Gender parity and gender equality in education mean different things. The first is purely numerical concept. Reaching gender parity in education implies that the same proportion of girls and boys –relative to their respective age groups – would enter the educational system and participate in its different cycles.

Gender equality, on the other hand, means that boys and girls would experience the same advantages or disadvantages in educational access, treatment, and outcomes. In so far as it goes beyond questions of numerical balance, equality is more difficult to define and measure than parity. (EFA Monitoring Report 2003/2004).

There is an overall gender parity index of 0.88 (based on Net Enrolment Ratio (NER)) and of 0.92 (based on Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER)) for developing countries in the year 2000. These are still far from the ideal figure of 1.00, already attained by the industrialized nations. They however represent an improvement on the 1990 figures, which were 0.83 and 0.86 respectively. Gender disparities in primary enrolment are overwhelmingly to the disadvantage of girls. Sub-Saharan Africa has low GERs and strong inequalities in enrolments. In one-third of the countries, female ratios are circa three quarters of the male ratio or less (e.g., Chad, Burkina Faso, Mali, Ethiopia, Guinea Bissau, Benin, Central Africa Republic, and Liberia) (Monitoring report, 2003-04).

Out-Of-School Children and The Gender Question

Developing countries account for two-thirds of out of school children, suggesting that some 29 million children will most likely not attend school in 2015 in developing countries. In terms of percentages, the proportion of out-of-school girls fell marginally from 64% in 1990 to 57% in 2000. The factor at play here appears to be rapid population growth, which furthermore, could impede progress towards the realization of EFA goals.

Gender and Illiteracy

61% of illiterates in developing countries were women in 1990. This estimated figure remained the same in 2000, and it is projected to remain the same in the year 2015. This is almost in keeping with global trends. The gender dimension of participation in secondary and tertiary education indicates as follows:

Access to secondary education in developing countries (gross enrolment rate of 22.9) is far below the world average. Moreover, it is the lowest worldwide: a reflection of the low level of access to primary education. With regards to tertiary education the situation is worse. With a gross enrolment rate of 2.5%, it is ten times below the world average. Gender parity indices (0.82 for secondary education and 0.47 for tertiary) are the lowest in the world. There remains wide disparities among the African countries in terms of female participation in secondary education

Countries in sub-Sahara Africa and other developing countries did not achieve gender parity by 2005, as compared to 37 percent of non-African countries worldwide that had achieved gender parity at the secondary level. Gender equality by 2015 is also farfetched for most if not all developing countries. Hence, gender equity and gender equality will remain the key to attaining EFA in developing countries. This goal is, therefore, yet to be achieved.

Goal 6: Ensuring Quality

This implies improving all aspects of quality education and ensuring excellence of all so that recognized and measurable learning outcomes are achieved by all, especially in literacy, numeracy and essential life skills.

Quality is really the factor that makes education useful, since the ultimate goal of an educational enterprise (both at the personal and social levels) is qualitative improvement. This is probably the rationale for the emphasis on "quality" in each of the six EFA goals. This also holds for its goal number six, which brings quality very much to the fore.

Expected Years of Schooling

With an average of 7.1 years (compared with a world average of 10.3) Sub Saharan Africa and the rest of the developing countries remain a region in which the average child does not have enough of schooling to acquire and consolidate the basic skills that could enhance life quality.

Teacher-Pupil Ratio

Report (Obanya, 2005) indicates that 20 of some 57 developing countries have class sizes of 45 and above. Considering that this situation is also compounded by poor facilities (and the poverty of other contextual factors) the quality of teaching and learning definitely suffers. Generally, inequality exists between regions, communities, schools and classrooms in developing countries. There are large national and regional disparities in pupil/teacher ratios, with marked teacher shortages. Many essential resources taken for granted in developed countries remain scarce in developing countries – basic infrastructure such as electricity, seats, textbooks and so on.

Funding of Education

On funding, the GDP spent on education is low. For instance, it stands at 3.6% for Sub Saharan Africa, East Africa/Pacific (3.9). This indicates that developing countries might be overstretching their resources already on education. The issue, however, is that of efficient spending, for it is on that that quality really depends. Funding remains critical resource for improving quality of education in developing countries as this is limited. Learning achievement has not met the desired level as there is substantially high proportion of low learning achievements. This goal is not yet achieved as the quality of education in most developing countries leaves so much to be desired.

Challenges to Achieving EFA in Developing Countries

There are some challenges to the achievement of EFA in developing countries. The challenges can be grouped under the following sub-headings:

Socio-Economic factors

Many parents are poor and find it difficult to send their children to school due to the financial demands in terms of school fees, levies, cost of books, uniforms and transport among other costs. Hence children from such parents are given out to be used as house helps in return for money. In addition, many parents are concerned about the opportunity costs of sending their children to school. Furthermore, settlements in sparsely populated areas do not have enough children population to attract the establishment of schools. In other cases, available schools are too far for children in settlements in remote areas. The non achievement of EFA is even more compounded with very limited employment opportunities for school leavers.

Cultural factors

The perception of Western education as incompatible with traditional beliefs and cultural practices as well as skeptical attitudes towards the benefits of education poses serious challenges to EFA in the developing countries.

Political and Institutional factors

The political crises and civil war in many developing countries have resulted in huge refugee problem for many families with their children's educational opportunities being affected. It is worthy of note that the educational systems of some of the countries are ill-adapted to local learning needs. The introduction of school meals policy to attract children to school have become politicized and marred by corrupt practices, which have led to the partial or non-implementation of the policy. We note that people are not held accountable and brought to justice for such lapses and so, the challenge adversely affects attendance to school by many children.

Funding factors

Governments at all levels in many developing countries do not give the education sector the desired priority in their budgetary allocation. For instance, public spending on education ranges from less than 2 percent of the GNP such as in Chad, Guinea and Guatemala to 10 percent in Botswana, Namibia and Nigeria. However, inadequate budgetary allocation does not seem to be the only problem in view of the fact that allocations are not judiciously spent. In addition to this, the private sector

has not provided adequate partnership with governments in the provision of the needed funds for education.

Factors linked to School

There are limited number of school buildings, many of which are dilapidated and unsafe, resulting in over-crowded classrooms and inadequate school facilities. The school environments are poor with many lacking portable water and toilets for both boys and girls. Absence of school canteens or feeding facilities provides a challenge. Furthermore, children's school fees are not affordable by many poor parents. In some developing countries, attendance to school is seasonal as the school calendar is incompatible with farming and fishing cycles during which the children assist their parents. The existing schools have under qualified and underpaid teachers who lack motivation to deliver quality teaching that will attract and keep children in schools. Also, the illiteracy rates for adult women in many developing countries are as high as 80 per cent. Undoubtedly, this has a negative impact on the achievement of Education For All goals.

Recommendations

With the foregoing discussion, recommendations are hereby made for improved management of EFA in developing countries.

In order to increase the enrolment rates and improve retention and completion rates to at least 80 per cent, it is important to establish additional schools. These schools should be located within reasonable distance to the children's homes.

There is a need for governments at all levels to reduce the direct costs of education to parents. They can do this by increasing their budgetary allocation for education. More importantly they should monitor the implementation of allocated funds with the aim to ensure proper usage in order to achieve desired results. Efficient use of available resources is critical. Donors should be encouraged to provide support for sector wide programme implementation rather than finance specific projects that may not be far reaching in achieving the Education for All goals.

The need for trained teachers who should receive regular training cannot be overemphasized. In addition provisions for adequate learning materials and physical facilities and Information Communication Technology (ICT) needed to complement teaching and learning should receive greater attention.

There is need for strong, transparent leadership in developing countries. This should contribute in reducing corruption which militates against the provisions for the achievement of increased enrolment in schools.

Educational resources should be allocated equitably and efficiently across localities and individual schools.

Each developing country needs to pursue a strategy best suited to its situation, if it is to achieve Education for All goals within a reasonable and sustainable financing framework.The provision of quality primary education to all the citizens of developing countries is a critical cornerstone in achieving economic growth.

Conclusion

Over the past decade and half, access to education has been expanding in developing countries. Innovative literacy programs are transforming the lives of thousands of their people. Mobile tent schools for nomadic herder communities in Nigeria and Mongolia are provided. Despite these positive gains, there is an estimated 56 million children still unenrolled in 2015, half of which are girls However, it is not a 'no progress' situation in relationship to the pursuit of EFA. A number of developing countries appear to be on track. It would be of great value to many these countries, if the factors responsible for the relative success were to be studied in greater depth, with emphasis on measures that yield the outcome for improved management.

Educational deprivation in developing countries is a reality. EFA is itself a response to that reality. Whether or not the global EFA momentum has set developing countries on the path of 'educational recovery' is however difficult to ascertain. More importantly, developing countries need to be aware of the enormity of the tasks involved in the management of EFA for the achievement of its goals.

References

Education for All Monitoring Report (2003/2004). *Gender Parity in Primary Education.* Page 44.

Education for All (EFA) (2009). *Global Monitoring Report.*

Education for All (2013/14). *Global Monitoring Report*

Mingat, A. and Winter, C. (2002). *Education for All by 2015.* A Quarterly Magazine of the IMF, March Vol. 39, No. 1

Obanya, PAI (2005). *Africa's March towards EFA.* An unpublished paper on the Report by *Education for All international monitoring committee, 2002 – 2005.*

Effects of Instructional Materials on Students' Achievement in Social Studies in Lower Basic Education in Nigeria

Ntasiobi C.N.Igu[1], Francisca N. Ogba[2], Iheanyi O. Igwe[3]

1 Department of Social Studies,
Ebonyi State College of Education, Ikwo
2 Department of Educational Foundations,
Ebonyi State College of Education, Ikwo
3 Department of Science Education
Ebonyi State University, Abakaliki

Abstract

This study was carried out to ascertain the Effects of Instructional Materials on Students' Achievement in Social Studies in Lower Basic Education in Nigeria using Ebonyi State College of Education Ikwo Staff School and Christ the King Primary School, Ikwo as the case study. The design of the study was quasi experimental. The population of the study comprised all the students in primary five of the two schools used for the study totaling two hundred (200). Due to the smallness of the number, no sampling was carried out on the population. However, simple random sampling technique was applied to choose the experimental and control groups. The instrument for data collection was Social Studies Achievement Test (SSAT) questionnaire. It contained a twenty (20) item multiple choice questions based on the topics selected for the study. The face and content validity of the instrument was ascertained by three experts-two from Social Studies Department, Ebonyi State College of Education, Ikwo and one from Measurement and Evaluation Unit of Faculty of Education in Ebonyi State University, Abakaliki. Kuder Richardson -20 statistic was used to test the reliability of the instrument and it yielded 0.80 which was deemed high enough for the study. The research questions were analyzed using adjusted mean and standard deviation. Analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was used to test the null hypotheses. The result revealed that those taught with instructional materials performed significantly better than those taught without instructional materials. Significant cases were assessed using multiple classification analysis to determine contribution of each treatment to the level of significance. Based on this finding, it was recommended that instructional materials should be used in the teaching of Social Studies since it enhances students' performance.

Keywords: Effects, Instructional Materials, Achievement, Social Studies

Introduction

One of the innovations in the Nigerian educational system is the introduction of several new subjects at different levels of education. The Social Studies programme is one of such curriculum innovations since it is relatively new in the school curriculum. Orakwe (2000) refers to Social Studies instructional materials as information repositories from the society sourced to transfer the desired information to the learners during classroom instruction. Agwu (2001) views instructional materials as those apparatus of teaching which may include textbooks, workbooks, charts, audio visual aids, chemicals, specimens and other relevant things that will attract student s' attention, and which should only be introduced at the appropriate time by the teacher. Simply put, instructional materials are those which a teacher puts into use to promote the effectiveness of instructions and which also helps him/her to communicate more effectively to the learners. Social Studies is a subject that aims at helping students who are creative, patriotic, responsible and are able to contribute to the development of the nation (Ezegbe, 2008). Okojie (2005) supportively maintained that the ultimate goal of Social Studies is to equip individuals with knowledge and understanding for effective relationships and living. Due to its usefulness in national development, it has gained wide acceptance to the extent of becoming one of the core subjects at the basic education level.

In spite of the importance of Social Studies in national development and the efforts of stakeholders to encourage the study of the subject, students have continued to show poor achievement (Agara, 2010). Omabe (2006) agreed that students' achievement in social studies leaves much to be desired. Nonetheless, a number of factors have been attributed to poor achievement in junior certificate examination in social studies. One of such factors is non-use of instructional materials. Social studies according to Igu (2012) is an activity based subject and therefore depends on instructional materials utilization for effective teaching. Omabe (2006) asserted that instructional materials are central in the teaching and learning of social studies because no matter the efficiency of a teacher, effectiveness in lesson delivery cannot be guaranteed without the use of instructional materials. Esu, Enukoha and Umoren (2004) affirmed that instructional materials facilitate learning of abstract concepts by helping to concretize ideas and stimulate learners' imagination. Moreover, instructional materials help to increase active participation in the learning process while saving teacher energy, reducing the verbal instructions. In the same vein, Mathew (2012) stated that the use of instructional materials make teaching effective as it enables learners to participate actively in classroom instruction. All these views suggest that the use of instructional materials bring about improved students' performance.

However, in a clear departure from the above views, Orji (2012) and Ekpe (2010) in their independent studies, agreed that instructional materials are not necessarily important if the learners are intelligent and the teacher has good mastery of the subject matter. Egbu (2012) argued that involving learners in classroom activities is what matters most as it makes teaching learner centered. He further maintained that involving learners in classroom activities helps learners to discover new knowledge and gain new insights. From the views of the scholars cited above, there is a strong argument on the place of instructional materials in the teaching of social studies to improve students' achievement hence the need for this study.

Literature search has revealed that, a number of studies have been done on the various aspects of instructional materials. Eke (2010) carried out a survey study on the roles of instructional materials in teaching social studies in primary schools in the Isukwato Local Government Area of Abia State. The finding showed that instructional materials make abstract ideas concrete and easier to understand. Arisi (1998) carried out a study on the usage of instructional materials by social studies teachers in junior secondary schools in Oredo Local Government Area of Edo State. In this study female teachers were found to use instructional materials more frequently than the male social studies teachers. The finding equally showed that female teachers are more predisposed than the male teachers in terms of the improvisation of instructional materials. Williams (2004) conducted a study on the extent of utilization of instructional facilities in secondary schools in the Gboko Education Zone of Benue State, which found that instructional facilities appear to be inadequate. Nwafor (2012) carried out a study on the availability and utilization of social Studies instructional materials in secondary schools in Onueke Education Zone of Ebonyi State. According to this study, instructional materials were available but little utilized. Ifeaka (2005) studied the influence of the production and utilization of instructional materials on students' attitude to chemistry in Anambra State. The results revealed that chemistry teachers tend to show a poor attitude towards the production of instructional materials.

The above reviewed works have a relationship with the present study as they all focused on some aspect of instructional materials; however they also differed significantly from the present study in content and geographical scope, hence, creating a gap in knowledge in terms of achievement. The interest to fill this existing gap in knowledge is the premise on which this study stands, which is to determine the effects of instructional materials on students' achievement in social studies.

Problem Statement

The activity based nature of social studies makes it difficult for the subject to be taught effectively without instructional materials. But research findings that indicate poor achievement of students in social studies seem to suggest that instructional materials may not have been properly utilized during instruction and this is a source of worry to the researchers considering its possible effects on students' achievement in the subject. The problem of this study therefore is: what could be the effect of instructional materials on students' achievement in social studies?

Research Questions

The study was guided by the following research questions.
1.	What is the mean achievement scores of students in social studies when taught with instructional materials and when taught without instructional materials?
2.	What is the achievement scores of male and female students when taught with instructional materials and when taught without instructional materials.

Hypotheses

HO_1:	There is no significant difference in the mean achievement of students when taught with instructional materials and when taught without instructional materials.

HO_2:	There is no significant difference in the mean achievement of male and female students when taught with instructional materials and when taught without instructional materials.

Methodology

The design adopted in the study was quasi-experimental. Specifically, a pre-test and post-test control group design was implemented . The design involved students from intact classes. The study made use of the experimental group and the control group. The experimental group was taught with instructional materials while the control group was taught without instructional materials. The population of the study was comprised of two hundred primary five students made up of eighty (80) students for the control group and one hundred and twenty (120) students in the experimental group. The students were from Ebonyi State College of Education , Ikwo Staff School and Christ the King Primary School, Ndiufu Alike, Ikwo in Onueke Education Zone of Ebonyi State. No sampling was carried out due to the small number of the population. However simple random sampling was carried out to select the experimental and control groups. The instrument for data collection was an achievement test titled Social Studies Achievement Test (SSAT), which was a 20 item multiple choice questions developed by the researchers and based on the selected topics from primary five social studies curriculum. The face and content validity of the instrument was ascertained by 3 experts –two from Social Studies Department of Ebonyi State College of Education, Ikwo and one from Measurement and Evaluation Unit of Science Education Department of Ebonyi State University, Abakaliki. Their corrections and input were applied to make the instrument valid. The reliability of the instrument was determined using Kuder Richardson -20 statistic, which yielded a reliability index of 0.80 hence proving to be an adequate instrument for the study.

The research questions were answered using an adjusted mean and standard deviation, while the hypotheses were tested using an analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA). Significant cases were assessed by means of multiple classification analysis to determine the contribution of each treatment level to the significance.

Experimental Procedure

Before the commencement of the experiment, the researchers sought approval from the Schools' Management and regular class teachers; and explained the purpose of the study and treatment implementation. Based on this need, the same lesson periods were approved for social studies in the Schools for the study within the experimental period. A pre-test on social studies achievement on the selected topics for the experiment were administered by the teachers to ascertain the level of achievement of students. After the pre-test, the regular social studies teachers commenced the experiment in their respective schools, adhering strictly to the lesson plans written by the researchers. The experimental group was provided with all the necessary instructional materials needed for teaching the topics such as: charts, pictures, video clips, etc. The experiment lasted for four weeks after which the same instrument was re-administered on the two groups as post-test.

Results

Research Question 1

What are the achievement scores of students in social studies when taught with instructional materials and when taught without instructional materials?

Table 1: Mean Results of Students based on instructional Materials

Variable	No	Adj. Mean	S
With instructional material	120	66.88	8.5
Without instructional material	80	34.85	11.50

The results revealed that students taught with instructional materials had an adjusted mean of 66.88 as against 34.85 scored by the students taught without instructional materials. This means that students taught with instructional materials achieved better scores than those taught without instructional materials.

Research Question 2

What is the achievement score of male and female students taught with instructional materials and when taught without instructional materials?

Table 2: Mean Results of Male and Female Students Taught with Instructional Materials and when Taught without Instructional Materials

Variable	Male			Female		
	No	Mean	SD	No	Mean	SD
With instructional material	58	63.46	9.09	62	70.08	8.70
Without instructional material	41	39.56	10.38	39	29.89	12.79

The results in Table 2 revealed that female students taught with instructional materials had 70.08 whereas the male students taught with instructional materials scored an average of 63.46; while on those taught without instructional materials, males had mean achievement scores of 39.56 as compared with 29.89 achieved by females. It appears that females taught with instructional materials achieved better results than males taught with instructional materials. On the other hand males taught without instructional materials achieved better than females taught without instructional materials.

HO$_1$: There is no significant difference in the mean achievement of students in social studies when taught with instructional materials and when taught without instructional materials.

Table 3: ANCOVA Results based on Instructional Materials

Source of variation	Sum of squares	Df	Mean square	f-cal	Sig of F	f-crit
Covariates	4679.438	1	4679.438	39.995	.000	
Pretest	4679.438	1	4679.438	39.995	.000	
Main effect	44576.317	1	44576.317	380.990	.000	
Instructional materials	44576.317	1	44576.317	380.990	.000	3.84
Explained	49255.755	2	24627.877	210.492	.000	
Residual	23048.265	197	117.001			
Total	72305.020	197	363.342			

Significant at P<0.05

Hypothesis 1 states that there is no significant difference in the mean achievement of students when taught with instructional materials and those taught without instructional materials. From the results in Table 3, F-cal is greater than F-crit. (380.990>3.84) at 0.05 alpha level. Hence HO$_1$ is not accepted. This implies that

there is a significant difference in the mean achievement of students taught with instructional materials and those taught without instructional materials. Since HO_1 is significant, multiple classification analysis is carried out to determine the level of contribution of each variable (with and without instructional materials) to the significant.

Table 4: Multiple Classification Analysis Results
Grand mean = 54-07.

Variable + Category	N	Unadjusted Dev,n	Eta	Unadjusted for independents + covariates dev.n	Beta
With instructional materials	120	12.81		12.79	
Without instructional materials	80	-19.22	.83	-19.19	.82
Multiple R squared					.681
Multiple R					.825

Based on the results of Multiple Classification Analysis (MCA), using instructional materials, an adjusted mean of 67.86 was scored, while not using instructional materials had an adjusted mean of 34.84. Therefore using instructional materials to teach social studies is facilitated significantly with better scores than when not using instructional materials.

HO_2: There is no significant difference in the mean achievement of male and female students in social studies when taught with instructional materials and without instructional materials.

Table 5: ANCOVA Achievement Result in Social Studies based on Gender

Source of variation	Sum of squares	Df	Mean square	f-cal	Sig of F	f-crit
Covariates	61679.438	1	4679.438	13.632	.000	
Pretest	61679.438	1	4679.438	13.632	.000	
Main effect	2.841	1	2.841	.008	-928	
Gender	2.841	1	2.841	.008	-928	3.84
Explained	4682.278	2	2341.139	6.820	.001	
Residual	67622.742	197	343.263			
Total	72305.020	197	363.342			

Not significant at $P < 0.05$

HO_2 states that there is no significant difference in the mean achievement of male and female students when taught with instructional materials and when taught without instructional materials. From the result of data analysis in Table 5, the null hypothesis was not rejected because the F-crit of 3.84 is greater than F-cal of .008.

Discussion

Results in Table 1 showed that students taught with instructional materials performed better than those taught without instructional materials. This finding is supported by the findings of Esu, Enukoha and Umoren (2004) that instructional materials facilitate learning of abstract concepts by helping students to concretize ideas and also stimulate their imagination. This finding equally lends credence to the view of Mathew (2012) who had earlier stated that the use of instructional materials make teaching effective as it enables learners to participate actively in classroom instruction, which subsequently leads to improved achievement.

Results in Table 2 showed the mean results of male and female students taught with instructional materials and those taught without instructional materials. The

finding of the study that the females performed better than the males suggests that females are more receptive to the use of instructional materials than the males. This finding may help to explain Arisi (1998) who found that female teachers are more willing to use instructional materials than the male teachers and also that female teachers are more pre-disposed to improvising instructional materials. It appears that gender sensitivity may have played an important role in female students' ability to achieve higher scores through instructional materials than male students.

The significant difference in the testing of hypothesis one (HO_1) establishes the fact that instructional materials are indispensable for teaching and learning. This finding is supported by the findings of Eke (2010) in his study on the roles of instructional materials in the teaching of social studies. His study revealed that instructional materials make abstract concepts become concrete.

The finding of the study that there is no significant difference in the mean achievement of male and female students when taught with instructional materials and when taught without instructional materials supports the views of Orji (2012) and Ekpe (2010) who reported that the intelligent quotient and teaching methods are major factors in students' achievement.

Educational Implications

The findings of this study have implications for the effectiveness of social studies teaching and learning in primary education level. The study has shown that instructional materials facilitate the teaching of social studies. The implication is that performance is enhanced when teachers use different types of instructional materials when teaching all subjects and particularly social studies.

Recommendation and Conclusion

Based on the findings of this study, it is recommended that instructional materials for the teaching of social studies should be made adequately available by the relevant stakeholders. Teachers should ensure that available instructional materials are put into maximum use during class instruction. The study therefore concluded that instructional materials are indispensable in the teaching of social studies for improvement in students' achievement.

References

Agara, M.O. (2010). Effects of concept mapping on students achievement in social studies. *Unpublished Research Project.* Ebonyi State University, Abakaliki.

Agwu, S.N. (ed) (2001). Teaching in Nigeria. A dynamic approach. Enugu: Cheston Nigeria Ltd.

Akubue, F.N. (2005). Curriculum and instructional material utilization in teaching social studies in primary schools in Nigeria. *In Journal of Curriculum and Media Technology Research* (JOCOMETER) 1(1) 96 – 100.

Arisi, R.O. (1998). The use of instructional materials by social studies teachers in secondary schools in Oredo Local Government Area of Edo State. *In Journal of Social Studies* 1, 18 – 24.

Egbu, N.C. (2012). Approach to teaching methodologies. Abakaliki: Bolton Publishers Ltd.

Eke, C.N. (2010). Roles of instructional material in teaching social studies in primary schools in Isukwato Local Government Area of Abia State. *Unpublished NCE Project.* Ebonyi State College of Education, Ikwo.

Esu, A.E., Enukoha, O.I. & Umoren, G.U. (2004). Curriculum development in Nigeria for Colleges and Universities. Owerri: Whyte and Whyte Publishers.

Ezegbe, B.N. (2008). State of the art in social studies delivery at junior secondary school education system. Implication for quality assurance. In B.G. Nworgu (ed). Education reforms and the attainment of the millennium development goals (MDGs): The Nigerian experience. Nsukka: University Trust Publishers.

Igu, N.C.N. (2012). Availability, utilization and maintenance of instructional materials for the effective teaching of social studies in secondary schools in Afikpo Education Zone of Ebonyi State. *Unpublished M.Ed Dissertation* Abia State University Uturu.

Okojie, M.U. (2005). The importance of social studies to a Nigerian child. *Journal of the National Association of Science,* Humanities and Education Research 3(2) 138 – 145.

Omabe, C.C. (2006). Instructional materials for social studies education in Nigeria. Abakaliki: Willy Rose and Apple seed publishers.

Orakwe, I.T.C. (2000). Social studies education basics for tertiary institutions. Warri: Genteel Publishing Company.

Orji, E.N. (2012). Need for using instructional materials in junior secondary schools in Afikpo North. *Unpublished NCE Project* Ebonyi State College of Education Ikwo.

Williams, K.P. (2004). Community participation in fining of education in Nigeria. Paper presented at ANCOPSS Conference held at Hilltop Hotel, Jos. February 12 – 14.

Student Readiness for ICT Learning: A Case Study Investigation in a Large Multi-National ICT Organization

Mohamed Kazi and Khalid Samara
Sharjah Higher Colleges of Technology (UAE), Computer Information Science Faculty

Abstract

The increase of Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) in higher education means that student's readiness plays a critical role for the success of ICT. Readiness towards learning new technologies can be seen as an indicator of the organization's capacity to successfully make changes. This study explores the factors that affect student's readiness towards ICT learning when implementing new technologies in higher educational institutions within fast developing nations. The study undertook a single case study design using multiple qualitative sources of evidence within a large multi-national ICT organization to investigate the perceptions of student's readiness level. Two major themes were identified to inhibit or support a student's readiness towards ICT learning. Both major themes ascertain that, without persuasive communication between the organization and between individuals, can result in uncertainty (or lack of awareness) about a change.

Key Words: ICT, Readiness, Higher Education

Introduction

Both the empirical and anecdotal literature suggests that the main barrier to deploying change strategically is the people, and people are critical in successful organizational change (Samara & Raven, 2014). In most cases, organizational change occurs via the individual (Bercovitz & Fieldman, 2008). Similarly, most organizations that develop and implement successful Information Communication and Technology (ICT) initiatives see learning as an inherently valuable part of the business process (Turvani, 2001; Klimoski & Mohammed, 1994). Consequently, in higher education, ICT initiatives present a new type of conundrum where there is a need to closely interconnect human-resources and the person's knowledge to identify the most effective approaches to achieve change. Technology change not only facilitates desired or planned outcomes but also consists of unforeseen or unexpected outcomes (Scholl, 2003; Samara & Raven, 2014). Consequently, the organization and the individuals in it that must undergo a change, will ultimately impact on their readiness behaviors (Patel et al., 2010a; 2010b). This often hinges on people's cognition, where a strong element of cooperation and reliance upon human behaviours to change is needed (Patel et al., 2010a; 2010b). Most importantly, there is much support of the view that the tendency to resist change lies within the individuals who are experiencing the change (Oreg, 2006; Judge et al., 1999; Weick & Quinn, 1999).

This study explores the factors that affect student's readiness towards ICT learning when implementing new change initiatives in higher educational institutions within fast developing nations. The study undertook a single case study design using multiple qualitative sources of evidence within a large multi-national ICT organization to investigate the perceptions of student's readiness level. To understand the various interpretations, meanings, and patterns of the different influential factors supporting or inhibiting readiness for learning requires a review of the concepts underlying the readiness construct. After presenting the literature, this study will discuss the proposed methodology undertaken and the findings arising from the data collected.

Readiness for learning

There is a growing body of literature on readiness that takes as its premise that readiness is central to the effort of making organizational change (George & Jones 2001, Armenakis et al., 1993 Judge et al., 1999, Prochaska et al., 2001). The origin of readiness lies in Lewin's (1948) concept of 'unfreezing' moving and freezing behaviour' as three sequential factors to successful change. In Lewins' model, unfreezing is the initial stage in the change process. To change, an organization requires confronting the current situation and creating readiness by delivering planned behavioral changes toward the desired change. Lewin's component of readiness defines the process of change in the existing 'mind-set of individuals' that can lead members to become ready to participate in the change process.

Social learning theory argues that individuals tend to direct events that have an effect on their lives, because of the myriad personal and social benefits (Bandura, 1998; 1986). Learning generates greater awareness about the change (Samara and Raven, 2014) and developing readiness has been proposed as a major solution for reducing resistance (Armenakis et al., 2007; Jones et al., 2005; Lehman et al., 2002; Prochaska et al., 2001; Armenakis et al., 1993; Kotter, 1995; Lewin, 1948). Armenakis et al., (1993) suggests that readiness consists of 'people's beliefs, attitudes and intentions' regarding the extent to which changes are needed can then lead to the individuals support for or resistance to the change initiative. George and Jones (2001) found that people's interpretation of change can influence

their understanding of it, which in turn can exert a mediating effect on other individual's readiness-for change. People's perceptions are "significantly predicted by perceptions of their organizations social interaction, culture and by their management's support for knowledge sharing" (Connelly & Kelloway, 2003).

Further, in the field of information systems there have been few attempts to study the concept of readiness, and to date, in the information systems literature there is little on how change at the individual level should be initiated practically (Patel et al., 2010a; 2010b; Holt et al., 2007). This apparent knowledge gap is partly due to the fact that concepts and theories from the organizational change field such as readiness-for change, are not explicitly utilised in the information systems literature to demonstrate the change processes that are inherently involved in the planning of ICT initiatives. In this respect, any preconceived notions of change are also likely to be transmittable to other members in the change phenomena (Quinn, 1996). Similarly, Erez and Gati, (2004) suggested that individual level interpretations at lower levels are likely to be impacted by "higher-level knowledge bases". They add that such phenomenon depends on the level of homogeneity (accounts of social practices), in people's perceptions and beliefs.

Understanding such behavioural origins or roots of individuals' reactions to change is integral to understanding how to manage and support employees going through learning in an organization. Thus, this study suggests that such micro level factors can inhibit or support an individual readiness and subsequently have an impact on their readiness for learning.

Method

The study is qualitative in nature and incorporated the use of a single case study methodology undertaken in a large multinational ICT company. The aim of the study was to establish the perceptions of student's readiness towards learning whilst adopting new ICT initiatives. The data was collected using interview techniques on twelve research participants. Semi-structured interviews were conducted on undergraduate students to explore the readiness for learning behaviours during ICT initiatives. These were conducted for over a period of five days to capture the participants' readiness perceptions towards learning new emerging ICT technologies. A survey was also conducted post-training to capture the participants' view in an unobtrusive manner. During the case study two faculty members were involved as participants. The primary role of the faculty was to observe the learning behaviours of students during and after the training period and to observe students reactions towards emerging ICT technologies. These observations were intended to capture the participant's reactions throughout the practical and theoretical activities. Both faculty members transcribed the interview notes independently to reduce bias and obtain a more honest and valid understanding of the participants' behaviours. These observed behaviours were discoursed on a daily basis and were used to develop a contextual background of the concluding survey and interview questions.

Furthermore, the faculty members' secondary objective was to determine the feasibility of incorporating new emerging ICT initiatives into the learning and assessment processes at the higher education institute. This involved exploring opportunities in ways that would enhance the teaching and learning especially in subjects that required technical hands on learning activities.   The higher educational institute currently faces many issues relating to the teaching and learning of technical content. These issues include and relate to the delivery of assessments, consistency between campuses, assessing practical work, teaching technical content and many others. The ICT company had numerous ICT initiatives that could potentially alleviate these issues and this study was a preliminary platform to survey and learn

about these. It would also identify the readiness of the college to adopt new and emerging ICT initiatives.

ICT Initiatives explored

Many large ICT companies in the UAE are demanding that students are well equipped for the work environment and that they have the necessary skills to seamlessly integrate into the work environment. Whether this is from the perspective of having sufficient knowledge and expertise with ICT systems integral to the UAE or being well versed with work place ethics, it is clear that more collaboration between industry and the university is required. The university chancellor acknowledged this by iterating that he wanted stronger collaboration between the university, industry and the community. The trip was designed to meet these objectives and was focused on establishing a strong collaboration between the university, industry and UAE based ICT companies. Other objectives of the trip are discussed below.

This study will determine the readiness of UAE students at HCT to adopt new learning approaches and their readiness to adopt new ICT initiatives. One technique to do this was to expose students to ICT learning methods used by a particular multinational ICT company. Students are familiar with semester long, university style ICT learning approaches but have no exposure or experience in industry based ICT learning. This learning approach will play an important part throughout their careers since ICT is a rapidly evolving area in the UAE industry and ICT skills need to be continuously updated. The motive for selecting this particular ICT company lies in the fact that this company has a huge market share and influence in the UAE.

This study would also determine the suitability of incorporating industry based ICT learning methods into the existing HCT bachelor degree programs and the readiness of the university to do this. The proposed idea was to incorporate this learning method into some of the ICT courses and implement new ICT initiatives to support this. It has become evident from UAE based industry that this is integral to the success of the university and a clear push to establish this is evident. During the semester students would be required to attend an industry lead ICT learning event focused on specific areas. This would engage students with industry and new ICT initiatives and equip them with current industry specific skills and knowledge. The students would then be required to engage and search for local businesses that require specific ICT solutions. Once a suitable business is located the students, in collaboration with the ICT Company, the university and the business, would design, implement and test specific solutions. This necessitates a novel approach to learning and a radical rethink of the structure of the programmes at HCT but before such dramatic changes can be made a feasibility and readiness study needs to be carefully conducted.

It is also necessary to identify the current services and tools intended to support ICT on a daily basis within the organization especially in the area of teaching and learning. In this research the available systems that were identified from the participants' point of view were cloud computing, enterprise and cloud storage, LTE and mobile technologies. Research participants also reported that the organization had undergone significant changes and a number of systems needed to be updated or implemented. These include access to data relating to the organization's routine operations such as, student and faculty records, learning and assessments, research data and a plethora of websites that the universities uses to conduct business.

HCT has also acknowledged the need to centralise resources, teaching and learning and certain assessments. There are 17 campuses and the Computer Science department was recently restructured to one division across the 17 campuses. This has led to some issues

which specifically relate to the delivery of learning, assessments, moderation and collaboration. New and emerging ICT technologies possess the potential to alleviate these problems and a private cloud solution was identified as one possible alternative. Other ICT initiatives include smart classrooms, interactive online learning solutions and Virtual Desktop Infrastructure technologies. However, adopting these solutions would require a significant change in the attitudes of the participants and the university. There is also a possibility that resistance could manifest itself and lead to the failure of these initiatives so a thorough study was required to gather the perceptions and readiness of staff to adopt these ICT technologies.

Findings

A significant contribution was made by the ICT Company to the students' adoption of new learning techniques and to their acceptance of new and emerging ICT technologies. This was instigated by learning that engaged the students in a fun and practical way and by using realistic simulations based on real world environments. However, we found gaps in the way the theory was presented to the students. We concluded that when students were engaged in the practical activities they readily accepted new ICT technologies. Furthermore, we realized that during formal lectures their perceptions and acceptance of new ICT initiatives diminished. This was caused by many factors. Language was a barrier for both the students and the ICT company trainers as English was a second language for both parties. Although this didn't cause a significant problem it did impede learning and understanding especially during theoretical lectures. This left a bad impression on the students as they connected the way the lectures were presented to the companies ICT technologies, society and culture. This lead to a resistance in accepting new technologies and this resistance was observed and documented principally during the presentations (lectures). This resistance was not necessarily biased towards emerging ICT but more focused on technologies from this ICT company. This confirmed that the perceptions of UAE students are important and play a key part in the adoption of new technologies.

The duration of the lectures and lab activities and intensity of the program tired the students and slowly developed into a negative attitude towards this style of learning. This lead to some resistance in adopting this kind of learning and jeopardize the potential of it being incorporate into a bachelor degree program at the university. The behavioral, social and learning methodologies also differed in some ways and contradicted what the students were used to at the university. This didn't necessarily have a negative impact on the students but proved to be beneficial and inspirational to their learning moral. The students engaged with these new paradigms and developed a keen attitude towards this learning style. One thing the students did mention however was they would like the ICT company to be more versatile in the way they support student from different cultural, social and learning backgrounds

Participating in industry based learning greatly benefited the students and provided them different perspectives to new ways of communication, interaction and learning. It provided them with the opportunity to interact with industry peers and engage with emerging technologies in a way that would not be possible in a university environment. The students acknowledged that being immersed in this environment not only enhanced their ICT skills but improved many other skills. They were more confident when interacting with experienced professionals and developed skills necessary to work in a rapidly evolving ICT environment. It became apparent that communications was integral to the success of learning approach and played a significant role in preparing the students for such an activity. Their readiness to learning ICT had to be cultivated at an early stage and without this preparatory activity the students would have been ill prepared and disadvantaged. Moreover, communication between the ICT company and the university had to be established at early stage and

participants had to engage with each other to understand the goals and objectives. However, we found weaknesses in the communication process which had an impact on the student's readiness towards learning.

The significant size and distribution of the ICT company may have also inhibited the necessary communication for enhancing readiness amongst students. The communication was hierarchical and formal in nature and was sparse between the students and the ICT company. It became evident that barriers to communication disadvantaged the students readiness for learning, and most students interviewed identified the need for communication for increasing awareness. Students would have also benefitted from cultural awareness training and industry related activities prior to the training program. Furthermore, without persuasive communication between the organization and between individuals can result in a major block to learning (or awareness) about a change (Stata, 1989). An additional issue that developed over time was the disparity of the training program. This again was due to the lack of awareness between the participants and it became clear that the training must be closely related to students' prior learning and linked to the existing program of study. This requires establishing an effective communication channel between the company and all the participants. Huysman (2000) propose that during the organizational change process mutual learning is necessary whereby, organization learns from individuals' and individuals' mutually learn from the organization.

Conclusion

The general consent among authors is that most challenges during change initiatives lie at the individual or micro-level (Samara and Raven, 2004). As argued by Armenakis et al., (1993) an organization's readiness is constantly being influenced by the readiness of the individual-level comprising it. Social members are always looking for signs concerning the importance of events and circumstances confronting an organization. According to the findings in this study student's readiness towards learning contributes significantly towards the way in which an organizations ICT initiative is communicated. Some of the participants highlighted that they were not adequately prepared for the training and were not ready to engage in emerging technologies. Based on the findings two common themes that appeared during the interviews was the individual's awareness and persuasive communication, which was directly attributable to their readiness for learning. It is the awareness and communication of ICT initiatives as identified by interviewees that may inhibit or increase their understanding and readiness of IT related ICT initiatives.

More research is needed to understand the consequences that can arise at the readiness level during ICT initiatives (Erez and Gati, 2004). There is scope for ICT related research to apply various methods and approaches for building a micro-macro level perspective as well as to advance better understanding of individual level factors that are prerequisites for successful ICT initiatives. At an individual or micro level, however, there has been no sign of research and there is some evidence that residents in the UAE are not always ready for new technology based initiatives. The case study highlights that while some higher educational institutions within fast developing nations such as the UAE may have the ability to invest in emerging technologies the role of an individual's readiness can equally play a significant part during the change initiative. This study contributes towards a better understanding of these factors that inhibit or support an individual's readiness for learning associated in ICT initiatives. This study enables other researchers to extend even deeper on the phenomenon under study and may be applied and extended to other substantive areas related to "organizational technology based initiatives"

References

Armenakis, A.A., Harris, S.G., & Mossholder, K.W. (1993). Creating Readiness for Organisational Change. *Human Relations,* 46, pp.681-703

Armenakis, A. A., Bernerth, J. B., Pitts, J. P., & Walker, H. J. (2007). Organizational Change Recipients' Beliefs Scale Development of an Assessment Instrument. *The Journal of applied behavioral science*, *43*(4), pp.481-505

Bandura A. (1998). Health Promotion from the Perspective of Social Cognitive Theory. *Psychology and Health*, 13, pp.623-649

Bandura, A. (1986). The Explanatory and Predictive Scope of Self-Efficacy Theory. *J. Soc. Clinical Psychology,* 4, pp.359-373

Bercovitz, J., & Fieldman, M. (2008). Academic Entrepreneurs: Organizational Change at the Individual Level. *Organization Science*, 19 (1), pp.69-89

Connelly, C.E., & Kelloway, E.K. (2003). Predictors of Employee's Perception of Knowledge Sharing Cultures. *Leadership and Organisation Development Journal*, 24 (5), pp. 294-301

Erez, M., & Gati, E. (2004). A Dynamic, Multi-level Model of Culture: From the Micro level of the Individual to the Macro level of a Global Culture'. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 53 (4), pp.583-598

George, J.M., & Jones, G.R. (2001). Towards a Process Model of Individual Change in Organizations. *Human Relations, Sage Publications,* 54 (4), pp.419-444

Holt, D.T., Armenakis, A.A., Field, H., & Harris, G.S. (2007). Readiness for Organizational Change: The Systematic Development of a Scale. *Journal of Behavioural Science,* 43, pp.232-255

Huysman, M.H. (2000). An Organisational Learning Approach to the Learning Organization. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 9 (2), pp.133–145

Judge, T.A., Thoresen, C.J., Pusik, V., & Welbourne. (1999). Managerial Coping with Organizational Change: A Dispositional Perspective. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 84 (1), pp.107-122

Klimoski, R., & Mohammed, S. (1994). Team Mental Model: Construct or Metaphor? *Journal of Management*, 20, pp.403-437

Kotter, J. (1995). Leading Change: Why Transformation Efforts Fail. *Harvard Business Review*

Lewin, K. (1948). Action Research and Minority Problems. In G. W. Lewin (Ed.), Resolving social conflict (pp. 201-216). New York: Harper & Row. (Reprinted from Journal of Social Issues, 2, 34-46, 1946

Lehman, W. E., Greener, J. M., & Simpson, D. D. (2002). Assessing Organizational Readiness for Change. *Journal of substance abuse treatment*, *22*(4), 197-209.

Oreg, S. (2006). Personality, Context, and Resistance to Organizational Change. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 15 (1), pp.73–101

Patel, S., Samara, K., Patel, D. (2010a). Inferring Causal Interpretations of Change-Readiness Using Causal Models: A Knowledge-Based Perspective. *Second international conference, ICT Innovations 2010, Ohrid Macedonia. Communications in computer and information science*, 83, Verlag: Springer

Patel, D., Samara, K., Patel, S. (2010b), Review of Knowledge Sharing: Conceptual Foundations for Micro-level Sharing and Readiness-for Change Related Behaviours. Second International Conference, ICT Innovations 2010, Ohrid Macedonia. Communications in Computer and Information Science, 83, Springer Verlag, 2011

Prochaska, J.M., Prochaska, J.O., & Levesque, D.A. (2001). A Trans-theoretical Approach to Change Organisations. *Administration and Policy in Mental Health*, 28 (4)

Quinn, R.E. (1996). Deep Change: Discovering the Leader Within. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Samara, K and Raven, J. (2014). A Readiness for Change Model for Dubai E-Government Initiative, e-Society 2014. 12th International conference (ES 2014) Spain, Madrid 28th Feb

Scholl, H. J. (2003). E-government: a special case of ICT-enabled business process change. *In System Sciences, 2003. Proceedings of the 36th Annual Hawaii International Conference*, (pp. 12). IEEE.

Stata, R. (1989). Organisational learning: The key to management innovation. *Sloan Management Review*, 30 (3), pp.63-74

Turvani, M. (2001). Microfoundations of Knowledge Dynamics within the Firm. *Industry and Innovation*, 8 (3), pp.309-323

Weick, K.E., & Quinn, R.E. (1999). Organizational Change and Development. *Annual, Reviews, Psychol*, 50, pp.361-386

The Specifications of the Iranian Model of Faculty Recruitment in Iranian State Universities: the Pros and Cons

Hadi Mosadegh[1], Hassanreza Zeinabadi[2], Mohammad Hussein Norouzi[3]

1 Kharazmi University, Tehran, Iran
2 Kharazimi University, Tehran, Iran
3 University of Tehran, Tehran ,Iran

Abstract

The present research aimed at investigating the specifications of the faculty recruitment model in Iran through library research and in a descriptive-analytic framework. First, the researchers investigated the current issues of faculty recruitment around the globe, considering the related criteria in the world-class accredited universities. Next, they considered the history of faculty recruitment in Iranian universities, and then the specifications of the latest recruitment model which started in 2008. This method, which is largely influenced by Iranian philosophical and government beliefs, has characteristics such as being highly centralized, nation-wide and centrally-controlled. In this method, the roles of a universitie's scientific departments and managerial boards, as well of the role of the decision-makers in the Iranian Ministry of Science, Technology and Research have meticulously been specified. In this method, which begins with a nation-wide call for recruits on the part of the Ministry of Science, Technology and Research, a clearly defined course is taken by the universities, and the final decision is made by the Ministry Science, Technology and Research. This paper delineates the pros and cons of the said method.

Key words: faculty recruitment, Iranian state universities.

Introduction

1.1 Statement of the Problem

The promotion and development of universities or colleges, as many experts believe (e.g. Camblin and Steger, 2000), relies on the promotion of their staff and faculty, and therefore, the promotion of the faculty is tantamount to the promotion and improved quality of the college. The vast demand and the necessity of recruiting and keeping the best faculty require an appropriate recruitment and employment procedure. Therefore, the best procedure could be presented based on the analysis of the current processes.

Accordingly, in order to keep up with the changes and developments in the community, all organizations in general and colleges in particular need to take proper measures to improve and promote their staff, faculty, equipment, technology, and their regulations and organizational culture, along with detecting weaknesses and strengths. This could in turn lead to the modification of recruitment and employment procedures and to more accurate planning, the necessity of which would be clarified in light of the fact that the survival and prosperity of any organization lies in its trained and skilled staff (Shahi Beik and Hashemi, 2007).

1.2 Review of the Related Literature

According to Steneck (1991), the issue of decisions on faculty started with policies of individual faculty members and that of the government's representative (since 1840). In the nineteenth century United States, the employment of university professors relied primarily on the opinion of the universities' board of trustees (American Association of University Professors (AAUP), cited in Wikipedia, 2014). In 1915, the American Association of University Professors announced that only faculty members can assess the qualification of another faculty member (AAUP, 2014).

Altbakh (cited in Majcher, 2008) that the measures and procedure of faculty recruitment and promotion has been influenced by changes in the conditions of scientific and academic market, including the increased academic competitions, budget constraints, the pressure for female and minority employment in the west, and the prevalence of neo-liberalization thoughts. In England, the traditional recruitment system was abolished in favor of such systematic changes (Shetak, 2000; Edvardz, 2006, cited in Majcher, 2008). In the Netherlands, faculty recruitment was transferred from the government to the universities, and the faculty members were no longer considered state-employed (Diwebert, 2000, cited in Majcher, 2008).

Majcher (2008) considers recruitment procedures in the United States, Germany and Hungary and comes up with three main principles for proper recruitment: the necessity of choosing the bets candidates, choice of young independent individuals, and the (existence of) strategies that allow for fair competition. Robert (2008) who has codified recruitment basics for Loyola Marymount University points out five basic criteria for faculty recruitment: validity, objectivity, measurement consistency, rationality and confidentiality. Each of these has its aspects and dimensions. He also refers to two important ethical rules: treat all candidates equitably, and avoid exclusionary thinking.

All through the history, there have been differences in the recruitment procedures and criteria of universities. These differences are elucidated in a research project by Eurydice European Unit. In its comprehensive research, this organization considers six important aspects of faculty recruitment in European countries. This research found that during the

recent decades, the subject of faculty recruitment has been an important issue for all European countries, each attempting to recruit the best candidates through developing policies and strategies. These policies differed in some aspects. These six aspects, however, are as follows.

1) Who is responsible for faculty recruitment?
2) What are the main recruitment models?
3) How should the faculty be paid and promoted?
4) What is the job description like (including time and duty specifications)?
5) How should the faculty be evaluated and assessed?
6) How should the faculty members be managed? (Eurydice European Unit, 2008)

Diversity is another factor considered important in some in tarnation research projects. This diversity means that minorities should not be discriminated, and to this end, some mechanisms have been designed to prevent gender, ethnic and racial discriminations. This issue has been delineated in the works of many scholars including Babcock (2003), Bauer (2002), Biernat (1997), Heilman et al (2004), Katznelson (2006), Smith (2000) and Sommers (2006). The issue of diversity appears to be an important consideration in faculty recruitment in many universities of the globe, and stems from the diverse structure of the societies.

Another issue considered by many universities around the world is the types and methods of recruitment. Many universities, including Illinois University, have defined different statuses or forms of employment in the codification of their (recruitment) policies. In terms of tenured or contract (non-tenured) employment, there has been a great deal of debate including the necessity of quick tenured employment put forward by Searle (1971), the possible contradiction between the university authorities evaluating the faculty and the faculty members' freedom of action (Meltdown, 2005), unethical acts such as publication of non-scientific articles and some individuals' hypocritical behavior aimed at getting the consent of the universities (Shaefer, 2001), and the opposite views held by some people indicating that tenured employment would make the faculty less hard-working and is, therefore, a mistake (McPherson and Schapiro, 1999).

Such criticism has resulted in the reduced number of tenured employments. For instance, according to a report by the US Educational Statistics Office, tenured employment has dropped from %56 in 1975 to %31.9 in 2005 (AAUP, cited in Wikipedia, 2014).

Batterbury (2008) suggests a system which preserves both the professors' entitlement to tenure employment and the universities' right to make the required modifications. He suggests a permanent but non-tenured employment where the professors enjoy job security, and on the other hand, the university is authorized to prosecute in case of any malpractice.

Majcher's (2008) research indicated that the changes in the conditions of academic and scientific market have posed some challenges for the concepts relate to academic and scientific developments in recruitment and employment. This is indicative of some problematic issues in faculty recruitment and employment which need to be detected and resolved. To this end, some models need to be put forward for academic development, recruitment and employment of faculty members. Such models and mechanisms utilize some potential sources and prevent problematic practices. Germany and Hungary have recently created some changes in this regard.

Method

To accomplish the goals of this research, a descriptive-analytic library research method was conducted.

Faculty Recruitment in Iran

In Iran, there have been numerous changes in the history of faculty recruitment. In early years of Dar-al-Funun's establishment in 1941, several foreign professors were brought for the purpose of teaching. In the following years, no special criteria were established for the choice of professors. People renowned for their knowledge were invited to teach at universities. Next, following the establishment of Ministry of Knowledge, this ministry was assigned with the responsibility of faculty recruitment (1934), and later, with the detachment of universities from the Ministry of Knowledge, in 1942, the universities assumed the responsibility of faculty recruitment. In 1963, the Auditing Board was legally authorized and assumed the responsibility of faculty recruitment till the Islamic Revolution in 1979 (Rahimi, 1998).

Just after the Revolution, there were little changes in this area. In 1981, the set of 'Employment Regulations for Universities and Higher-education Institutes' was passed which decreed that faculty members be recruited by the 'Central Board for Faculty Supply and Recruitment' through the Ministry of Science, Research and Technology. This procedure continued to be implemented with minor modifications in the coming years, with the faculty recruitment board playing the central role while the universities also cooperated (Ebrahimi, 2006).

In the decade 2000-2010, following the criticism aimed at the recruitment procedure (on grounds of being prone to much favoritism and miscarriage of justice) as well as the state's efforts towards the Islamification of universities, the Supreme Council of Cultural Revolution reconsidered the faculty recruitment issue and passed and enforced new regulations (Regulations for Supreme Board of Recruitment, passed in meeting 608, held on July the 10th, 2007).

This enactment sought two main goals:
- Creating a unified procedure in faculty recruitment,
- Recruitment of sophisticated and efficacious faculty who believe in the causes of the Islamic Revolution.

Based on these regulations, the Supreme Council of Cultural Revolution decreed the establishment of three boards and assigned them with the responsibility of faculty recruitment:
- Supreme Board of Faculty recruitment for Universities and Higher-education Institutes,
- Central Faculty Recruitment Board for the two Ministries of Science, Research and Technology, and of Health, Treatment and Medical Education,
- The Executive Board for Faculty Recruitment of Universities and Higher-education Institutes.

In this division, the Supreme Board is on top of the related affairs, and deals with the major policy-makings for faculty recruitment. At the next level is the central board for the two ministries (*Science, Research and Technology*, and *Health, Treatment and Medical Education*). Further down are the executive board for recruitment which has a branch in all universities. All these board function under the executive center of the Ministry of Science, Research and Technology. The goals, authorities, duties and members of each of these three boards are well defined, and for the purpose of brevity, they are not included herein.

The executive center of the Ministry of Science, Research and Technology has announced its goal of establishment as follows.

- Creating a unity in the faculty recruitment procedure,
- Observing justice in faculty recruitment,
- Promotion of the position and value of faculty members,
- Instigation of scientific advancement through assessment checklists of academic skills of the faculty in their job promotion,
- Betterment, facilitation and expedition of faculty recruitment procedure in light of modern and up-to-date approaches (Mardani et al, 2013).

In order to explicate this mechanism further, it will be expresses in terms of four basic aspects of human resources in the following.

4.1 Manpower Planning

Based on the recent regulations of the Supreme Council as well as the comprehensive scientific agenda passed in 2012, this issue is assigned to the Supreme Council and Ministry of Science, Research and Technology based on the following reasons. The Ministry of Science, Research and Technology is responsible for the costs of Iranian universities and payment of faculty salaries; therefore, it needs to be involved in this regard. Another point is urging the universities to accept and move along the routes considered as required by the Supreme Council and Ministry of Science, Research and Technology.

This law has not been fully enforced; currently, recruitment plans are primarily made in the universities and then, having received the permit from the ministry, they issue a call for recruits.

This system enjoys some pros and cons. Pros include development of a unified approach with large-scale policies of the country, prevention of possible insularity of academic circles stemming from narrow view of some faculty members, and the possibility of fairer distribution of financial resources. Cons include dissatisfaction of academic circles and bodies, inaccurate assessment of a university's needs and negligence of local need of universities.

4.2 Recruitment

This stage of faculty employment is done biannually through a nation-wide call for recruits issued by the Ministry of Science, Research and Technology. First, on the announcement of the Ministry, the universities are required to upload their needs (in terms of faculty) to the website of the Ministry before an announced deadline. Next, within a month, candidates from all over the country have to refer to the website of the Ministry and register (uploading the required qualifications and documents) and select up to three priorities based on universities' needs announcements.

This stage has its pros and cons, too. Pros include development of a unified procedure, and rapid, accurate and fair notification to all candidates, shorter and less costly registration, obviation of the need to refer to the websites of several universities and fill out long repeated forms and document for each university. Cons include a single main problem arising from the large amount of the data from all universities and candidates to be handled. Recently, this problem has been diminishing due to the advancements in this field.

4.3 Selection

In the third stage, after the registration of candidates' applications in the Ministry's website, selection is done around two main criteria.

Selection based on intelligence issues: In this stage, general inquiries are done by the Ministry from the three sources of intelligence in Iran. Some inquiry is also conducted in the candidates' local or native (former) work place.

Along the first stage (intelligence inquiry), the candidate's electronic file is sent to the target university to be assessed in terms of general and academic qualifications. In this stage, the recruitment executive board of the university is to make the decision (Members of this board have to be approved of by the Supreme Council. Moreover, the Supreme Council, a governmental body, can intervene in the recruitment process and prevent the recruitment of candidates who oppose the state.) The members of this board are confidential, but three members are predefined: the chancellor of the university, the head of the Leader's Representative Institute in the university, and a faculty member who chairs the recruitment.

This board develops some committees to assess general and academic qualifications of the candidates, and these committees announce their assessments to the board. According to the regulations of the Supreme Council of Recruitment, universities are authorized to relegate academic assessment to faculties or department within or out of the university. These departments merely serve as consultants for the executive board. Therefore, unlike the practice common in most universities overseas where faculty members and departments play the main role, in this system, they are merely consultants. This issue has provoked some criticism. However, in most cases, universities base their decision on the opinions of the academic assessment committees.

This system, like any other system, has its pros and cons. Pros include the control exerted on all selections, universities' compliance with the government's policies, and reduced possibility of formation of interest groups within universities. One of the downsides lies in the multi-layered recruitment and selection procedure. This problem is an executive one and can be resolved. Next, the imposition of governmental approach constrains academic and scientific freedom. Moreover, there is always the possibility of formation of interest groups in the recruitment executive boards, in the Ministry and in the Supreme Council.

4.4 Employment

In the last stage, in case the different inquiries yield the desired results and the university assesses a candidate as academically approved, the file is sent to the Ministry for the issuance of the final (employment) statement. The role of the Ministry at this stage is only that of supervision and %95 of cases are approved of. This is, however, just the beginning of the employment procedure; the issued employment statement is temporary and valid for two years. The case should be re-assessed in terms of general and academic qualifications after the first two years.

The pros of this stage include the final control on the part of the Ministry and the possibility of the re-assessment after two years for a better decision to be made. Cons include the lengthy procedure of assessment and employment (which is an executive issue and can be resolved), and the possibility of losing competent professors after the initial two-year contract to other (better) domestic or even foreign universities.

In a nutshell, the Ministry's recruitment executive board summarizes the outcome of the new method as follows.

- Clarification of recruitment procedures and stages,
- Standardization and homogenization of recruitment procedure,
- Reduction and thwarting of personal views and tastes in recruitment,
- Development of regulatory and support systems to deal with complaints,

- Provision of a proper bed for the active contribution and presence of overseas alumni,
- Facilitation of the recruitment of the elite,
- Finding and detecting talented candidates, and committed and skilled professors,
- And some other cases (Mardani et al, 2013)

Conclusion

The issue of faculty recruitment along with its key role in the advancement and development of universities has led to movements on the part of universities in the globe towards the codification of appropriate standards for recruitment. This is reflected in the recruitment manuals published in recent years. Local and indigenous differences would lead to differences in the large-scale policies of different countries. In Iranian educational system, due to the financial dependence of universities on the governmental budget, private universities like Harvard cannot be suitable models. Therefore, the codification of the best procedure has to include due consideration of specific conditions of the country and those of each university. The current centralized procedure has some executive problems (e.g. lengthiness) arising from shortage of adequate workforce, which can be resolved. Moreover, there are some inherent problems as mentioned earlier. On the other hand, there are some privileges that could be accomplished only in case of a centralized procedure. However, the detailed study of the pros and cons of the current recruitment system is beyond the scope and goal of the present work which aims at its introduction and explanation.

References

Babcock, L. and Laschever, S. (2003). *Women don't ask: Negotiation and the gender divide* . *Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press.*

Bauer, C.C. and Baltes, B.B. (2002). Reducing the effects of gender stereotypes on performance evaluations. *Sex Roles, 9/10,* 465–476

Biernat, M. and Kobrynowicz, D. (1997). Gender- and race-based standards of competence:Lower minimum standards but higher ability standards for devalued groups. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 72 (*3), 544–557.

Batterbury .(2008).Tenure or permanent contracts in North American higher education? A critical assessment. Policy Futures in Education 6 (3): 286-297.

Camblin,L. D. and Steger, J. A. (2000). "Rethinking   faculty development". Higher Education, 39 (1), 1-18.

Ebrahimi, Y. (2006). Faculty Recruitment in Iranian Universities and Higher Education Institutes and Some Credited Universities. Iran: Cultural Studies Office for Research Center of Iran's Islamic Parliament.

Eurydice European Unit .(2008). Higher Education Governance in Europe, Policies, structures, funding and academic staff. This document is available on the Internet (http://www.eurydice.org).

Heilman, M. E., Wallen, A. S., Fuchs, D., and Tamkins, M. M. (2004). Penalties for success: Reactions to women who succeed at male gender-typed tasks. Journal of Applied Psychology, 89(3), 416–427.

Katznelson, I. (2006). When affirmative action was white. Poverty and Race Research Action Council 15(2).

Majcher , Aqnieszka . (2008) . Higher Education Policy. Journal Articles , Report Evalutive , pp245 -258 .www.Eric.edu.gov.

Mardani, M.R., Hakim, A. and Khaleghian, A. (2013). A Brief Introduction to the Functions and Procedure of Faculty Recruitment and Status Transfer. Iran: Faculty Recruitment Center for Ministry of Science, Research and Technology.

McPherson, Michael S and Schapiro, Morton Owen.(1999).Tenure Issues in Higher Education .The Journal of Economic Perspectives,Vol. 13, No. 1.

Meltdown .(2005). The Predictable Distortion of Global Warming, Patrick J. Michaels, Chap. 11 p. 229.

Naomi Schaefer Riley.(2011).The Faculty Lounges and Other Reasons Why You Won't Get the College Education You Paid For, Ivan R Dee.

Rahimi, S. (1998). The Procedure and Criteria of Faculty Recruitment in Universities and Higher Education Institutes Affiliated to the Ministry of Culture and Higher Education after the Islamic Revolution. Tehran: The Institute for Higher Education Research and Planning.

Robert V. Caro, S.J.(2008).**Moving Beyond Traditional Recruitment Strategies Recruiting and Hiring Faculty for Mission**. reported by Loyola Marymount University at 2008.

Shahi Beik, A. and Hashemi, L. (1989). Renewed Engineering though Information Technology. Tehran: Vara Publications.

Smith, D. (2000). **How to diversify the faculty**. Academe, 86, no. 5. Washington, D.C.: AAUP.

Sommers, S. (2006). On Racial Diversity and Group Decision Making: Identifying Multiple Effects of Racial Composition on Jury Deliberations. **Journal of Personality and Social Psychology 90 (4)**, 597–612.

Steneck, Nicholas h.(1991).**faculty governance at the university of Michigan**. a report for the university community.

Understanding Recruiting and Hiring Processes at the University of Illinois.(2008). retrieve at 2014 from: http://illinois.edu.

www.wikipedia.com.

Perceived Impact of Budget Preparation Procedure on Secondary Schools Administration in Abia State, Nigeria

L K. Nwokocha, B. E. Afianmagbon and U. G. Emetarom
Faculty of Education, Abia State University, Uturu, Nigeria.

Abstract

This study examined the perceived impact of budget preparation procedures on the administration of secondary schools in Abia State, Nigeria. The aim is to find out if the budget preparation procedures in use is seen as an incentive or discouragement in the administration of secondary schools in terms of its task areas. Altogether 192 school Principals participated in the study from 192 secondary schools in the 3 education zones of the state. Three research questions were posed and data were collected using a 14 item questionnaire titled budget Preparation Procedure and School Administration Questionnaire (BUPPASAQ). Data were analyzed using frequency distribution and means. Results indicated that the budget preparation procedure used in secondary schools appears to negatively impact the administration of secondary schools in Abia State, Nigeria. This is because an adequate quantity of teachers has not been recruited. Also facilities are not adequately provided for. Consequently, the study gives evidence to a new conception that focuses on regular retraining serving principals in financial matters. Such principals with administrative capabilities and experience may become excellent administrators. It is therefore necessary for a strict adherence to budget preparation procedures and for the inclusion of principals and other stakeholders (Parents, employers of labour, representative of the community etc) in secondary education during budget preparation.

Key Words: Administration, Budget, Budget Preparation, School Heads.

Introduction

Generally, education is considered to be an important investment in human and national development. In Nigeria, as in other developed and developing countries, there is an increasing demand for education and a growing emphasis in addressing what goes on in the education system. There is also the growing need to adjust and cope with problems posed by globalization and the constant changes taking place in the world market. The provision and expenditure of funds according to Kanu (1998) has thus become the focal points through which educational planning and management can become more effective and efficient.This is because funds constitute the nerve centre of the school and therefore must be properly planned, budgeted and managed in order for schools to achieve their objectives. According to Nwokocha (2005) these issues have caused many stakeholders in education to frequently ask questions regarding the availability of funds and how these are used. Funds have been the primary concern of the principal who tend to be with inadequate instructional material, staff, etc. Onyeukwu (2004) further contends that funds granted to schools are not sufficient to cater for education services of personnel, the provision of buildings, equipment, supplies and other items necessary for the operation of a school.

The school problems tend to persist in spite of the revenue it receives from different sources. These include annual education share of the budget allocations from government, revenue from levied taxes, voluntary contributions from local and international agencies; and donations from Parent Teachers Association, the community and philanthropists. The cost of goods and services required in the school system is a sufficient justification for the emphasis commonly placed on the management of school finance. For instance, the magnitude of the number of employees - teaching and non-teaching personnel, buildings, equipment and supplies used in the school system shows among other things how important it is for the principal to have knowledge of basic school finance. However, the fundamental principle in educational finance is not necessarily how much money goes into the school system, but how well the available funds are effectively managed through budgeting for the realization of school objectives. According to Ama (2002:291) a "budget is a plan, quantified in monetary terms, prepared and approved prior to a defined period of time". By implication a budget usually shows the plan for the income to be generated and the expenditure to be incurred during a period of one year and the capital to be employed to achieve a given objective.

Roe in Ogbonnaya (2012) sees school budget as the translation of educational needs into a financial plan, which is translated for the public in such a way that when formally adopted, it expresses the kind of education the community is willing to support financially. This shows that a good budget attracts the support of the tax-payers whose money is being made use of and whose children are likely to benefit from contributions toward the budget as they are the primary source of information. However, inadequate provisions of funds may be the result of a "top-down" budget preparation procedure, which Okunamiri (2002) describes as a regressive budget preparation strategy. In other words, this is a procedure that began from a higher authority which is sent to the lower administrative units for implementation.

In reaction to regressive budgeting, a school of thought on participatory

budgeting believes that principals, as a matter of policy, should be part of school budget preparation. This is because the school heads should provide the much needed information towards the effective administration of secondary schools. This arrangement of incorporating principals in budget preparation is described as progressive budget preparation strategy. It is characterized by the movement for budget preparation to start from the lower administrative operation unit to higher level for consideration and eventual approval. Since a budget is prepared for the school, it therefore means that the responsibility for its preparation should be spread out to all component units or departments. This study is, therefore, aimed at the perceived impact of a budget preparation procedure by secondary school administration in Abia State of Nigeria.

Statement of the Problem

Looking at secondary schools in the light of their major tasks, one discovers that the realizations of teaching objectives have not only been difficult but also the quality of student performance in public examinations is overall unsatisfactory. This view is reinforced when consideration is given to numerous uncomplimentary remarks and comments made by most principals and other secondary school stakeholders on their non-inclusion in budget preparation. There are widespread allegations that principals are not part of the formulation of education policies. With regards to the impact of budget preparation procedure on the administration of secondary Schools, an infective procedure may be the cause of, to some extent, the poor implementation of educational programmes and non-attainment of school objectives.

This non-inclusion of principals in budget preparation seems to result in a show of apathy in the performance of their roles. Ineffective budgeting procedures may lead to inadequate teaching, learning materials, and funds to run the schools and consequently negatively impact the realization of school objectives.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to determine the perceived impact of budget preparation procedures on secondary school administration in Abia State of Nigeria. The specific objectives of the study are to determine the:
1. Perceived impact of the budget preparation procedure used in secondary schools on staff personnel administration
2. Perceived impact of the budget preparation procedure used in secondary schools on school finance administration.

Research Questions

The following research questions were formulated to guide the study.
1. What is the perceived impact of budget preparation procedure on staff personnel administration?
2. What is the perceived impact of budget preparation procedure on school finance administration?

Significance of the Study

The purpose of the study is to reveal information that may benefit the Ministry

of Education and Secondary Education Management Board by providing the basis for constituting policy measures that could contribute towards adherence to an appropriate budget preparation procedure. It may also highlight the need for the participation of school heads in budget preparation, which may improve their coordination of activities in different units and enhancement in the achievement of their administrative functions in the schools. Moreover, this study may provide evidence of a new concept that will focus on regular retraining of serving school heads in financial matters and budget preparation, in particular.

Methodology

The study employed a descriptive survey design. The population of the study was made up of the 192, school principals of 192 secondary schools in the 3 education zones in Abia State. All of the principals were involved since the population is small enough.

Research Instrument

The instrument used to collect data for this study was a 14 item questionnaire that the researchers developed and which is called Budget Preparation Procedure and School Administration Questionnaire (BUPPASAQ). The instrument was validated and found to be reliable with a reliability coefficient of 0.75 at 0.05 level of significance. The response format was a modified Likert-type four-point rating scale of strongly agree (4), agree (3), disagree (2) and strongly disagree (1).

The instrument was administered by the researchers and three other trained research assistants. The commitment and dedication of the researchers and the assistants resulted in a 100% return rate. Data collected were analysed using weighted mean scores to answer the research questions.

Results

Table 1 below shows that the grand mean 2.55 of the four items is greater than the decision mean of 2.5. This means that principals perceive budget preparation procedure as impacting staff personnel administration.

S/N	ITEM	$\sum$x	mean	mean	Decision
1.	Staff needs are not in relation to demands.	503	2.62		High
2.	Some staff do not take part in budget preparation.	484	2.54	2.55	High
3.	Some administrators lack adequate knowledge of financial education.	502	2.61		High
4.	Some administrators misappropriate school funds.	548	2.85		High

Table 1: Impact of Budget Preparation Procedure on Staff Personnel Administration. Key: $\sum$x Summation

The results in table 2 shows the grand mean of 3.12 from the five items is greater than the decision mean of 2.5. This shows that the principals perceive budget preparation procedure as impacting on secondary finance administration.

S/N	ITEM	∑x	x̄	x̿	Decision
5.	Funds to schools are not adequate due to poor budget	510	2.66		High
6.	preparation.	590	3.07		High
7.	Impact of the financial contribution by local communities not	607	3.16	3.12	High
8.	significant.	666	3.47		High
9.	Financial problems in the school stem from misappropriation.	660	3.43		High
	Flexibility in the budget are usually abused				
	Environment is usually abused in the budget				

Table 2: Impact of Budget Preparation Procedure on School Finance Administration. Key: ∑x Summation, **x** Mean, **x** grand means

Discussion of Findings

This study focused on the perceived impact of budget preparation procedure on secondary schools administration, as measured by these principals' task areas, e.g., finance and staff personnel administration. One of the imperatives of effective school administration is the use of a progressive budget preparation approach. Unfortunately, in response to research question one, the impact of budget preparation procedures on staff personnel was high. Kanu (1998) also established in his study, the required number and quality of staff needed to realize school objectives, is handicapped by budget preparation procedures. This may be the reason Abiola (1989), observed that poor budget preparation procedures affect staffing to the extent that school principals perform the work of an office clerk, bursar, typist, and to some extent teach more subjects, in order to close the financial gap. Joseph (2002) also contends that a lack of authority by present day school principals restricts their capabilities to budget issue on staff administration.

The findings also revealed a high level of inadequate provision of finances. The principals noted that funds to schools are inadequate which seems to result in under-funding and provisions of instructional materials. Indeed, as Aghenta (1984) pointed out, the inadequate budgeting of funds is likely to be inhibitive to the success of the school. Inadequate funding, as Okoye (2005) observed, is a major cause of the dearth of instructional materials and other resources, as this is related to poor budgeting preparation. The result shows that a significant number of principals perceive the way budget preparation is implemented as negatively impacting the administration of secondary schools.

Recommendation and Conclusion

The study was carried out to determine the perceived impact of budget preparation procedure on the administration of secondary schools. The results of this research have made it possible to conclude that budget preparation procedures are perceived as a crucial yet difficult task in the functional area of principals. They often deal with budget-control related matters, such as staff and finance administration, many of which results from poor administration and student performance. There is ample evidence, from the study, indicating that the current budget preparation procedures are inappropriate. This finding points to the need to constitute policy measures for strict adherence to progressive budget preparation procedure. In addition, the findings in this study demonstrate the need to include principals in budget preparation procedures for the purpose of improved fiscal discipline.

References

Abiola, M.K.O. (1981, April 9). Qualities of an ideal manager. *National concord* p8

Akandi, B. (2004). Towards a system approach to the planning of secondary education in Nigeria. In S. Adesina & S. Ogunsaju (Eds) Secondary education in Nigeria. Ife: University of Ife press. (15 - 25)

Ama, G.A.N. (2003). Fundamentals of public sector accounting and finance. Okigwe: Whytem publishers

Cagatay, N.M. & Keklik, R. (2000). Budget as if people mattered. Report on democratizing macro-economic policies.New York: UNDP

Catty, W. (2000, April 4). School site management - Some lessons from New Zealand. Paper presented at the Annual AERA meeting

Chenhall, R. & Brownell, J. ('1988). The effect of participative budqetinq on job satisfaction. A performance analysis organization. Boston: Allyn & Coy

Farojohn, J. & Krehbie, K. (1989). The budget process and the size of the budget. *America Journal of Political Science* 2,3 (28 - 32)

Kankwenda, M. (2001). A donor's perspective on pro-poor budgeting. *Journal of Economics, Social and Cultural Rights.* 1, 2 (29 - 38)

Kanu, I.N. (1998). Budgeting as an effective control tool of fiscal management & administration of secondary school education: Issues, policies, realities & challenges. Owerri: Total publishers

Mohrman, SA & Wohlsletter, P. (2000). School-based management. Kampalla: Mpigi publishers

Nkata, J.L. (2003). Basic framework and mechanism of management. Kampalla: Mpigi publishers

Nwachukwu, R.O. (2013). Modern history of education. Okigwe: Whytem publishers

Nwokocha, L.K. (2008). Introduction to finance in education Okigwe: Whytem publishers

Ogbonnaya, N.O. (2012). Foundations of Education finance. Nsukka: Hallman publishers

Oladebe, A.I. (2001). The impact of budget allocation on secondary school project implementation in Ogun state U.I. project.

Onyeukwu, J. (2004). Manual for budgeting advocates and monitors. Lagos: Concerned professionals

Okunamini, P .0.(2002). Resourcing and guidolin0.s for educational finance in tertiary institutions in Nigeria. Okigwe: Fasmen, publishers

Talib, A. (1982. Nov. 28) Management problem, a veteran advice. Interview with New Nigeria p 12

A Study of Present ICT Use among Staff in Nigerian Colleges of Education For The Purpose Of Determining a Human Resource Development Plan

Francisca N. Ogba[1], Ntasiobi C. N. Igu[2], Basake J. Alochere[3]

1 Department of Educational Foundations,
  Ebonyi State College of Education, Ikwo
2 Department of Social Studies,
  Ebonyi State College of Education, Ikwo
3 Department of Educational Administration and Planning
  University of Nigeria, Nsukka

Abstract

This study investigated the present Information Communication Technology (ICT) use among Staff in Nigerian Colleges of Education for the purpose of determining a human resource development plan. The population comprised the entire academic and non-academic staff of the Colleges of Education in South East Geo-Political Zone (1803 academic and 2696 non-academic staff) totaling 4499 staff members. Using a stratified sampling technique, a sample of 870 Staff members (315 academic and 555 non-academic staff) was drawn. A 24 item structured Questionnaire was developed by the researchers, which was titled Present ICT Use among Staff in Nigerian Colleges of Education Questionnaire (PICTSNCEQ). It elicited responses from the staff regarding their ability to use a computer which is a center piece of ICT. Data generated were calculated using the mean and standard deviation to determine the reliability of the data. The cut off mean set for the study was 2.50.The t-test statistic was used to test the hypothesis at a 0.05 level of significance. The findings show that the majority of the academic and non-academic staff of the Colleges appear to lack the necessary skills for using a variety of software including word processing, power point and spread sheet functions. A significant percentage of academic and non-academic staff members do not have a laptop computer. Based on the findings, it was recommended that the staff of the institutions be exposed to ICT training and that Management should help the staff by negotiating with dealers to supply laptops to staff at moderate prices.

Keywords: ICT, Human Resource, Development

Introduction

Teachers constitute the pivot upon which educational systems all over the world depend. According to Agwu (2001) the success of the educational industry and all round development of any country depends to a large extent on the effectiveness and efficiency of the teachers, their quality, quantity and level of devotion. Ogba (2006) contributes that teachers alone cannot do their work effectively without the support of the non-teaching staff, which take stock of inventories, prepare vouchers, and keep records and other administrative activities in the educational system. She further stated that teachers and non-teaching staff work assiduously in their different functions to keep the educational system going by producing high quality manpower. This may be why Anowor (2010) affirms that the validity of any educational system is rooted in the quality of work and availability of competent staff. Suffice it to state that the development of any nation depends largely on the productive force of its human resources produced by the educational institutions.

The emergence of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in the world, with its revolutionary vision and mission makes it imperative for every organization including educational institutions to have ICT compliant staff. According to UNESCO's (2002) strategic objectives, ICT should help staff to improve the quality of education through the diversification of contents, methods by promoting experimentation, innovation, diffusion, the sharing of information and best practices as well as dialogue with other staff in and outside the institution.

ICT in the world generally, and particularly in Nigeria, has been acknowledged because of its role in making the world a global village which has led to different developments. ICT's acceptability is witnessed in its use in interaction, administration, research, politics, business, sports, music, education, economic, social, military, counseling and religious events directly or indirectly (Adem and Kpangbau, 2011). This may be why Hooker (2009) maintains that ICT is the engine that houses new growth and a tool for empowering societies to shift to a knowledge economy. Emphasizing the importance of ICT, Rayo and Atsuko (2009) aver that access to information and communication has become a central theme in the world summit of the current information society

The indispensability of ICT has made it part of the contemporary world especially in the developed world. Its efficacy has made all societies and organizations irrespective of culture, ethnic and religion to adjust maximally to meet the challenges of this knowledge explosion. Nkwankwo, Obunadike and Ughamadu (2011) affirm that modern day education, government and businesses administration are facilitated through the use of ICT. Nwachukwu (2006) states that the pervasiveness of ICT has brought about rapid transformation in human capital development in the field of educational institutions; it provides great opportunities for academic, non-academic and students to communicate effectively and efficiently during formal and non-formal activities. Ololube (2006) states that staff in educational institutions need training not only in computer literacy but also in proper application of various kinds of educational software for the purpose of teaching, learning and non-teaching activities. In addition, Nwachukwu (2006) maintains that staff in educational institutions needs to know how to integrate ICT in their school activities.

The World Bank (2007) sees ICT as the hardware, software, networks and media for the collection, storage, processing, transmitting, transmission and presentation of information (voice, data, text, images) as well as related services. Nwachukwu (2011) defines ICT as electronic gadgets used in accessing and sharing information. Beebe (2004) conceives of ICT as an electronic gadget which involves the use of computer, internet and other telecommunication devices used for sharing information. Synthesizing the above definitions, ICT is the use of electronic and communication devices to source, process and share information. It involves the use of gadgets such as computers, iPod, cameras, telephones, etc. Summed up, it is a basic tool for managing and integrating complex information flow for the purpose of effective job performance. Suffice it to state here that it is an instrument for acquiring knowledge, problem solving, organizing system and sourcing information that aides organizations in meeting international best practices.

Computer, the centerpiece of ICT, is the focus of this study. The overwhelming positive influence of computer application can be observed in teaching, research and administration. To enable the academic and non-academic college staff to perform optimally, the Government and Management have graciously provided computers for use in their offices. However, staff ability to use the computer is yet to be determined, hence the need for this study. The keenness to carry out this investigation was born out of the desire to determine staff ability to use ICT in teacher education programmes in Nigerian institutions using Colleges of Education in the South East Zone as a case study. The overall purpose of this study therefore is to verify the research hypothesis in this study as a basis for encouraging the Colleges to maintain and improve the quality of their staff in rendering quality educational services and in producing human resources that will help develop better computer skills in the discharge of their duties.

Literature related to this topic has revealed that many studies have been done on the various aspects of ICT. Yusuf (2005) investigated teacher's efficiency in implementing computer education in Nigerian secondary schools and reports that most staff in the secondary institutions in Nigeria do not have the   necessary experience and competence in the use of computer for educational purposes. He further stated that most male and female staff lacks competence in basic computer operations. Nwankwo, Obunadike and Ughamadu (2011) carried out a study on the relevance of ICT in improving the quality of junior secondary school (JSS) teaching in Onueke Education Zone of Ebonyi Sate. The study found that the teachers were not adequately exposed to ICT.   In his report, Nwachukwu (2006) affirmed that some Nigerian teachers have been unable to find effective ways of using computers in their classrooms and other areas of their teaching due to the lack of interest and devotion to acquire the required skills. Ololube (2005) investigated this phenomenon and found that the lack of interest in learning how to use a computer in the classroom was due to the staff not being well informed, encouraged and trained in the use of computer as a means of facilitating teaching. Moreover, Lynch (2002) reports that irrespective of pressure put on staff members to integrate ICT in their teaching activities, many remained reluctant to do so. Awuja-Ademu and Kpangban (2011) believe that the greatest obstacle in the use of ICT in educational institutions is not necessarily the lack of technology or funds but simply unwillingness to use the technology because staff

members may see it as a potential source of stress. Ogba and Igu (2011) investigated staff opinions regarding the use of computers in teaching at the senior secondary level. The results revealed that some staff is less willing to use a computer, based on their belief that ICT is difficult to use.

A synthesis of the above studies shows a relationship with the present study as each focused on an aspect of ICT. However, the difference in content and geographical scope makes this present study highly necessary because of the identified existing gap. Therefore it is against this background that this study is poised to cover the existing gap in knowledge. This study was conducted in Nigeria using Colleges of Education in the South East Geo-political Zone as a case study. This zone is made up of five states namely Abia, Anambara, Ebonyi, Enugu, and Imo. These states have the same cultural affinity and they are agrarian in nature. Secondly they value education which has guided the interest in studying them.

Statement of the Problem

Observations have shown that most staff have computers but are disinterested in using them for the performance of their duties. The researchers are worried that if staff is not kept abreast with the use of computers, it may hinder their professional development and their service delivery may be of poor quality hence, impacting negatively on the growth and development of their institutions. The problem of this study therefore is what is the present use of ICT among staff members in Colleges of Education for effective service delivery?

Research Questions

The study was guided by the following research questions.
1.   What is the Staff members' ability to access information using the computer?
2.   What is the Staff members' ability to store information using the computer?
3.   What is the Staff members' ability to analyze information using the computer?

Hypothesis
One null hypothesis tested at 0.05 degree of significance guided the study.
HO_1:   There is no significant difference in the mean responses of academic and non-academic staff on the   ability of staff members to store information using the computer.

Methodology

The study employed a descriptive survey design. The population comprised all of the 1803 academic and 2696 non-academic staff of the five Colleges of Education in South East Geo-Political Zone of Nigeria, total being 4499 staff members.(Source: Personnel Unit of the Colleges of Education, 2014). Using a stratified random sampling technique 315 academic and 555 non-academic staff was sampled for the study. A 27 item structured questionnaire titled: Present ICT Use among Staff in Nigerian Colleges of Education Questionnaire (PICTSNCEQ) was the instrument used to elicit information from the respondents. Four experts participate in the data collection: two from the Department of Educational Foundations Ebonyi State University; one from the Measurement and Evaluations Department of Nnamdi Azikikwe University, Akwa; and one from Computer Science Department of Ebonyi State College of Education, Ikwo. Their corrections led to the modification of the instrument. The instrument was structured on a 4 point rating scale of Strongly Agree (SA) = 4, Agree (A) = 3, Disagree (D) = 2 and Strongly Disagree (SD) = 1. The Cronbach Alpha method was adopted to establish the internal consistency and it yielded a reliability index of 0.81 which was judged to be adequately high for the study. With the help of five research assistants, the researchers administered and collected the questionnaires from the respondents. All were returned duly completed representing 100% return. The return rate was made possible because of the instruction given to the research assistants to ensure on the spot collection of filled questionnaires. The mean and standard deviation were used to determine the reliability of the data the decision rule was that any mean value above 2.50 is accepted while any mean value below 2.50 is not accepted for interpretation. The t-test statistic was used to test the hypothesis at 0.05 level of significance.

Results

<u>Research Question 1</u>

What is the staff members' ability to access information using the computer?
Staff members are able to:

S/N	ITEMS	ACADEMIC							NON - ACADEMIC						
		SA	A	D	SD	X	SD	INT	SA	A	D	SD	X	SD	INT
1.	Boot the computer	99	90	83	43	2.77	43	A	109	138	238	76	2.50		A
2.	Identify search engines without assistance	77	81	128	29	2.63	0.98	A	107	230	130	88	2.64		A
3.	Access information	65	95	105	29	2.63	0.98	A	107	230	130	88	2.64		NA
4.	Arrange data	20	15	135	145	1.71	0.98	NA	127	161	170	97	2.57		A
5.	Select websites for use	30	35	135	115	2.31	0.54	NA	99	110	160	186	2.05		NA
6.	Send information to the storage device	57	80	77	101	2.29	0.48	NA	120	168	177	90	2.57		A
7.	Highlight the information on the computer	45	88	79	103	2.23	0.49	NA	110	100	182	163	2.28		NA
8.	Copy information without assistance	75	60	119	61	2.47	0.41	NA	121	199	152	83	2.65		A
9.	Paste the information on the right place	10	30	31	244	2.15	0.38	NA	81	101	215	158	2.18		A
10.	Edit information using application packages	60	71	80	104	2.76	0.99	A	71	89	230	165	2.11		A
	Cluster mean					2.11		NA					2.40		NA

Table 1: Mean Ratings of staff on ability to access information using the computer

Table 1 indicates the staff ability to access information using computer. Result of the data collected shows that items number 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9 revealed that academic staff find it difficult to arrange, select, send, highlight, copy and paste information. The cluster mean is 2.11 which is far below the cut off mean set for the study. This implies that academic staff members' ability to use computer to access information is still very low.

In the case of non-academic staff, items number 3, 5, 7 and 9 showed that non-academic staff cannot select, highlight and paste information. This was shown by their mean scores that were below the cut off mean of 2.50. The cluster mean for the non-academic is 2.40 which are a bit lower than the 2.50 set for the study, therefore is not accepted.

Research Question 2

What is the Staff members' ability to store information using the computer?
Staff members are able to:

| S/N | ITEMS | ACADEMIC | | | | | | | NON - ACADEMIC | | | | | | |
		SA	A	D	SD	X	SD	INT	SA	A	D	SD	X	SD	INT
11.	Boot the computer	88	90	50	87	2.56	0.67	NA	191	201	101	62	2.93		A
12.	Enter data into the computer	25	39	105	146	1.81	0.54		162	193	102	96	2.76		A
13.	Store information using the primary storage device(hard disc)	69	89	103	54	2.54	0.71	A	121	204	129	101	2.62		A
14.	Create backup to their files using CD-ROM/ Flash drive	93	117	89	16	2.91	1.01	A	125	202	128	100	2.63		A
15.	Store information using pdf	55	60	122	78	2.29	0.72	NA	112	99	87	251	2.11		NA
16.	*Create data base to reflect different files*	*39*	*47*	*122*	*131*	*1.98*	*0.60*	*NA*	*132*	*109*	*217*	106	2.44		NA
17.	Use application packages easily	17	28	110	160	1.68	0.35	NA	92	73	108	282	1.95		NA
18.	Search for already stored information	90	64	111	50	2.62	0.76	A	123	201	97	134	2.54		A
19.	Operate the system that has internet network	31	43	88	153	1.84	0.11	A	87	125	107	236	2.11		NA
	Grand mean					2.24		NA					2.45		NA

Table 2: Mean Ratings of Staff on staff members' ability to store information using the computer.

In Table 2, items numbers 12, 15, 16, 17 and 19 for academic staff on entering data, using pdf to store information, creating data based on computer, being able to use application packages easily and operating internet network easily had mean scores below the criterion mean of 2.50 set for the study. With a cluster mean of 2.24

that is below the cut off mean, it is therefore not accepted. Non-academic staff items numbers 15, 16, 17 and 19 scored 2.45 which is below the cut of mean of 2.50 and is therefore not accepted.

Research Question 3
What staff member's ability to analyze information using the computer?
Staff members are able to:

S/N	ITEMS	ACADEMIC							NON - ACADEMIC						
		SA	A	D	SD	X	SD	INT	SA	A	D	SD	X	S D	INT
20.	Use spread sheet easily	75	70	110	60	2.50	0.66	A	137	155	183	80	2.62		A
21.	Key in data with no difficulty	72	15	118	110	2.79	1.05	A	182	90	127	156	2.54		A
22.	Arrange data with provided tools easily	56	71	66	122	2.19	0.18	NA	99	105	213	138	2.29		NA
23.	Use provided tools to edit data	61	47	39	168	2.00	0.50	NA	115	141	167	132	2.43		NA
24.	Sort data in the desired form	33	29	88	165	1.77	0.34	NA	108	127	89	234	2.17		NA
25.	Apply appropriate formula in analyzing data	*81*	*94*	*120*	*20*	*2.74*	*0.97*	*A*	*121*	*167*	*181*	116	2.63		A
26.	Arrange data based on relationship	14	21	87	193	1.54	0.31	NA	77	150	201	127	2.31		NA
27.	Arrange data in order of hierarchy	41	66	89	119	2.09	0.62	NA	97	179	114	165	2.37		NA
	Grand MEAN					2.19		NA					2.42		NA

Table 3: Mean Ratings of Staff on staff member's ability to analyze information using the computer.

Table 3 shows staff members' ability to analyze information using the computer. The items on numbers 21, 23, 24 and 26 for academic and non-academic scored below 2.50 criterion mean set for the study. Their mean of means are 2.19 and 2.42 respectively implying that ICT has not impacted positively on staff ability to analyze information using provided tools to edit information and arrange data in hierarchical order.

Hypothesis

HO$_1$: There is no significant difference in the mean responses of academic and non-academic staff on staff ability to store information using the computer,.

	N	X	SD	Df	t-cal	t-crit	Response
Academic	315	2.92	0.93				
Non-academic	555	3.01	0.94	868	0.64	1.96	Accepted

Not significant at P<0.05

Table 4: t-test analysis of the responses of academic and non-academic staff on staff members' ability to store information using the computer.

The result in table 4 showed that the calculated t-value of 0.64 is less than t-critical value of 1.96 at 0.05 level of significance with a degree of freedom of 868, (0.64<0.05). This null hypothesis HO$_1$ is not rejected implying that the null hypothesis is upheld. This means that there is no significant difference in the mean opinions of academic and non-academic staff on staff member's ability to store information using the computer.

Discussion

The finding of the study revealed generally poor utilization of computers in South Eastern Colleges of Education Nigeria. Results in table one showed that academic and non-academic staff lack the required skills for using computer to access information. This finding is in line with the report of Yusuf (2005) that most staff in educational institutions in Nigeria do not have the required experience and competence in the use of computer for educational purposes. Nwankwo et al (2011) warned that if ICT, which had brought about rapid transformation globally in teaching and administration in educational institutions, is not facilitated in Nigerian educational institutions, future generations will be operating with parochial knowledge which may affect every sector of the economy. Supportively, Hooker (2009) affirms that ICT is the engine that harnesses new growth that energizes societies to change into knowledge economy.

The results in table two which is addresses the staff members' ability to store information revealed that both academic and non-academic staff find it difficult to store information using computer. This result agrees with the report of Nwachukwu (2006) that staff in educational institutions in Nigeria is not effective in the use of computers in school operational activities. Lynch (2005) noted with dismay that irrespective of pressure mounted on staff to integrate ICT in their school service delivery, they are still reluctant and adamant. In line with the above, Awuja-Adamu and Kpangban (2011) report that the obstacle to the use of ICT is not lack of facilities per se but unwillingness to the use of the technology.

Result of data analysis in table three which addresses staff members' ability to analyze information using computer showed that staff competency to the above is low. This result is in line with the report of Ogba and Igu (2011) which revealed that a significant number of staff tend to avoid computers. This may be why Ololube (2005)

had earlier reported that the staff of educational institution generally lack interest in learning to use a computer due to lack of encouragement, training and information. A possible reason for the observed results might be caused by not diffusing and adopting innovation rapidly as reported by Rogers and Scot (1999), even when such innovations have obvious proven advantages. This is very interesting finding given that academics should be able to use a computer in order to do researches.However, it should be noted that non-academic staff use computer to prepare vouchers and sending these to different account numbers for the transfer of monetary funds. They also take note of facilities in the schools and do the recording as well. This may have helped to facilitate their performance when compared to those of the academic staff.

The implication of the above results is that students trained by these lectures are most likely not to be challenged in the use of computers and this could affect their chances of employment as no employer in this era of ICT would want to employ people who are not effective and efficient in the use of computers. Secondly it implies that these human resources may not be able to compete with their counterparts in the developed world.

Conclusion

Quality of human resources produced in a particular nation depend upon the quality, competency and quantity of staff in the educational institutions who are able to provide quality service delivery through knowledge and skills they have acquired during training. ICT has been accepted as the engine that harnesses new growth and which has energized societies to change into knowledge economy because of its revolutionary impact on organizations. The educational institutions in Nigeria, especially at the Colleges of Education, who train teachers should embrace this innovation to ensure the production of quality and competent graduates will stand up to societal challenges and compete with their peers nationally and internationally.

Recommendations
Based on the findings of the study, the following recommendations are made:
- The National Commission for Colleges of Education in Nigeria should make a policy that any staff member, who is not ICT compliant, will not be promoted.
- The College Management should send their staff to ICT training that upgrades their ICT knowledge.
- Staff should be encouraged through workshops to improve their use of ICT.
- College Management should regularly organize workshops and seminars on ICT for staff development.
- College Management should negotiation with dealers for better laptop prices for their staff.

References

Anowor, O.O. (2010). Imperatives of ICT for teachers. A paper presented at the 2010 Nigerian academy of education (NAE) at glory land cultural centre, Yenagoa-Bayelsa State: 8-12 November.

Awuja-Ademu, S. & Kpangban, E. (2011). Information and communication technology impact on teachers perceptions of Headmaster's administrative effectives. Approaches in International Journals of research development 5(1) 296 – 302.

Beebe, M.A. (2004). Impact of ICT revolution on the African academic landscape. COD ESRIA Conference of electronic publishing and dissemination: Dakar, Senegal 1 -1 -2 Sept 2004. http://www.codestra.org/links/conferences/elpubl/beebe.pdf.

Hooker, M. (2009). Concept Note: The state of ICT in teacher professional development. Ireland:DubinMary.hooker@gesci.org Retrieved 29th April, 2010.

Nwachukwu, P.O. (2006). Appraising the relationship between ICT usage and integration and the standard of teacher education programmes in developing economy. International Journal of Education. http://ijedict.dec.uwi.edu/viewarticle.php=194 reviewed

Nwankwo, I.N. Obunadike, J.C. & Ughamadu, U. (2011). The relevance of ICT in improving the quality of JSS teachers in Onueke Education zone of Ebonyi State. In G.C. Offorma (ed) International Journal of education research (INJER) 11(2) 124 – 133.

Ogba, F.N. & Igu, N.C.N. (2013). Imperative of information communication technology (ICT) in the enhancement of continuous assessment in secondary schools in Ebonyi State. A paper delivered at Ebonyi State college of education conferencing organized by school Arts and Social Science 19 – 20 Sept. 2013.

Olulube, N.P. (2006). Teachers instructional material utilization competencies in secondary schools in sub-sahara Africa: Professional and non professional teachers perspective. In conference proceedings on 6th international educational technique Emu, 19 – 21 April 2006 North Cyprus.

UNESCO (2002). Information and communication technologies in teacher education. A Planning guide. Paris UNESCO.

Yusuf, M.O. (2005). ICT and education: Analyzing the Nigerian National Policy for Information Technology. International Education Journal 6(3) 16 – 32.

Teachers Use of Social Studies Methods in Gombe Local Government Nigeria

Salisu A. Rakum
Faculty of Education, Federal University Kashere
PMB 0182, Gombe, Gombe State-Nigeria

Abstract

The burden of preparing the 21st century citizen depends to a larger extent on teachers. The teacher has the important task of not only enriching the citizen with requisite knowledge and skills but also to equip him with good attitudes, morals and character. Social Studies have been identified as one of the school subjects that can bring about the desired change in character, especially where this subject is taught by effective teachers, who have good mastery of their subject matter and can vary their methods of teaching to suit appropriate lesson topics. Teachers' mastery and skillful application of methods in the teaching-learning process goes a long way in bringing the desired change in the learner's behavior. It is in this vein, that this study explored social studies teachers used of methods at the basic/primary education level. All the 46 Social Studies teachers in Gombe Local Government Area of Nigeria were observed in two lessons per week, for five weeks. The teaching method they used during each lesson was appropriately ticked on a Social Studies Method Observation Checklist (SSMOC), which had 15 items. Two research questions guided the study. Data were analyzed using frequencies, percentages and ranks. Findings revealed that lecture, demonstration and discussion methods were the top three most frequently used methods, while simulation, project and construction methods were the bottom three methods less frequently used BY teachers.

Key Words: Teachers, social studies, methods.

Introduction

The 21st century is witnessing innovations and transformation in virtually all spheres of human endeavor. There are wide range of knowledge, skills and attitudes that are expected to be acquired by the 21s' century citizens. Acquisition of such vast array of knowledge and skills are important, equally important is the acquisition of good attitudes. Social Studies have been recognized by the Nigerian school curriculum as a vital instrument for inculcating good attitudes in learners, especially those at the Primary or Basic Education level of the education system. This explains why Social Studies is a core Basic Education course in Nigeria, whether taught in public or private schools. Unfortunately studies have indicated that private schools have consistently out-performed public schools in Social Studies learning achievement (National Teachers' Institute, 2010). This is worrisome because less privileged children whose parents cannot afford the high cost of private schools are left with no alternative to good education as enjoyed in private schools.

Attitude is considered pivotal to human survival, according to Kassin (2009), attitude means those positive qualities that make somebody interesting or attractive. In this study attitude refers to the totality of good morals that make an individual receptive to other people's feelings and where necessary offer a useful assistance that can help redeem the situation. The 21st century Nigeria has witnessed disorder, chaos, lawlessness, mayhem its citizens must be adequately prepared to face the challenges of rising terrorism, insurgency, drug abuse, corruption, ethnic crisis, religious crisis, human trafficking as well. If the teaching of Social Studies can help reposition the attitudes of Nigerians, all Social Studies teaching must exploit all possible avenues to ensure effective teaching of the subject.

Social studies is the study of man in his physical and social environment (Ololobou 2010). This means it is concern with reciprocal relationship between man and various aspects of his environment. The general purpose of social studies education is to help learners develop the ability to adapt to the ever-changing environment, where they live in. With these objectives in mind, Social Studies was formally introduced into the Nigerian school curriculum as one of the major innovations of the 1969 curriculum conference and is expected to be taught at all levels including the primary education level.

The primary school Social Studies curriculum have been revised four times since 1971. The aim of teaching social studies at the primary school level according to the Social Studies curriculum 2007, revised 2009 are to enable the learner to:
a)   Develop the ability to adapt to his or her changing environment.
b)   Became responsible and disciplined individual capable and willing to contribute to the development of their societies.
c)   Inculcate the right types of values.
d)   Develop a sense of comprehension towards other people, their diverse cultures, history and those fundamental things that make them human.
e)   Develop the capacity to recognize the many dimensions of being human in different cultural and social contexts.
f)   Develop a sense of solidarity and sharing, based on a sense of security in one's own identity, (Federal Ministry of Education, 2007).

To ensure the attainment of the above stated objectives, the curriculum recommended, among others, methods for teaching Social Studies at the Primary/Basic Education level. No Social Studies curriculum can be successfully implemented without using the appropriate method of teaching. Method is an important aspect in curriculum implementation, it is the general way the teacher organizes his lesson (Rakum, 2013). As soon as curriculum content is made available for implementation, one of the most important steps to be taken by the teacher is the selection of relevant teaching methods, that he will use in the course of implementation. Inability of the teacher to identify relevant teaching method signifies a dangerous gap which may put his lesson and the entire education system in jeopardy, such a scenario should be avoided.

Pre-service teachers are trained in teacher training institutions and the curriculum for such training usually includes studies in Educational Foundations, Teaching Practice, at least one Teaching Subject and and more importantly methods of teaching. It is, therefore, not expected of a trained teacher to be found wanting in the choice and use of appropriate teaching methods. The teacher must use his initiatives to vary his teaching methods to suit different lesson topics, "teachers have a 'make or break' role in curriculum…"(p.14) (Kelly, 2009:14). Social Studies teachers must, therefore, put in all efforts to make their lesson successful, especially at the primary/basic education level. Basic education in Nigeria, is a 9 year program, comprising 6 years of primary education and 3 years of Junior Secondary School education. There are curricula for each subject taught at the two levels. All social studies teachers are expected to have received the correct training while in college, the methods suggested for teaching social studies as contained in the curriculum are not at variance with what teacher in college during pre-service training. If what is alleged here is true, then all social studies teachers should be able to use the relevant method for each topic they teach. On the contrary the National Teachers Institute (2010) and Federal Ministry of Education (2009) have expressed dissatisfaction with the level of teacher's use of teaching methods at the primary school level. This expression of dissatisfaction with what obtains in an education system is upsetting. A situation where teachers seem not to be using appropriate teaching method is unacceptable. It signifies an anomaly and discrepancy, between curricular provision and actual practice. This gap if not properly addressed may result in poor lesson delivery, meaning school leavers may not be internationally competitive, the Nigerian work force may lack good attitude and morals, with concomitant effect on the country's international image. Worst still the preponderance of social ills may rise to unmanageable level. It is in this vein that this study investigated social studies teachers' use of teaching method.

The purpose of this study was therefore to determine social studies teachers' use of teaching methods. Specifically the study sought to;
1) Investigate the extent to which primary six social studies teachers vary their teaching methods from one lesson to another, within the range of possible methods suggested by the curriculum.
2) To rank social studies methods according to the frequency with which they are used by teachers.

Method

Participants

All the 46 primary six Social Studies teachers in Gombe Local Government Area were studied. Out of this 19 were female and 27 were male.

Research Design

The study adopted an observational survey design. The two variables of interest are Social Studies teachers and Social Studies methods of teaching.

Measures

The instrument for data collection was Teachers' Use of Social Studies Method Observation Checklist (SSMOC). It is a 15 item observation checklist, adopted from Gurin (1994) with modifications. With an internal consistency of 0.76, Gurin's Social Studies Teachers' Use of Methods Checklist (SSTUMC) was validated by three experts in Social Studies, Curriculum Studies and Test and Measurement,. Gurin's SSTUMC was used to measure Social Studies teachers' use of five methods (inquiry, lectures, discussion, dramatization and role-play). To suit this study it was modified to include 15 methods (lecture, demonstration, story-telling, discovery, project, simulation, problem-solving, role-play, dramatization, inquiry, field-trip, construction, activity, play and questioning methods).

Procedure

The researcher and 10 trained research assistants, who were third year students in a College of Education, observed all the 46 social studies teachers while they were teaching, in two lessons per week, for five weeks, they ticked the appropriate method used by the teacher in each lesson. Data was analyzed using frequency counts, percentage and ranking.

Results

The results of the study were obtained from data generated by the SSMOC and reported in Table 1 and 2.

Research Question 1:

To what extent do primary six social studies teachers change their teaching methods from one lesson to another, within the range of possible methods suggested by the currilum?

Method	Frequency of Use	Percentage
Activity	18	3.91
Construction	04	0.87
Demonstration	91	19.78
Discussion	41	8.91
Dramatization	26	5.65
Field trip	08	1.74
Inquiry	04	0.87
Lecture	149	32.39
Play way	25	5.43
Problem solving	18	3.91
Project	00	0.00
Questioning	14	3.04
Role-play	20	4.35
Simulation	02	0.43
Story telling	40	8.70
TOTAL	460	100

Table 1 Frequency and Percentages of Social Studies Teachers Use of Methods

Table 1: Shows that primary six social studies teachers do not change their teaching methods often. The result shows that teachers concentrated on the use of lecture, demonstration, discussion and story-telling, while the use of simulation, construction and inquiry methods were minimal, project method was not used throughout the period of observation.

Research Question 2
Where would each method rank when arranged according to the frequency with which they are used by teachers.

Method	Frequency	Percentage	Rank
Lecture	149	32.39	1st
Demonstration	91	19.78	2nd
Discussion	41	8.91	3rd
Story telling	40	8.70	4th
Dramatization	26	5.65	5th
Play	25	5.43	6th
Role play	20	4.35	7th
Problem solving	18	3.91	8th
Activity	18	3.91	8th
Questioning	14	3.04	10th
Field trip	8	1.74	11th
Inquiry	4	0.87	12th
Construction	4	0.87	12th
Simulation	2	0.43	14th
Project	0	0.00	15th
Total	460	100	

Table 2 Ranks of Social Studies Methods According to Frequency of Used

Table 2 shows that lecture, demonstration, discussion and storytelling methods were the top three in rank. While project, inquiry, construction and simulation comes at the rear occupying twelve fourteenth and fifteenth ranks.

Discussion

The findings of this study as presented in Table 1 and 2 were anticipated, they agreed with the findings of Gurin (1994), Ikoro and Nwangbo (2011) Braimoh, Owolabi and Braimoh (2012) who in their respective studies discovered that teachers use lecture and demonstration method more often than other methods. Teachers' inability to vary their methods of teaching can be attributed to several factors, such as class size, inadequate instructional materials or poor lesson preparation. This finding supports the theory that ill prepared teachers often resort to use of teacher centered methods, such as lecture and storytelling, (Afangideh, 2009).Lecture method seem to be dominant (ranking first with 149 frequency) this is not the best for an education system where teachers are expected to vary their teaching methods.
The population of the study would have included all social studies teachers in Gombe State while the observation period would have been the entire school term,

instead of five weeks. This was not possible due inadequate funds and the fact that, the observation period dove-tailed into the research assistants" second semester in college. However subsequent attempt will address these lapses. This study supports the theory that in curriculum implementation differences between theory (planned) and practice (actual implementation) may occur.

Conclusion

The findings from this study serve as the basis for making the following conclusion.
1) Teachers seem not to vary their teaching methods within the range of possible methods suggested by the curriculum.
2) Teachers tend to use methods that do not require strenuous planning especially those that require use of instructional materials.
3) Effective methods that are learner centered and have potentials for greater learning achievement of pupils are not used often.

Based on the findings of this study the following recommendation is made;
1) For effective preparation of 21st century citizens all teachers are required to vary their teaching methods to suit their lesson topics.
2) Head teachers should supervise lessons as often as they can, to ensure and emphasize the use of learner centered methods of teaching.
3) The Local Government Education Authority should commission experts to give a workshop on use of teaching methods, with a view to build teachers' capacity to vary their teaching methods.
4) The Local Government Education Authority and any other responsible agency should provide all the instructional resources for teaching social studies as recommended in the social studies curriculum.

References

Ahmad, T.S. (2012). Application of inquiry approach to skills acquisition in JSS social studies for functional entrepreneurship in Nigeria. *Nigerian Journal of Curriculum Studies 19 (4), 54-63.*

Azunku, F.W. & Ikoro, S.I. (2011). Re-training needs of primary school teachers for efficiency in adopting inclusive education. *Nigerian Journal of Curriculum Studies 18 (2),* 180-184

Braimoh, D.S. Owolabi, T. & Braimoh. M.A. (2012), A framework for primary science pedagogy and constructivism: The curriculum perspective. *Nigerian Journal of Curriculum Studies 19(4)* 118-128.

Kassin, S.(2009). Social psychology. Microsoft Encarta (DVD). Redmond WA: Microsoft Corporation 2008.

Federal Republic of Nigeria. (2004). National policy on education (4th Edition). Lagos: NERDC Press.

Federal Ministry of Education. (2007). 9-year Basic Education Curriculum: Social studies for primary 4-6. Abuja: Printed by Universal Basic Education Commission (UBEC). Federal Ministry of Education (2009). National teacher education policy. Abuja: Federal Ministry of Education.

Gurin, R.A.S. (1994). Analysis of the Nigerian certificate in education (NCE) social studies programs in relation o curriculum integration. Unpublished Ph.D Thesis University of Maiduguri

Kelly, A. V. (2009). The curriculum: Theory and practice (6th Edition).London: SAGE Publications Limited

National Teachers' Institute (2010). An NTI-TESSA Integrated manual for re-training of primary school teachers: Social studies, millennium development goals (MDGs) project. Kaduna: National Teachers Institute.

Ololobou, C.O. (2010). Methodology approach in social studies education. Kano: Jaleyemi Graphic and General Enterprises.

Rakum, S. A. (2013). The nature of learning process. In Rakum, S. A., Gimba, E. M., Daramola, I. S., Mangvwat, B. & Saidu. S. (Eds.). Rudiments of effective teaching (pp. 1-9). Bauchi: Deelish Nigeria Enterprises.

THE FUNCTION OF FOLKTALES AS A PROCESS OF EDUCATING CHILDREN IN THE 21ST CENTURY: A CASE STUDY OF IDOMA FOLKTALES.

Halima I. Amali

Division of General Studies,
University of Maiduguri,
Borno State, Nigeria

ABSTRACT

The value of folktales in traditional society cannot be overemphasized. This very important genre of traditional literature plays a significant role in imparting educational, traditional, cultural, religious and social ideologies of the society to growing children. Also, modern written literature is believed to be borne out of the traditional oral genre, one of which is folktales. Folktales serve as a source for creative inspiration that leads to the emergence of several works in modern literature. However, despite these sterling qualities of folktales, it is endangered with extinction. The need therefore arises for an interface between the folktale genre and the media where the latter intervenes in the promotion of the genre for its sustenance in society.

This study examines the function of folktales as a process of educating and preparing children for 21st century challenges. It is observed that children stand to benefit from lessons derivable from folktales. Idoma folktales have various lessons imbibed in them. Some of these lessons include discipline, moral uprightness, hard work and courage. There are also lessons which teach the child to stand against vices such as theft, rudeness, hatred, wickedness and dishonesty.

Keywords: Idoma folktales, education, literature, African oral genre

INTRODUCTION

Folktales are an integral part of the African oral society. They usually relate to, and elucidate the various cultural and traditional aspects of a society from which they evolve. Folktales perform salient functions of serving as sources of entertainment, enlightenment on cultural orientation and traditions of the people, educating the young of the various aspects of society. Since folktales portray the values and traditions of a society, where the young and adults alike learn through the events conveyed, the function of this traditional oral genre of folktales can therefore not be over emphasized. The practice of folktale telling was common in traditional societies in the past, where parents and other members of families told stories to young ones, usually after the evening meal. It is a lively process, which, as put by Samson-Akpan (1986:67), can be "likened to an integrated classroom. Children, teenagers and adults attend and participate in it". In the past, the telling of folktales was a common practice in primary schools, where some class periods were dedicated to this activity.

This paper elucidates Idoma folktales and the various educational values and functions derivable from them in preparing the child for the 21st Century. It is an aspect of traditional education from which children imbibe some of the needed lessons they should acquire from the society, which a traditional form of education seeks to achieve. Fafunwa (1974:13) observes that:

> The aim of traditional African education is
> multilateral and the end objective is to produce
> an individual who is honest, respectful, skilled,
> co-operative and conforms to the social order of
> the day.

Educational aims and objectives、 either in the traditional or modern fame, prepare a child to rise, develop and operate according to societal dictates and expectations. Idoma folktales contain educational orientations and events, which are useful for a child's educational developmental process. Therefore, such issues which direct the mind for good and acceptable societal lifestyles and behaviour are contained and demonstrated in the folktales of the Idoma people. Exposing children to these tales should educate them in what the society expects of its members. By education here, this researcher is referring to the complete circle of a child's training process, which next to reading and writing, includes the building of character, behaviour, social attitude, and intellect.

The paper also analyses Idoma folktales and the functions of the tales in educationally preparing the child towards the 21st Century. Folktale narration has been a traditional art in human societies since time immemorial. It is an art that offers very important functions in the traditional society in which it is practiced, and can also be applied in the present day situation in the education of the child.

Idoma folktales perform didactic, entertainment, enlightenment and educative functions, among others. Life and societal activities are imbibed in and mirrored in the folktales of the people, capturing the norms and values of people who own the tales. Mbiti (1966:31) observes that:

> Stories are to a certain extent the mirror of life;
> they reflect what the people do, what they think,
> how they live and have lived, their values, their

joys and their sorrows. The stories are also a means of articulating man's response to his environment.

This asserts the sterling qualities of folktales, which accord opportunities for the young and the old to interact, and the young learn from the events of the tales. These functions derived from folktale, can therefore be applied in the present day situation in the education of children The paper reviews the various categories of folktales with particular reference to the Idoma example. The functions of folktales are also explored, with examples from selected Idoma folktales analyzed in this paper.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Various research has been carried out which relate to the present study, some of which are presented in this segment of the paper. Bersgma and Ruth E. (1969) in their work *Tales Tiv Tell* present Tiv folktales written in the English language. It is one of the pioneering publications on Tiv Folktales which opened up their folktale genre to the world. This is unlike the Idoma case where their folktales are yet to see the light of day in such a published collection.

The conference proceeding and *African folktale* (1972) edited by Dorson contains articles relevant to this study, particularly those by Dan Ben Amos, Harold Scheub, Lee Harring and William Bascom. Dan Ben Amos presents an analysis of two Benin storytellers, while Bascom highlights the important aspects of African folktales. Also contained in Dorson's work is Harring's paper which examines certain literary features and characters of the African folktale in general, and which this researcher finds applicable to Idoma folktales.

A valuable book in the genre of African Oral literature is Ruth Finnegan's *Oral Literature in Africa*. Some sections of this book focus on folktales. The scholar examines literary issues which relate to the performance of folktales in traditional Africa. The various categories of African folktales are analyzed.

Skinner's Anthology of Hausa Literature (1980) highlights this group's tatsuniya (folktales) and other oral genres of the Hausa people. He observes that the performance of folktales in Hausaland, is told in the evening hour. Children are expected to listen attentively and learn from the lessons contained in the tales. The traditional Gbagyi people of Abuja, like the traditional Idoma people of lower Benue, have strong ties to traditional practices, one of which is folktales performance. This is the focus of discussion in a study by Amali (1986), where he reviews the impact of storytelling practice among the Gbagyi people. He observes folktale telling practice to have significant status in their traditional lifestyles. He further observes that folktales are employed for interpreting and analyzing their cultural values, as well as playing the function of promoting and instilling moral discipline among the youths for the purpose of building moral uprightness and standard.

In his work, Samson-Akpan (1986) analyses the impact of folktales in Education. The paper observes that folktales and folktale telling sessions imbibe dramatic and educative elements. These educative elements as presented in the paper include the structure and form of folktales, which arouse interest in the children and encourage group participation and mental alertness. The children learn of existing issues in the human and animal world as reflected through folktales.

A paper by Fayose (1989) holds that written literature was borne out of the oral genre such as folktales, myths and legends. He reveals that folklorists are good entertainers while the tales inspire writers in the present day.

Examining the functions Yoruba of folktales in educating children, Adeyemi (1997) focuses on the traditional methods employed in their training, specifically as may be inculcated through folktales. However, he asserts that the "incursion of colonialism and neo-colonialism in the Nigerian cultural life has altered the relevance of Yoruba folktales in training children. (p.118)". Adeyemi is however optimistic that there could be a turn-around for folktales to once more become a common tool in training children if educational planners focus on exploring their functions in the educational process.

In Amali's research on Idoma proverbs (1998), he pays attention to the relationship between Idoma proverbs and folktales. In the work, he observes that the relationship between proverbs and folktales is a lively one in which both genres are interwoven by each complementing and enhancing the quality of the other to give the desired effects. Proverbs are employed in the training process of children by imparting lessons or correcting them on errors they may have committed.

The relevance of an Idoma folktale narrator is the focus of Amali, H. (2003). In this study, she examines and analyses the tales as well as the themes and stylistic approach employed by a great folktale narrator Omaludo Igwu in the rendition of his tales. Similarly, in 2014, she carried out a study on meaning, function and performance of Idoma folktales. The work analyzes the various folktale types in Idomaland, the meanings and the functions derivable from the tales. From the foregone review of related literature, it can be observed that folktales are an integral part of traditional African society. Various functions are derivable from folktales as highlighted by the scholars here. It is therefore a fact that folktales form part of the educational tools in the training process of the child, in the traditional setting, and can also be applied in modern educational processes. This paper highlights the potency of applying folktales in the education of children by an analysis of the functions of this important traditional oral genre.

IDOMA FOLKTALES IN THE EDUCATION OF CHILDREN

Education is a life activity, which entails passing through learning processes and acquiring knowledge and other skills for positive development. Folktales are generally known to be a source of entertainment; however, as this researcher has observed above, the folktale genre performs other functions, one of which is education of children. This view similarly held by Tshiwala-Amadi (1980:92) who claims that:

> Folktales serve many functions in African
> society. In addition to providing entertainment,
> they have certain didactic qualities. They are
> used to educate the young; they help to establish
> social norms.

Several functions are therefore derivable from this oral genre as observed by Adeyemi (1997:115) in her reference to Yoruba folktales where she observes that folktales:

> can be used to inculcate in the children of pre-
> school age virtues such as humility, gratitude,
> respect for elders and constituted authority,

> perseverance, conformity to societal norms, co-
> operation, hospitality, truthfulness, honesty,
> willingness to take advice, patriotism, courage
> and love, loyalty to one's fatherland, hard work
> and the fear of God.

Folktales are categorized into types and themes. Themes in folktales focus on particular lessons in the tale for the listener to learn from. Functions in folktales on the other hand refer to the lesson one stands to gain from the events of the tale and the impact of this oral genre in instilling societal and educational values to its listeners.

In line with the above on functions of folktales, Paul (1992:19) observes that:

> Oral tales help to sooth the children's nerves at
> the end of a full day of activities. This sends
> them to a nice sleep that enables them to wake
> up early the following day both in mind and in
> body……..Oral tales also serve as an
> instructional medium. Tales give the listener
> the opportunity to understand the thought, ways
> and general history of his people. The tales also
> teach a moral. They try to inculcate in the
> listeners some moral concepts on why it is not
> good to be greedy, lazy, wicked, plan evil
> against one's neighbours.

For the purpose of this paper, three categories of Idoma folktales are analyzed to elucidate their functions in the education of the child. Each of the categories analyzed, states the functions derivable from them, as contained and reflected in the sample tales used in the analysis.

IDOMA MORAL TALES

These are folktales which focus mainly on instilling moral behaviour. Moral tales point to attitudes and effects of behavior. They demonstrate that good behaviour is positively rewarded and bad behaviour is punished. Paul (1992:13) asserts of moral tales to be:

> Tales told to show that good must be rewarded
> while evil does not and cannot go undetected
> and unpunished. They teach on why it is not
> good to be disobedient, greedy, lazy etc.

This category of folktales aims at good upbringing and acceptable behavior of children, and also checks indulgence in societal ills. This accounts for why in Idoma moral tales, issues such as acts of wickedness, theft, stinginess, unfaithfulness, dishonesty, hatred, and the like are accordingly punished. Children are encouraged to imbibe good attitudes such as honesty, sincerity, love, generosity, kindness, faithfulness, helpfulness, and the like. Some events in the tale highlight good character, which demonstrates such attitudes and which is clearly rewarded. To buttress this point is Achufusi's (1986:3) comment that moral stories:

> teach lessons about social life-lessons of morality. Some of them teach or demonstrate that greed, stubbornness and laziness are reprehensible in African societies: that cleverness and devotion to duty are prized qualities: that kindness and hospitality should prevail in one's relationships to strangers or visitors…….

In the same vein, Adeyemi (1997:114), refers to moral tales as:

> The tales in this category have their main theme the exhibition of some vice or wickedness such as treachery, theft, greed, cruelty, ingratitude, envy, lust and drunkenness. The purpose of the tale in each case is to show a character guilty of this vice.

Idoma moral tales can therefore direct the mind of children which should educate them to shun societal vices. Listening to the stories and being guided in the narrative process to learn direct their minds to absorb the morals taught in the lesson. This point is highlighted in the words of Achufusi (1986:1-2) as she holds that these folktales:

> serve as a means of enforcing conformity with social norms; of validating social institutions and religious beliefs and they help to provide psychological freedom from some society-imposed restrictions.

A good example of an Idoma moral tale is the one about a father's wife and his son from a previous marriage. The son lives with his father and step-mother, who has no children of her own. The step-son is hated by the father's wife who one day plans to get rid of him. She decides to send him on an errand to a land of "no return" to fetch her water. Nobody goes there and comes back alive. She directs the boy to leave very early in the morning for the river. He obliges and goes to his father's door to tell him he was leaving. The boy sings as he leaves. He meets some spirits along the way. They frown at his guts to dare be on that path. He cries and explains why he dares come the way to the land of "no return". This action causes the spirits to sympathize with him and they help him fetch water. They, however, give him some magical powers, which he puts in the pot of water. It is to teach the stepmother a lesson. Then the boy is instructed to break the pot in front of his stepmother as soon as he gets home. He walks home with the pot of water on his head. As he moves he sings along. When he is close to the house, the stepmother hears his voice and jumps out in surprise. She thought that the stepson would have been killed, but here he comes back, with the pot of water on his head. As soon as the boy gets to the step-mother, he lets down the pot of water and it breaks into pieces. Every piece of the broken pot turns into a wild snake attack the woman. She dies from the snake bites.

The moral lesson from this tale is for us to be kind rather than wicked. It also encourages love for one another, and that punishment awaits all evil acts. Furthermore, it demonstrates that an innocent person always finds a rescuer when in danger.

IDOMA AETIOLOGICAL TALES

Aetiological tales give explanations or reasons for events which are conveyed in the tale, highlighting why certain events take place or why other things are what they are. Paul (1992:12) defines Aetilogical tales as:

> Tales that explain the origin of man, his ancestors, his religion, his life, death etc. They give answers as to why and how certain things happen or came into being.

This category of tales therefore gives historical reasons on issues witnessed in the present, such as is the theme the Idoma folktale on "Why the hare no longer lives in houses". In this tale, Tortoise is interested in becoming the king of their land while the members of the community decide to enthrone the Hare.

Upon appointing the Hare, he is expected to be enthroned. A date is fixed for the coronation. This displeases the Tortoise, who decides to make an evil plan against the Hare. He suggests the coronation must not be done before constructing a new palace for the Hare. The Tortoise suggests that the Hare-king should be seated in the house while it is being erected. So the Hare, dressed in his kingly regalia, sits in the house as it is being built. Since the block is not dry and the roofing is heavy on the walls, it collapses on Hare, who narrowly escapes death. As it was a scary event for Hare, he then collects his family and runs off into the bush, out of fear of being harmed. Until today the hare and his family live in the bush. It is a deliberate plan by Tortoise to get Hare killed so that he can ascend the throne, but fails in his bid. Though the Hare has run away, the kingship is not handed down to the Tortoise.

He is scared about living with people. The tale importantly demonstrates the selfish and wicked attitude of Tortoise. These should be seen as negative attitudes, which are of no benefit to anyone because in the end the Hare is saved and the Tortoise fails to achieve his wicked ambition. A major lesson here is that doing evil does not facilitate achievements, rather deters it.

IDOMA DILEMMA TALES

Dilemma tales pose problems to the listeners who should offer solutions. This category of tales also demonstrates actions that encourage and convey acts of good behaviour. It encourages the listener to intellectually examine the issues raised. These may be questions unanswered or issues unconcluded. They also provide moral education and are didactic in nature for instilling good moral training and discipline in children. Achufusi (1986: 3) in her definition of dilemma tales states that:

> This constitutes a large, diverse and widespread group of very lively tales. Like Other African folk stories, they are didactic in content, and form an integral part of morals and ethical training in many African societies.

As observed above, the dilemma tale also has didactic functions, and evolves intellectual discourse among the listeners. There are questions as to what should happen to an erring character, or what and who should be positively rewarded.

Dilemma tales may involve human or animal characters that engage in adventures, competitive acts such as possessing a beautiful wife, and acquiring wealth or other material things. In this process, room is created for a dilemma to evolve, thereby gingering the listener-child into intellectual thinking to untie the riddle.

ANALYSIS

There are lots of educational benefits derivable from folktales, a traditional oral genre. This attests to the potency of the folktale as an educational tool. With the current technological gadgets available for use in collection, documentation, dissemination and promotion of folktales, today's children have abundant opportunity to access this oral genre. Folktale telling sessions can be presented to the child through television and radio programmes.
Through whatever medium the child accesses folktales, the lessons derivable from the tales are of important benefit in his educational training and upbringing as "men have used folktales for educational purposes for centuries. It had proved useful" (Samson-Akpan 1986:73). A major challenge with Idoma folktales is that they have not found or enjoyed the needed attention in documentation, dissemination and promotion. The folktale genre, is considered "the most popular genre of oral literature which serve several purposes" (Nwaozuzu 2007:322).
Among the Idoma people of the Lower Benue, their folktales, like those of other parts of Africa, consist of themes which project the society's norms and values. They are entertaining as well as didactic. In this regard, Nwaozuzu (2007:322) further asserts that folktales.

> Serve as a window through which social norms and values are mirrored. The reason for this is that a people's folktales are woven around their world view experiences, expectations and achievements.

This writer observes that folktales go beyond mere entertainment. They are an aspect of the people's traditions which have existed from one generation to the other and "embody values which they cherish and vices which they condemn".(Mireku-Gyimah 2010: 532). In them are to be found, salient functions of educating children to be a good citizens who can stand and work towards successfully achieving their life goals. Furthermore, they learn of the traditional norms and values of their community. The authorities concerned therefore may exploit the golden opportunity of harnessing our traditional folktales in the training process of children. Education entails a systematic instruction development of character or mental powers. Folktales possess educational potentials. Adeyemi (1997:114) attests to this assertion by stating that folktales:

> can be used to inculcate in the children of pre-school age virtues such as humility, gratitude, respect for elders and constituted authority, perseverance, conformity to societal norms, co-operation, hospitality, truthfulness, honesty, willingness to take advice, patriotism, courage and love, loyalty to one's fatherland, hard work and the fear of God

Bearing all the above in mind, exposing children to the folktale oral genre creates positive impacts on them. The main problem that may be encountered in this process may be the lack of adequate documentation of folktales. Most people seem to consider it a traditional part time art. This accounts for why children rather watch movies on television, play and listen to pop music, play video games and pass time on the computer than listen to folktales being told. However, there is hope in reverberating the genre.

CONCLUSION

Three categories of Idoma folktales, namely moral tales, aetioligical tales and dilemma tales are analyzed in this paper. Characters in folktales may be representative of the animal or human world. They portray the various events which relay societal norms and values. The events in the tales teach morals, discipline, societal traditions and they inspire mental alertness. Easily available technological gadgets in the present day facilitate the collection, documentation, dissemination and promotion of this traditional genre for easy access to all. The need arises for concerted efforts by all stakeholders concerned to facilitate this documentation process. Idoma folktales perform salient functions in educating children if they are utilized for such purpose. Adeyemi (1997:120) asserts that folktales can be promoted as he states:

> All is not lost, if the government, the parents, educational planners, publishers and teachers work together to halt the emergence of pop culture ravaging our nursery schools, Day care centres and individual homes nationwide.

The involvement of all stakeholders in standing up to the utilization of folktales in the education of children is germane. Folktales are globally recognized to perform significant functions in the society as asserted by Adeyemi (1997:113) thus:

> Among the Chaga of East Africa, Ogres, tales are used in the discipline of very young children and lullabies are sung to put them in a good behaviour. In Finland, folktales have been collected, and restructured to serve as their national literature for the purpose of teaching their young ones. Folktales in incorporating morals are introduced to inculcate general attitudes and principles such as diligence and filial piety, and to ridicule laziness, rebelliousness and snobbishness.

REFERENCES

Achufusi, G.I. (1986). "The Main Genres of African Traditional Literature". *Nigeria Magazine*. Vol. 54 No. 4. National Council for Arts and Culture. 1-8.

Adeyemi, Lere (1997). *Nigerian Folktales and its Contributions to Early Child Care Development and Education.* Centrepoint. Ilorin. University of Ilorin. 109-122.

Amali E.O.O (1984) "Form and Meaning of Idoma Otukpo Proverbs". M.A. Dissertation. Jos. University of Jos.

Amali, H. (2003). "The Tales of Omaludo Igwu and their Relevance to Otukpo Idoma". M.A. (African Literature) Dissertation. Maiduguri. University of Maiduguri.

Amali, S. (1986) "The Use of Storytelling to Reinforce Cultural Values: A Case Study of Gbagyi of Abuja ". *Nigeria Magazine.* Vol. 54. No. 3 Lagos. NCAC. 90-96

Bergsma H.M.& Ruth E. (1969).*Tales Tiv Tell*. Ibadan: Oxford University Press.

Fatunwa, Babs. (1974). *History of Education in Nigeria.* London. George Allen and Unwin.

Fayose, O.O (1989)"The Influence of Folktales on Written Fiction for Nigerian Youth." *Nigeria Magazine.* Vol. 57. No 3 and 4. Lagos. NCAC. 28-36

Finnegan, Ruth (1972) *Oral Literature in Africa.* London: Oxford University Press.

Mbiti, J.A. (1966). *Akanba Stories.* London. N.P.

Mireku-Gyimah, P.B. (2010) "The Relevance of Akan Folktales to the Exigencies of the Modern Era" *Obaconfab Book of Proceedings.* Abuja: National Commission for Museums & Monuments. 124-132.

Nwaozuzu, G.I (2007). "The Traditional Ibo Woman- A Villain or a Victor? A Study of the Image of Women in Igbo Folktales". In Idris Amali et al (eds.). 2007. *Rainbow Beyond the Clouds*: *Essays in Honour of Shamsudeen Amali*. Ibadan. Kraft Books. 308-321.

Nwosu, T.C. (1980). "African Traditional Oral Literature: An Introduction."*Nigeria Magazine* No. 130 − 131. Lagos: NCAC. 84-88.

Paul, W. (1992). *Notes on Bassa Folklore.* Abuja: Council for Arts and Culture.

Samson- Akpan, E.S. (1986)."Ibibio Folktales in Education". *Nigeria Magazine* Vol. 54, No. 4. Lagos. NCAC. 67-74

Skinner, N. (1980).*An Antololgy of Hausa Literature*. Zaria. Northern Nigeria Publishing Co. Ltd.

Tshiwala-Amadi, R. (1980). "The African Folklore". *Nigeria Magazine.* Lagos. NCAC. 89-93.

INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING

13 - 15 NOVEMBER 2014
DUBAI KNOWLEDGE VILLAGE DUBAI, UNITED ARAB EMIRATES

ORGANIZED BY THE 21ST CENTURY ACADEMIC FORUM

PROUDLY SPONSORED BY PEARSON

CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES IN LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING IN THE 21ST CENTURY

Table of Contents

The Application of Self-Determination Theory on the Opportunities and Challenges for Blended e-Learning in Motivating Egyptian Logistics Learners

Aisha Tarek Noour[1] and Dr. Nick Hubbard[2]

1 Division of Logistics, Transport and Tourism,
The Business School,
University of Huddersfield, UK
2 Division of Logistics, Transport and Tourism,
The Business School, University of Huddersfield, UK

Abstract

Nowadays, there is a movement towards a Blended e-Learning (BL) method, consisting of a mixture of virtual learning and Traditional Face-to-Face Learning (TF2FL) methods. BL is the integrated mixture of multiple methods of learning and the blending of virtual and physical resources (Kilkelly, 2009). This present study investigates the learners' perspective of the opportunities and challenges of BL according to the Self-Determination Theory (SDT) framework of Deci and Ryan (1985). It also categorises the opportunities and challenges for using BL in Logistics Education in Egyptian Higher Education. Therefore, it explores the SDT framework approach among intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation and amotivation in relation to the Basic Psychological Human Innate Needs: autonomy, relatedness and competence. A case study methodology was adopted incorporating quantitative data collection by means of a self-administered questionnaire from learners who were studying at the three Colleges of International Transport and Logistics at the Arab Academy for Science, Technology and Maritime Transport in Egypt. Six hundred and sixteen undergraduate respondents were drawn from three branches in Greater Cairo, Alexandria, and Port Said. The study data analysis used SPSS[22] and AMOS[18]. It suggests that the three Colleges of International Transport and Logistics at Arab Academy for Science, Technology and Maritime Transport should pay more attention to intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation and amotivation in relation to autonomy, relatedness and competence in the virtual learning environment, especially in BL.

Keywords: Blended e-Learning, Structural Equation Modeling, Self Determination Theory, and Learners Motivation.

Introduction

SDT proposes that motivation influences individual behaviour (Ryan & Deci, 2000). In an educational environment, learners can engage in virtual learning methods for the determination of increasing their degree of motivation. The rapid development of technology tools in education has been controversial, especially in terms of motivating learners. In a Traditional Face-to-Face Learning (from now onTF2FL) setting, learners can become more interested in using a virtual learning environment, as it provides them with powerful learning media tools. Dutton and Loader (2002) mentioned that the institutional providers of TF2FL classroom education should adapt to the virtual learning methods in order to survive in today's modern education industry. Blended Learning (from here on BL) is considered to be one of the modern virtual learning methods and is emerging as the new paradigm of alternative education. BL is a mixture of virtual learning and TF2FL methods, as it takes the advantages of both learning worlds. Throughout the virtual learning literature, BL is proven to be one of the best learning methods, as it improves learners' motivation internally and externally. Moreover, several studies from various domains have tried to explore the BL in motivating learners in higher education (Chen & Jang, 2010; Mahnken et *al.*, 2011). There is a need to pay full attention to identifying the exact opportunities and challenges of BL. Up to now, there appears to be little interest in the BL method for Logistics Education (LE), therefore this study paid a great attention to exploring the opportunities and challenges of BL in LE in Egypt.

An Overview of Self-Determination Theory

Motivation theorists have primarily treated the concept of motivation as having multi-dimensional perspectives (Boekaerts, 1997; Deci & Ryan 2008) as well as multi-level constructs (Boekaerts, 1997). The term motivation is classified as "the process whereby goal activity is instigated and sustained" (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002:5). SDT is one of the innovative motivation theories of the 1970s conceived by Deci and Ryan, when it was first formulated, and has gained prominence ever since (Kirk, 2010). This definition is now widely accepted, as it is multidimensional. Deci and Ryan (2008:182) identified SDT:

As a macro theory of human motivation, self-determination theory (SDT) addresses such basic issues as personality development, self-regulation, universal psychological needs, life goals and aspirations, energy and vitality, non-conscious processes, the relations of culture to motivation, and the impact of social environments on motivation, affect, behavior, and well-being.

By the mid 1980's, several developments materialized due to publications dedicated to SDT in different domains (Hasenfeld, 1987; Solomon, 1976), including education, psychology, medicine, counselling, health-care and sports. SDT "is a theory of human motivation that addresses individuals' initiation of behaviour" (Grolnick, 2015: 65). According to the studies of motivation, SDT has been thought of as a key factor in the disciplines of individual Basic Psychological Human Innate Needs: autonomy, competence and relatedness. The need for autonomy refers to

an individual having the freedom of decision making while performing a task (Deci & Ryan, 1985), while the need for competence is felt in producing and bringing about desired outcomes (Darner, 2014; Ntoumanis & Standge, 2009), competence being the ability to successfully master a task. The need for relatedness refers to the experience individuals feel in connecting to others (Kapp, 2013). Relatedness of connectivity and belongingness increases the mutual interest in the classroom. SDT has three different types of motivation: intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation and amotivation. Intrinsic motivation refers to individuals' activated feelings derived from spontaneous satisfaction from tasks undertaken and/or their accomplishment (Gagne & Deci, 2005). As shown in Figure 1, the continuum of self-determination reveals the regulatory styles, ranging from highest to lowest self-determined (from left to right) by Deci and Ryan (1985).
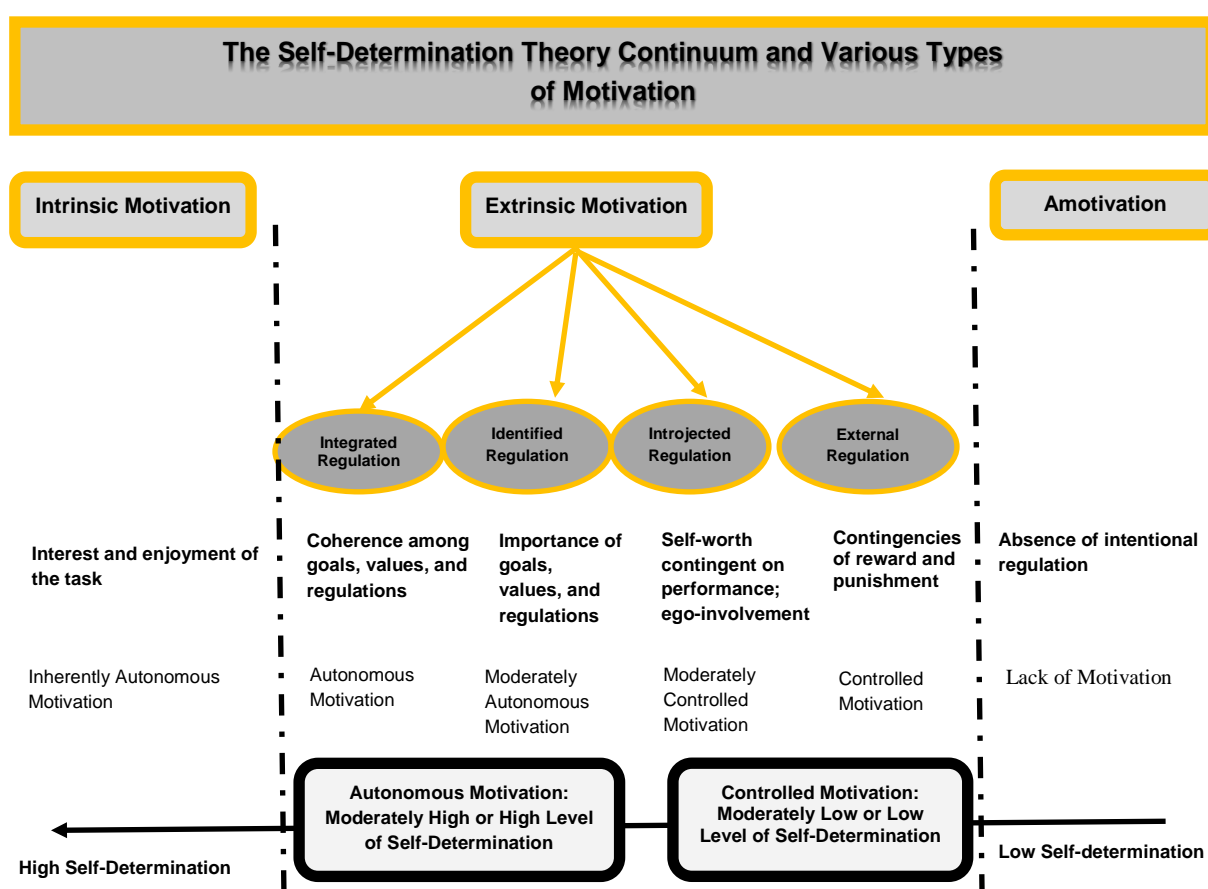

Figure 1 The Self-Determination Theory Continuum and Various Types of Motivation
Source: Gagne and Deci (2005) and Deci and Ryan (1985)

Intrinsic motivation occurs when individuals are accomplishing or undertaking an action or task for its own sense of pleasure, enjoyment, interest and inherent satisfaction (Vallerand & Ratelle, 2002). For example, intrinsic motivation provides learners with the advantages of greater creativity, flexibility, spontaneity, enjoyment, quality of work, increased attention, persistence, and study skills (Amabile, 1985; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Hidi & Harackiewicz, 2000). Extrinsic motivation is a concept identifying an individual experiencing a sense of accomplishing an activity because of a goal distinct from the activity itself (Lonsdale et *al.*, 2011). Bidee et *al.* (2013)

mentioned that extrinsic motivation has been divided into the following sub-types: integration, identified, introjected and external regulations. Spittle, Jackson, & Casey (2009) classified integrated regulation as a valuable task being integrated in an individual's behavior and having a sense of an end, not as pleasure. Integrated regulation is an individual performing activities for the sake of the accomplishment, which is very close to intrinsic motivation. However, Deci, Pelletier & Ryan (1991) mentioned that integrated regulation and intrinsic motivation are different as the tasks are vital for a valued outcome, not in the interest of the tasks themselves, as with intrinsic motivation. Identified regulation refers to an individual'' ability to determine the value of the activity involved and represents a high degree of autonomy and self-endorsement (Ryan et *al.*, 2009). Introjected regulation is classified as an individual feeling a sense of pressure and perceived obligation (Lee & Reeve, 2012).

In an educational environment, Turban et *al.* (2007) mentioned individual learners are controlled by external rewards, mainly by choice, for instance by introjected regulation, not external regulation. Areepattamannil and Freeman (2008) defined external regulation as an individual's behavior being determined by external rewards, including rewards and constraints regulating their behavior. According to the SDT framework by Deci and Ryan (1985), intrinsic motivation is the highest level of self-determination, while extrinsic motivation is the lowest self-determination.

Intrinsic motivation is the most autonomous form of motivation (Friederichs et *al.*, 2015). In the extrinsic motivation, integrated regulation is the highest degree of self-determination in the extrinsic regulations, while external regulation is the lowest degree of self-determination of extrinsic regulations. In addition, amotivation is a lack of self-determination. Amotivation refers to individuals lacking intrinsic and extrinsic motivations (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Amotivation classifies individuals who have a lack of experience and intention to act upon their tasks. This means that if individuals have a lack of motivation, they have non-self-determination.

Self Determination Theory and Motivation in Blended e-Learning

The BL method is becoming increasingly popular in educational environments (Kim et *al.*, 2013), but Pahinis et *al.* (2007) argued that to date there are few research studies in the BL method. In the late 1980s, BL started to gain in popularity due to e-Learning; this was a result of the industry's belief that mass produced resource content materials would replace all other traditional forms of training programmes (Ireland et *al.*, 2009). Researchers have used other terminologies for the BL method, such as Hybrid Learning, Integrated e-Learning and "Mixed Mode Learning" (Brunner, 2007). However, the term BL method is the most commonly used by researchers in which the TF2FL classroom environment has blended in various combinations of virtual supported media tools (Fleck, 2012), such as asynchronous and synchronous technology tools.

There are two different types of e-Learning: asynchronous distance learning and synchronous distance learning. Asynchronous distance learning refers to the flexibility in interaction between participants, while synchronous distance learning signifies a real time interaction. Asynchronous distance learning appeared before synchronous distance learning. The BL educational concept provides the opportunity to integrate the advances offered by the virtual learning environment with the best

practices and benefits of TF2FL classroom environment (Tselios, Daskalakis, & Papadopoulou, 2011).

Throughout the literature, there are several reported advantages and disadvantages of BL, which vary from country to country, as well as from one educational field to another. However, based on the research by Osguthorpe and Graham, (2003) BL is recognized as an alternative educational method to access daily knowledge and information content, social interaction, personal agency, cost effectiveness and ease of revision. In addition, Graham, Allen, & Ure (2003) claimed that BL provides opportunities for its participants, such as improved pedagogy, increased flexibility, increased access to information, and increased cost effectiveness, compared to TF2FL environment. These opportunities could increase learners' motivations, as it provides them with several different advantages in adapting the BL method. It would lead to an increase in the level of enjoyment and contentedness throughout the learning environment. However, there are still some challenges of e-Learning that are important to mention including: time and space savings; expanding an institution's geographical reach; giving the possibility of providing multiple learning practices based on self-regulated learning for adults; improving educational quality; providing interactivity in the process of communication; increasing efficiency for institutions and for students, and achieving customer satisfaction and cost effectiveness compared to traditional classroom-based teaching and learning (Adams & Seagren, 2004). Therefore, there is a need to state the opportunities and challenges of BL; however, these vary according to the participants' levels of motivation.

Logistics Education

There is a need for more research in the content of Logistics Education to meet the demands of industry and government. Logistics Education draws from several disciplines and an increasing number of teaching methods demonstrate the complexity associated with it (Johnson & Pyke, 2000). Onar et *al.* (2013) stated that Logistics programmes are offered at a combination of many engineering and business administration institutes.

In this study, the essential need for teaching the use of technology in Logistic Education is considered. Development of Information and Communication Technology based systems required to support Logistics Education is now occurring (Prajogo & Sohal, 2013). This has resulted in an obvious gap in the literature given the essentiality of Logistics Education and the growth of advanced technology in shaping a competent logistician with high technological skills. There has been a proliferation of growth in Logistics Education software, warehouse management, and transportation management systems, and supply chain planning and execution (Prajogo & Sohal, 2013). However, Clark (1994) stated that the technology factor alone could not change the learning outcomes; there are other factors. In addition, Sokolova (2011) mentioned that the growth of technology and innovation leads to greater mobility and flexibility in an educational environment. Considering Logistics Education, synchronous technology is the most efficient method for managing tacit knowledge of communication and education, which increases the speed of informational flows in the organization.

Research Method

Data Collection

This current research study used a self-administered face-to-face questionnaire survey. A total of 616 respondents were elicited from three branches of the Colleges of International Transport and Logistics, Arab Academy For Science, Technology and Maritime Transport located in Egypt. These branches are in Greater Cairo, Alexandria and Port Said. The data was collected in the Fall Semester of 2012-2013. The questionnaire survey was prepared in English for learners studying on the undergraduate programme which is delivered in English. Logistics students were told that all of their answers would be confidential and data would be aggregated. SPSS[22] and AMOS[18] were used to analyse the data A Confirmatory Factor Analysis technique determined the dimensions of the study and these were verified by SDT. In addition, structural equation modeling was applied to verify the effect of the SDT on Logistics learners' motivation. Finally, the structural equation modeling analysis was utilized to test the moderating effect of the hypotheses. Nine hypotheses were tested in this study.

Participants

A pilot study based on 70 learners indicated that the content of the questions and instructions were clear. The questionnaire was then distributed to the learner groups in the three locations which yielded 616 fully answered questionnaires. The demographic questions asked respondents to report their location, gender, age, and education. Among the respondents who participated in this survey, 81.2% (N=500) of them were from Greater Cairo, 14.9% (N=92) were from Alexandria and 3.9% (N=24) were from Port Said, as shown in Figure 2. 72.2% (N=445) were male and 27.8% (N=171) were female. In the terms of age range, approximately 25.2% (N=155) of the respondents were under 18 years, 67.7% (N=417) were 18-22 years of age, 6.5% (N= 40) were 23-25 years of age, and 0.6% (N=4) were above 26 years of age. The majority 57% (N=351) of the respondents were regular high School Diploma Holders, while 27% (N=169) were American Diplomat Holder and 15% (N=92) IGCSE.
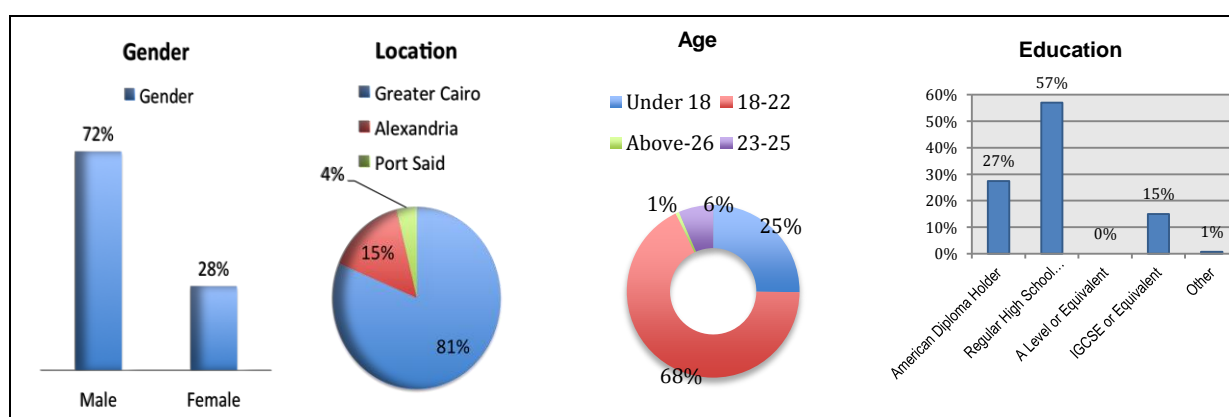

Figure 2 Respondents' Demographic Characteristics

Instruments

The respondents were asked about their opinions of the BL method. "Intrinsic Motivation", "Extrinsic Motivation", "Amotivation", "Autonomy", "Competence" and "Relatedness" were measured using 106 items. The measure of academic "Intrinsic Motivation" was composed of 66 items and divided into eleven sub-variables (53 items), including "Time Management" (3 items), "Cost Effectiveness" (3 items), "Flexibility in Access" (6 items), "Social Interaction" (16 items), "Feedback and Assessment" (6 items), "Learning Style" (4 items), "Attendance Issues" (4 items), "Ease of Use" (2 items), "General Awareness" (3 items), "Geographical Audience" (3 items), and "Learning Experience" (3 items). Furthermore, "Extrinsic Motivation" (19 items) was divided into "Integrated Regulation" (2 items), "Identified Regulation" (4 items), "Introjected Regulation" (2 items) and "External Regulation" (11 items), "amotivation" was split into six sub-variables (24 items), which are "Technological Infrastructure" (2 items), "Lack of Social Awareness" (5 items), "Lack of Technical and Facilities Support" (2 items), "Isolation and Lack of Social Interaction" (7 items), and "Lack of Technological Skills" (4 items). In addition, the basic psychological human innate needs were divided into three variables, which are "Autonomy" (4 items), "Competence" (3 items) and "Relatedness" (3 items).

Reliability and Validity Tests

This section presents an empirical study for the current research through displaying statistical analyses and the findings of the sample of learners in the College of International Transport and Logistics at Arab Academy for Science, Technology and Maritime Transport. The data findings for all the variables were reliable and valid. All items having an alpha coefficient greater than α 0.7 (Chronbach's Alpha) are considered as recommended by Hair et *al.* (1998). As can be shown in Table 1, the internal reliability of the "Intrinsic Motivation" scale was α 0.968, the "Extrinsic Motivation" scale was α 0.949, and the "Amotivation" scale was α 0.919. All items under study Cronbach's Alpha have a greater than α 0.7. This indicates adequate validity for the variables under study, whose "Intrinsic Motivation" scale was 0.984, "Extrinsic Motivation" scale was 0.976 and "Amotivation" scale was 0.959. Cronbach's Alphas for all the sub-variables ranged from α 0.967 (Social Interaction/ Intrinsic Motivation) to α 0.885 (Lack of Technical and Facilities Support/ Amotivation). The reliability of "Autonomy" was α 0.918, while "Competence" was α 0.900. The reliability for "Relatedness" was α 0.907, while total validity was 0.989.

Variables	No. of Items	Reliability [Chronbach's Alpha (α)]	Validity
Intrinsic Motivation	53	α 0.968	0.984
Extrinsic Motivation	19	α 0.949	0.976
Amotivation	24	α 0.919	0.959
Autonomy	4	*α 0.918*	0.958
Competence	3	*α 0.900*	0.949
Relatedness	3	*α 0.907*	0.952
Total	106	α 0.978	0.989

Table 1 Reliability and Validity Results by Variables. Note: Validity is the $\sqrt{\text{Reliability}}$

Hypotheses Testing

The hypothesized relationships between variables were tested using AMOS. Thus, this study proposes the following hypotheses:

H_1: *There is an Effect of Intrinsic Motivation on Perceived Autonomy*
H_2: *There is an Effect of Intrinsic Motivation on Perceived Competence*
H_3: *There is an Effect of Intrinsic Motivation on Perceived Relatedness*
H_4: *There is an Effect of Extrinsic Motivation on Perceived Autonomy*
H_5: *There is an Effect of Extrinsic Motivation on Perceived Competence*
H_6: *There is an Effect of Extrinsic Motivation on Perceived Relatedness*
H_7: *There is an Effect of Amotivation on Perceived Autonomy*
H_8: *There is an Effect of Amotivation on Perceived Competence*
H_9: *There is an Effect of Amotivation on Perceived Relatedness*

Results and Discussion

A five point Likert Scale was used in the questionnaire and the summary of responses according to the aggregated variables under study are detailed in Table 2. There are no responses for either "Extremely Disagree" or "Disagree". Most of the respondents noted "Agree" or "Extremely Agree" with the variables under study.

Items of the Variables	Measure	Extremely Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Extremely Agree	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	Results
Intrinsic Motivation	F	1	41	57	419	98	3.929	4.000	0.7268	Agree
	%	0.2	6.7	9.3	68.0	15.9				
Extrinsic Motivation	F	2	47	49	322	196	4.076	4.000	0.8529	Agree
	%	0.3	7.6	8.0	52.3	31.8				
Amotivation	F	1	55	156	356	48	3.641	4.000	0.7584	Agree
	%	0.2	8.9	25.3	57.8	7.8				
Autonomy	F	5	55	20	253	283	4.224	4.000	0.9345	Extremely Agree
	%	0.8	8.9	3.2	41.1	45.9				
Competence	F	17	45	27	275	252	4.136	4.0000	0.9882	Agree
	%	2.8	7.3	4.4	44.6	40.9				
Relatedness	F	28	41	38	259	250	4.075	4.0000	1.0673	Agree
	%	4.5	6.7	6.2	42.0	40.6				

Table 2 Frequency, Mean, and Mode for Variable and Sub-Variables Under Study

The data findings also were analysed with AMOS[18]. In our analysis, we first used Confirmatory Factor Analysis in the AMOS[18] statistical package to test the adequacy of the measurement mode. Each variable was used as an input of AMOS to analyse structural relationships between variables. In recent years, the use of structural equation modeling has increased among educational researchers (Teo & Khine, 2009). Edwards and Bagozzi (2000) pointed out that structural equation modeling is particularly useful when the theoretical model involves relationships among the latent constructs and relationships between the latent constructs and the indicators of these constructs. Based on the acceptance of the structural equation modeling complete model, the present study can depend on it to test the relationships between variables under study using structural equation modeling estimates, which display the model fit indicators of the structural equation modeling. In addition, Hox and Bechger (1998) mentioned that structural equation modeling is a powerful technique that can combine complex path models with latent variables (factors) (p.354). Table 3 shows the structural equation modelling parameters, thereby providing acceptance of the goodness of fit of the different measurements of the model.

Measure	Model Results	Threshold
Chi-square/df (cmin/df)	2.164	< 3 good; < 5 sometimes permissible
P-value for the model	0.000	< 0.05
GFI	0.925	> 0.95
AGFI	0.910	> 0.80
NFI	0.934	> 0.90
TLI	0.958	> 0.95
IFI	0.963	> 0.95
CFI	0.963	> 0.95 great; > 0.90 traditional; > 0.80 sometimes permissible
RMR	0.037	< 0.09
RMSEA	0.044	< 0.05 good; 0.05-0.10 moderate; > 0.10 bad
PCLOSE	0.989	> 0.05

Table 3 Some Fit Measures of the Overall Structural Equation Model

Confirmatory Factor Analysis was used to test the factors that could be included in the dimensions "Intrinsic Motivation", "Extrinsic Motivation", "Amotivation", "Autonomy", "Competence" and "Relatedness". Confirmatory Factor Analysis is a type of structural equation modeling that deals specifically with measuring models, that is, the relationship between observed measures or indicators and latent variables. According to Byrne (2010), Hu and Bentler (1999), and Kline (1998), a Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI) and a Comparative Fit Index (CFI) between 0.9 and 1.0 indicate a good fit. This table displays the model fit indicators of Confirmatory Factor Analysis which have the minimum discrepancy (CMIN/DF)=2.164, *P*-Value < 0.000, Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)= 0.925, Comparative Fit Index (CFI)=0.963, Incremental Fit Index (IFI)=0.963, Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)= 0.958, Root Mean Square Residual (RMR) =0.037, Normed-Fit-Index (NFI) =0.934, Adjusted Good-Fit-Index (AGFI)= 0.910, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)= 0.044, and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)= 0.044. It was found that the values of the below mentioned indicators are acceptable, which means that all the divisions'

estimated dimensions are fitting. Figure 3 represents the standardized path coefficients of the research model.
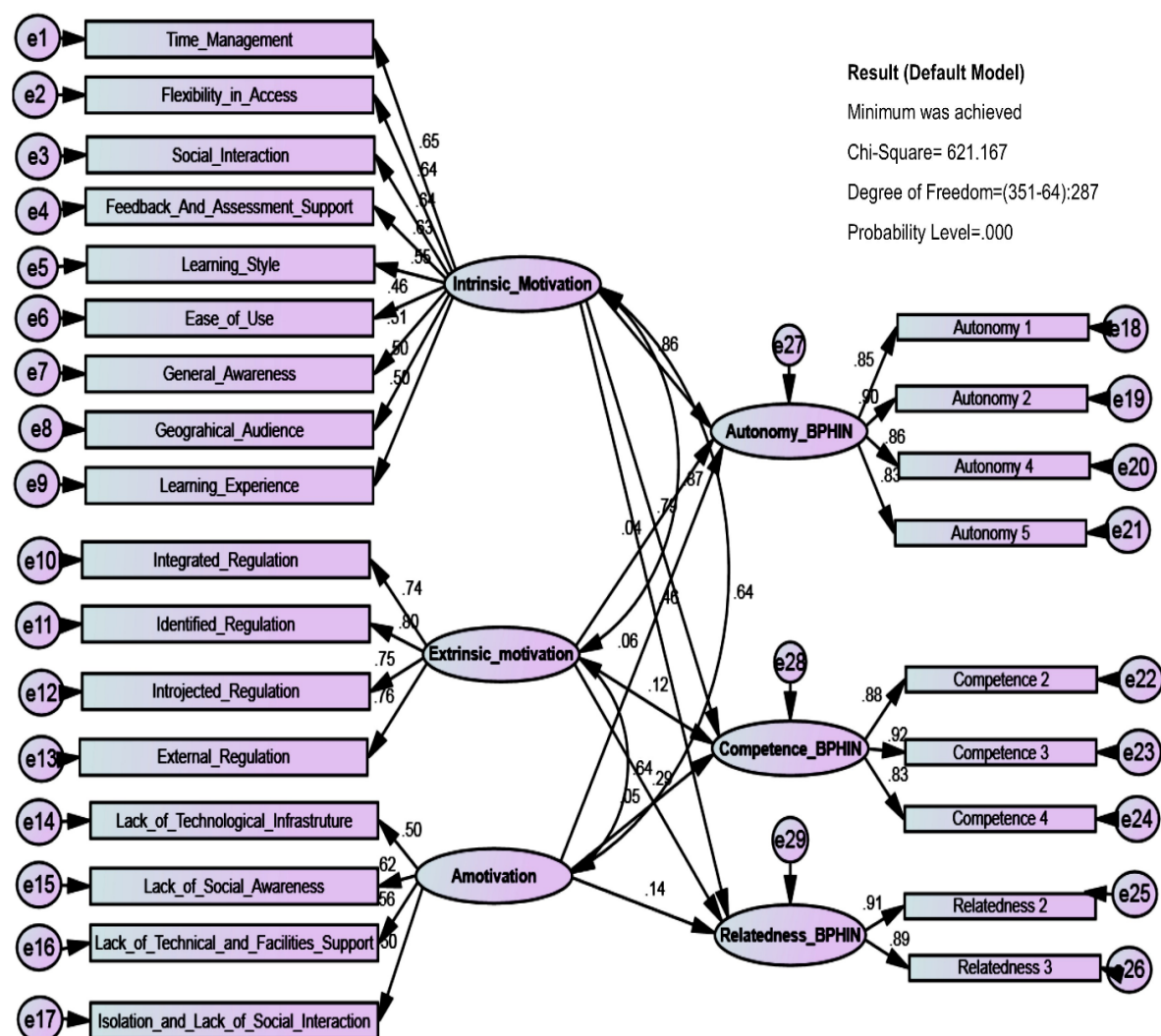

Figure 3 Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Variables with Relations
Note: Standardized Structural Coefficient for the 6-Factors Structure

As seen in Table 4, the research identifies the relationships between variables. Consistent with H_1-H_3, there are direct effects of "Intrinsic Motivation" on perceived "Autonomy", "Competence" and "Relatedness" (β =0.862, ρ <0.001; β =0.786, ρ <0.001; β =0.456, ρ < 0.001, respectively). The findings seem to support the assertion of Ryan and Deci's (2000) SDT posits that intrinsic motivation is sustained by the satisfaction of the three Basic Psychological Human Innate Needs for perceived "Autonomy", "Competence" and "Relatedness". Furthermore, there is an effect of "Intrinsic Motivation" on "Time Management", "Flexibility in Access", "Social Interaction", "Feedback and Assessment", "Learning Style", "Ease of Use", "General Awareness", "Geographical Audience" and "Learning Experience" (γ =0.651, ρ <0.001; γ =0.640, ρ <0.001; γ =0.644, ρ <0.001; γ =0.632, ρ <0.001; γ =0.549, ρ < 0.001; γ =0.458, ρ< 0.001; γ =0.511, ρ < 0.001; γ =0.501, ρ<; γ=0.496, ρ <, 0.001, respectively).

Hypothesis	Path			Est.	S.E.	C.R.	ρ	Results
H₁: There is an Effect of Intrinsic Motivation on Perceived Autonomy	Autonomy	←	Intrinsic Motivation	1.015	.106	9.554	***	Accepted
H₂: There is an Effect of Intrinsic Motivation on Perceived Competence	Competence	←	Intrinsic Motivation	.888	.096	9.242	***	Accepted
H₃: There is an Effect of Intrinsic Motivation on Perceived Relatedness	Relatedness	←	Intrinsic Motivation	.640	.125	5.129	***	Accepted
H₄: There is an Effect of Extrinsic Motivation on Perceived Autonomy	Autonomy	←	Extrinsic Motivation	.039	.087	.452	.652	Rejected
H₅: There is an Effect of Extrinsic Motivation on Perceived Competence	Competence	←	Extrinsic Motivation	.124	.081	1.534	.125	Rejected
H₆: There is an Effect of Extrinsic Motivation on Perceived Relatedness	Relatedness	←	Extrinsic Motivation	.376	.117	3.220	.001	Accepted
H₇: There is an Effect of Amotivation on Perceived Autonomy	Autonomy	←	Amotivation	.078	.061	1.284	.199	Rejected
H₈: There is an Effect of Amotivation on Perceived Competence	Competence	←	Amotivation	.060	.058	1.039	.299	Rejected
H₉: There is an Effect of Amotivation on Perceived Relatedness	Relatedness	←	Amotivation	.206	.087	2.384	.017	Accepted

Table 4 Unstandardized Estimates of Confirmatory Factor Analysis for the Variables Under Study
Note: Estimate=Est.; Standard Error=S.E; Critical Ratio =C.R; ρ-value=ρ

Inconsistent with H_4-H_5, there are no direct effects of "Extrinsic Motivation" on perceived "Autonomy" and "Competence", which were not significant as (β =0.036, ρ <0.652; β =0.117, ρ<0.125, respectively). Therefore, these two null hypotheses were rejected in this study. This result contradicts the study of Reeve et *al.* (2002), where "Autonomy" was positively associated with task interest, conceptual understanding, grades, and psychological well-being. In addition, De Charms (1968) claimed that "Extrinsic Motivation" has typically been characterized as a pale and impoverished form of motivation in contrast with Intrinsic Motivation. However, concerning H6, the path from "Extrinsic Motivation" to perceived "Relatedness" was significant (β =0.286, ρ<0.001). Kaufman & Dodge (2009) showed that "Relatedness" and value might foster internalization or integration of extrinsic motivators. Moreover, the standardized path of "Extrinsic Motivation" to "Integrated Regulation", "Identified Regulation", "Introjected Regulation" and "External Regulation" were significant as (γ =0.738, ρ <0.001; γ =0.804, ρ <0.001; γ =0.748, ρ <0.001; γ =0.748, ρ<0.001, respectively). According to H_7- H_8, there are no direct effects of AM on Perceived "Autonomy" and "Competence" (β=0.062 ρ<0.199; β=0.050, ρ<0.299, respectively).

However, there is a direct effect of "AM" on "Relatedness" (β= 0.139, ρ<0.017), consequently, H$_9$ has been accepted. Additionally, the standardized path of "Amotivation" to "Technological Infrastructure", "Lack of Social Awareness", "Lack of Technical and Facilities Support" and "Isolation and Lack of Social Interaction" showed significance (γ =0.500, ρ<0.001; γ =0.620, ρ<0.001; γ =0.555, ρ <0.001; γ =0.501, ρ<0.001, respectively). According to the hypotheses testing results of the structural equation modeling data analysis, all variables were generally acceptable, and, the study model is considered a satisfactory. However, H$_4$, H$_5$, H$_7$ and H$_8$ are rejected in this study. This reflects that it is important to pay attention to the learners' types of motivation in relation to their needs, and that these factors could affect their performance.

Conclusion

Motivation has been recognized as a critical issue affecting learning. In the history of distance education, BL is considered as the third generation of distance education (Sue & Brush, 2008). In virtual learning literature, BL has been shown to be one of the best learning methods, as it improves learners' motivation internally and externally. An increasing body of data from higher education studies tested this use of virtual learning and BL (Bloomfield, While & Roberts, 2008; Lindeman et *al.*, 2015). Several studies have shown different opportunities and challenges of BL (El-Seoud et *al.*, 2014; Kamel & Hussein, 2002; Mohammad, 2008).

In the current study, SDT shows that a learner's motivation is determined by the satisfaction of three universal basic psychological needs: Autonomy, Competence and Relatedness, as well as Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic Motivation and Amotivation. In a matter of a few short years, Egyptian higher educational institutions could be transformed in a manner consistent with the opportunities and challenges of a virtual learning environment, improving the quality of the classroom experience.

In closing, as this study explores the opportunities and challenges of BL, it is essential that the researcher evaluates BL effectiveness. This study examined the influence of learner motivation on the opportunities and challenges of the BL method. It showed that Extrinsic Motivation and Amotivation have no effect on "Competence" or "Autonomy", while Intrinsic Motivation has an effect on three Basic Psychological Human Innate Needs. SDT identifies that there are three universal Basic Psychological Human Innate Needs which lead to Intrinsic Motivation. There is a need for a comparison between developed and developing countries. In addition, future research could highlight more opportunities and barriers of BL. Currently in Egypt, there is a lack of instructors using BL, and there is little research on these instructors' perspectives, compared with the numerous studies concerning learners.

References

Adams, J., & Seagren, A. (2004). Distance education strategy: Mental models and strategic choices. *Online Journal of Distance Learning Administration*, *7*(2), 1-13.

Amabile, T. (1985). Motivation and creativity: effect of motivational orientation, on creative writers. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *48*(2), 393-399.

Areepattamannil, S., & Freeman, J. (2008). Academic achievement, academic self-concept, and academic motivation of immigrant adolescents in the greater Toronto area secondary schools. *Journal of Advanced Academics*, *19*(4), 700-743.

Bidee, J., Vantilborgh, T., Pepermans, R., Huybrechts, G., Willems, J.,Jegers, M., & Hofmans, J. (2013). Autonomous motivation stimulates volunteers' work effort: A self-determination theory approach to volunteerism. *Voluntas: International Journal of Voluntary and Non-profit Organizations*, *24*, 32–47.

Boekaerts, M. (1997). Self-regulated learning: A new concept embraced by researchers, policy makers, educators, teachers, and students. *Learning and Instruction*, *28*(2), 161–186.

Bloomfield, J., While, A., & Roberts, J. (2008). Using computer-assisted learning for clinical skills education in nursing: an integrative review of the literature. *Journal of Advanced Nursing. 63*(3), 222–235

Brunner, D. (2007). Using "Hybrid" Effectively in Christian Higher Education. *Christian Scholar's Review*, *36*(2), 115-126.

Byrne, B. (2010). *Structural Equation Modeling with AMOS*, (2nd ed.). New York: Rutledge.

Chen, K., & Jang, S. (2010). Motivation in online learning: Testing a model of self-determination theory. *Computers in Human Behavior*, *26 (4)*, 741-752.

Clark, R. (1994). Media will never influence learning. *Educational Technology, Research and Development*, *42*(2), 1-21.

Darner, R. (2014). Influences on Students' Environmental Self Determination and Implications for Science Curricula. *International Journal of Environmental & Science Education, 9*(3), 21-39.

DeCharms, R. (1968). *Personal Causation: The internal effective determinants of behavior*. New York. Academy press.

Deci, E., & Ryan, R. (1985). *Intrinsic Motivation and Self Determination In Human Behavior*. (pp.1-371). New York: Plenum.

Deci, E., Pelletier, L., & Ryan, M. (1991) Motivation and education: The self-determination perspective, *Educational Psychologist*, *26*(3&4), 325-346.

Deci, E., & Ryan, R. (2008). Self-determination theory: A macrotheory of human motivation, development, and health, *Canadian Psychology Copyright 2008 by the Canadian Psychological Association*, *49*(3), 182–185.

Dutton, W., & Loader, B. (2002). *Digital Academe: New Media and Institutions in Higher Education and Learning*, Taylor and Francis, Routledge, UK.

Edwards, J., & Bagozzi, R. (2000). On the nature and direction of relationships between constructs and measures. *Psychological Methods*, *5*(2), 155-174

El-Seoud, S., Taj-Eddin, I, Seddiek, N., El-Khouly, M., & Nosseir, A. (2014). E-learning and students' motivation: A research study on the effect of e-learning on higher education. *International Journal of Emerging Technologies in Learning*, *9*(4), 689-695.

Fleck, J. (2012). Blended learning and learning communities: opportunities and challenges. *Journal of Management Development*, *31*(4), 398-411. doi: 10.1108/02621711211219059.

Friederichs, S., Bolman, C., Oenema, A., & Lechner, L. (2015). Profiling physical activity motivation based on self-determination theory: a cluster analysis approach. *BMC Psychology*, 3(1), 1-12.

Gagne, M., & Deci, E. (2005). Self-determination theory and work motivation. *Journal of organizational Behavior*, *26*(4), 331-362. doi: 10.1002/job.322

Graham, C., Allen, S., & Ure, D. (2003) *Blended Learning Environments: A Review Of The Research Literature*. Brigham Young University.

Grolnick, W. (2015). Mothers' motivation for involvement in their children's schooling: mechanisms and outcomes. *Motivation and Emotion*, *39*, 63-73.

Hair, J., Anderson, R. ,Tatham, R., & Black, W. (1998). *Multivariate Data Analysis*. Australia: Prentice Hall NSW.

Hasenfeld, Y. (1987). Power in Social Work Practice. *Social Service Review*, *61*(3), 469–483.

Hidi, S., & Harackiewicz, J. (2000). Motivating the academically unmotivated: A critical issue for the 21th century. *Review of Educational Research*, *70*(2), 151-179.

Hox, J., & Bechger, T (1998). An introduction to structural equation modeling. *Family Science Review*, 11, 354–373.

Hu, L., & Bentler, P. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling*, *6*(1), 1-55.

Ireland, J., Martindale, S., Johnson, N., Adams, D., Eboh, W., & Mowatt, E. (2009). Blended learning in education: effects on knowledge and attitude. *British Journal of Nursing*, *18*(2), 124-130.

Johnson, M., & Pyke, D. (2000). A framework for teaching supply chain management. *Production and Operations Management*, *9*(1), 2-18.

Kamel, S., & Hussein, M. (2002). The emergence of E-commerce in a developing nation case study. *Benchmarking: An International Journal*, *10*(2), 146-153.

Kapp, K. (2013). *The Gamification of Learning and Instruction Game-Based Methods and Strategies From Training and Education*. Pfeiffer, Essential Resources for Training and HR Professionals, John Wiley and Sons, Inc. San Francisco, CA.

Kaufman, A., & Dodge, T. (2009). Student perceptions and motivation in the classroom: Exploring relatedness and value. *Social Psychology of Education*, *12*(1), 101-112.

Kilkelly, E. (2009). Blended Learning: pathways to effective project management, *Development and learning in organizations: An international Journal*, 23(1), 19-21.

Kim, K., Sharma, P., Land, S., & Furlong, K. (2013). Effects of active learning on enhancing student critical thinking in an undergraduate general science course. *Innovative Higher Education*, *38*(3), 223-235.

Kirk, D. (2010) *Physical Education Futures.* London: Rutledge.

Kline, R. (1998). *Principles and Practice of Structural Equation Modeling.* New York: Guilford Press.

Lee, W., & Reeve, J., (2012). Teachers' estimates of their students' motivation and engagement: being in synch with students, Educational Psychology, *An International Journal of Experimental Educational Psychology*, *32*(6), 727-747.

Lindeman, B., Law, J., Lipsett, P., Arbella, T., Stem, M., & Lidor, A. (2015). A blended online curriculum in the basic surgery clerkship: a pilot study, *The American Journal of Surgery, 209*(1), 145-151.

Lonsdale, C., Sabiston, C., Taylor, I., & Ntoumanis, N. (2011). Measuring student motivation for physical education: Examining the psychometric properties of the perceived locus of causality questionnaire and the situational motivation scale. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, *12*(3), 284-292.

Mahnken, A., Baumann, M., Meister, M, Schmitt, V., & Fischer, M. (2011) Blended in radiology: Is self determined learning really more effective?. *European Journal of Radiology*, 78 (3), 384-387.

Mohammad, E. (2008). Framework for e-learning strategy in the Egyptian universities. *IADIS International Conference e-Learning*, 21-26.

Ntoumanis, N., & Standage, M. (2009). Motivation in physical education classes: A self-determination theory perspective. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, *31*(2), 189-210.

Onar, S., Aktas, E., Topcu, Y., & Doran, D. (2013). An analysis of supply chain related graduate programmes in Europe. *Supply Chain Management: An International Journal*, *18*(4), 398-412.

Osguthorpe, R., & Graham, C. (2003). Blended learning environments definitions and directions, *the Quarterly Review of Distance Education*, *43(3),* 227–233.

Pahinis K., Stokes, C., Walsh, T., & Cannavina, G. (2007). Evaluating a blended e-learning course taught to different groups of learners in a dental schools. *Journal of Dental School Education, 71*(1), 287-301.

Pintrich, P., & Schunk, D.(2002). *Motivation in Education: Theory, Research, and Applications*, (2nd ed) upper saddle River, New Jersey: Merrill Prentice Hall.

Prajogo, D., & Sohar, A. (2013). Supply chain professionals a study of competencies, use of technologies, and future challenges. *International Journal of operations and Production Management*, *33*(11/12), 1532-1554.

Reeve, J., Jang, H., Hardre, P., & Omura, M. (2002). Providing a rationale in an autonomy-supportive way as a strategy to motivate others during an uninteresting activity. *Motivation and Emotion*, *26*(3), 183–207.

Ryan, R., & Deci, E. (2000). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations: classic definitions and new directions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *25*(1), 54-67.

Ryan, R., Williams, G., Patrick, H., & Deci, E. (2009). Self-determination theory and physical activity: the dynamics of motivation in development and wellness. *Hellenic Journal of Psychology*, *6*, 107-124.

Sue, H., & Brush, T. (2008). Student perceptions of collaborative learning, social presence and satisfaction in a blended learning environment: Relationships and critical factors. *Computers & Education*, *51*(1), 318 336.

Sokolova, A. (2011). Using principles of logistics in corporation education. *Global Business and Management Research: An International Journal*, *3*(3&4), 342-344.

Solomon, B. (1976). *Black Empowerment: Social Work in Oppressed Communities*. New York: Columbia University Press, p.1-438.

Spittle, M., Jackson, K., & Casey, M. (2009). Applying self-determination theory to understand the motivation for becoming a physical education teacher. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *25*(1), 190-197. doi: 10.1016/j.tate.2008.07.005.

Teo, T., & Khine, M. (2009) *Structural Equation Modeling in Educational Research: Concepts and Applications*. Sense Publishers: Rotterdam, Boston, Taipei.

Tselios, N., Daskalakis, S., & Papadopoulou, M. (2011). Assessing the acceptance of a blended learning university course. *Educational Technology and Society*, *14*(2), 224-235.

Turban, D., Brown, K., Tan, H., & Sheldon, K. (2007). Antecedents and outcomes of perceived locus of causality: An application of self-determination theory, *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *37* (10) 2376–2404.

Vallerand, R., & Ratelle, C. (2002). *Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation: A Hierarchical Model*. In E. L. Deci & R. M. Ryan (Eds.), Handbook of self-determination research (pp. 37-63). Rochester, New York: The University of Rochester Press.

Changes in Practice and Professionalism in EFL in the Arabian Gulf Context

Richard Peel
Higher Colleges of Technology
Dubai Women's College, Dubai UAE

ABSTRACT

Many EFL/ESL teachers begin their training on a Cambridge Certificate in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (CELTA) course or equivalent, with an emphasis on the communicative language teaching (CLT) approach. For most of my peers here in the United Arab Emirates (UAE), this is also how they started their careers, before going on to teach in a variety of countries. But have they maintained this approach, continuing in the path of their learnt communicative methodology, or have they adopted alternative classroom approaches? This paper seeks to answer these questions.

The aim of this study was, therefore, to confirm that CLT was the initial methodology teachers were trained in, and whether they had changed their approach since, and if so – how, why and when? The exploratory nature of the study was such that it lent itself to an interpretative research design, adopting an exploratory, phenomenological approach using qualitative methods; whereby a small sample of teachers at tertiary institutions in the UAE were interviewed. The study found that the teachers had all been schooled in CLT, and all had indeed deviated from that approach in a variety of different teaching situations.

Before the research was started, it had been surmised that any changes in approach that may have emerged were due to cultural accommodation, or institutional factors such as a prescribed methodology or rigid curriculum. However, this was not the case – teachers diverged from CLT methodology largely due to practical, experiential reasons, though cultural and institutional factors were also cited. Furthermore, though alternative approaches had been adopted by all participants, CLT had not been entirely discarded – it had been retained where it was seen as suitable for the teaching situation. CLT tended to be viewed as a resource which is part of the eclectic approach that this highly-experienced cohort of teachers had at their disposal.

Key words: ELT/EFL/ESL, Arabian Gulf, teaching approach, methodology

INTRODUCTION

It could be argued that to be a successful international EFL teacher, cultural adaptation and tolerance for diversity mark the profession as unique, which coupled with the often low pay teachers receive, it is quite remarkable that so many continue in their chosen career for decades. The Arabian Gulf, as one of the highest paying regions in the world for EFL teachers, is where many end up in the latter part of their careers, after an often fascinating cultural journey around the world. During this journey, do teachers change their teaching approach since their initial training, and if so, is it due to cultural reasons, institutional reasons or experiential factors? This is the research question and focus for this paper. Before embarking on the research, cultural and institutional factors were initially thought the most likely causes of any such change. However, practical experience built up since the young fresh-faced Certificate-level teacher graduated several decades ago could be an influence too, and in fact emerges as a major factor.

The UAE context and its ESL teachers

ESL teachers in UAE Universities Colleges typically have a relevant Master's degree, which is the minimum requirement at the three main public universities: Zayed University (ZU), the United Arab Emirates University (UAEU) and the Higher Colleges of Technology (HCT). Many also have the Cambridge CELTA or Diploma in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (DELTA), with some also holding doctorates. The teachers are generally highly experienced, with a minimum of 5 years teaching at tertiary level, and most having decades of experience. Many have published papers in peer-reviewed journals and co-written textbooks.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW

Communicative language teaching (CLT) has been the most influential and important methodology in ESL/EFL for several decades since its inception in the 1970s (Richards, 2006: 1).

Definitions of CLT vary amonh the well-known writers in the field such as Widdowson (1978), Breen & Candlin (1980), Savignon (1983), Richards & Rogers (2001), and Nunan (2003). In spite of these differences, there are a number of core components that Brandl (2008: 5 - 7) usefully summarizes: that language is viewed as communication; that communication should be meaningful, via exchanges of information through activities and tasks; an emphasis on texts and communication that are realistic; and finally that the teaching should be learner-centred.

CLT's long predominance in EFL/ESL is evident in its continued use as the taught methodology of choice in ESL/EFL teacher training courses. All teachers interviewed in this study reported their initial teacher training was in CLT methodology.

As the research questions asks, have these teachers continued with CLT methodology throughout their careers, or adopted alternative classroom approaches - and if so, how and why?

The initial assumption of this research paper was that any changes teachers reported would be laid at the door of cultural accommodation. In addition to cultural factors, institutional factors, such as preferred methodologies and demands of the curriculum could also explain why teachers would diverge from their original methodology. Practical experience and tacit knowledge in the field could be further reasons. These factors will be examined later.

METHODOLOGY

The research question

As mentioned earlier, the aim of this study was to verify that CLT was the initial methodology the teachers in the study were schooled in, and to see if they had continued with their learnt methodology, or had changed their approach over time. If they had changed, was this due to cultural, institutional or experiential factors? The exploratory nature of the study was such that it lent itself to an interpretative research design, adopting an exploratory, phenomenological approach.

The research methods most closely associated with interpretivism are qualitative, with interviews, as chosen in this study, a typical data-gathering tool, as they tend to yield 'deeper' data than other tools such as surveys.

Ethical issues in data collection

For qualitative research of a high standard, a number of guidelines need to be observed. As Cresswell (2009: 177 – 201) observes, one of the most fundamental of these is the researcher identifying their personal background, possible biases, etc., as effectively it is through the lens of the researcher that the reader is privy to the data and analysis. The setting and the relationship between the researcher and participants, and any power relationships (e.g. teacher-student) should also be clarified. Another important part of data collection ethics is assurance of confidentiality and anonymity in the study. Not only were participants' identities kept confidential, but also the identity of the institutions where they currently worked.

The participants in the study

The 6 teachers interviewed in this study are highly qualified and have extensive experience. All reported their initial training was via CLT methodology in the late 80s/90s. Though not from my own institution, the teachers selected were personally well-known to me from over 10 years of interaction in the field in the UAE, from research, professional institutions such as TESOL Arabia, and in several cases they are close personal friends. This created an atmosphere of trust and confidentiality (Cresswell, op.cit., p. 192), which would hopefully produce candid responses from the participants. In addition, as academic peers, this was hoped to minimize any issues of a participant-researcher power imbalance, as mentioned in the preceding Ethics section.

Interview design

The semi-structured interview asked the following 'core' questions, which were pursued when appropriate:

- What was the methodology you were trained in?
- Did you apply this approach in your first teaching assignment?
- What were your subsequent teaching posts?
- Did your teaching approach change in any of these posts?
- If yes, what reasons could you give for this?
- How would you describe your approach now?
- For what reasons do you think you have adopted this approach?

The questions were chosen to fit the research question by identifying the initial methodology the teachers were trained in, and then exploring the issue of whether they had diverged from this approach, and subsequent follow-up questions would tease out the reasons for changes in approach.

Procedure

Standard procedures and protocols of interviews were followed, such as suggested by Cresswell (op. cit., p.182), with informal warm up questions to 'relax' the subject before the core questions and associated probing questions were posed, followed by a concluding statement. Interviews were recorded, transcribed and themes teased out according to guidelines proposed by Cresswell (op. cit., p.185 – 7) and Cohen *et al* (2007: 184). Likewise, procedures for reliability and validity of data as recommended by Gibbs (2007), cited in Cresswell (*op. cit.*, p. 190) were used.

Limitations of the study

Though the possibility of bias exists in reporting of the data, all endeavors were made for it to be minimized, and present the data and my interpretations as objectively as possible. This is a small scale study with a limited number of participants, and does not attempt to extrapolate its findings to a larger sample than the participants themselves, which would invite external validity threats.

FINDINGS

Thematically, a number of ways to group responses were anticipated, and my initial ideas on how to code and classify the data into why teachers had adopted a different approach to CLT were these:

1. Classroom management
2. Motivation
3. Learner autonomy
4. Learning
5. Professionalism
6. Institutional expectations

However, this was simplified to just three categories on analysis of the data, enabling a tighter fit with the research question:

1. Cultural
2. Experiential
3. Institutional

There was overlap in some categories, particularly between experiential and institutional reasons, which one interviewee (D) even remarked upon.

Overview of responses

The three categories for classification of the data: 'cultural reasons', institutional factors such as materials, class size and curriculum, and experiential factors causing a shift in approach, were further divided into themes, which for reasons of clarity are best represented in a table. The table below summarizes the participants' responses.

Category	Themes	Number from sample	Total
Cultural reasons	1. Culture of the student/wider L1 culture	3 (P), 1(J), 2 (D), 3 (N), 1 (R)	11
Institutional reasons	1. curriculum/syllabus/ materials	1 (P), 2(A), 2(J), 2(D), 1(N), 1 (R)	9
	2. methodology/approach	3 (D), 1 (R)	4
Experiential reasons	1. Newly qualified teachers	3 (N)	3
	2. Practical (experiential) knowledge	4(P), 2(A), 2(J), 3(D), 1(N) 2 (R)	14
		Grand Total	41

Table 1: Categories and themes of responses

What follows is a breakdown of the most significant reasons where teachers detailed deviations from the CLT methodology they had been trained in, as they adopted new approaches to deal with new-found teaching situations during their careers. Though some of the quotes are lengthy, I feel it important to document the raw data to avoid the danger of what Golden-Biddle and Locke (2007: 52 - 60) refer to as too much 'telling' about data, and not showing it, whereby researchers concentrate on their interpretations rather than show the raw data that lead them to their conclusions.

Cultural reasons

'Culture' here is defined as per Holliday's definition of 'large culture', whereby 'large' signifies *"ethnic, national, or international cultural differences"* (Holliday, 1999: 237) which, he argues, is what makes cultures essentially different to each other. As such, many Western teachers would be thought to have a BANA (British, Australasian

and North American) cultural norm of teaching, and the participants in this study were no exception, all having been schooled in CLT methodology.

As some noted below, students not used to this cultural approach to teaching might find it puzzling or reject it outright. Teacher P described a situation where his Chinese students' preferred learning style was at odds with his contemporary EFL teaching style:

> *"We went to China for 4 years. That was our first time to be in a higher education situation. The focus there switched a lot more to academic reading and writing for the Chinese students. And at that point, a lot of the TEFL techniques were not really relevant then. Students were very diligent, very hardworking. They didn't want to play language games. They didn't want to mess around with … realia!* [laughs]. *They wanted worksheets and textbook and intensive reading lessons… it was very different from Japan."*

Later in his career, at a tertiary education institution in the UAE, he noticed a very different but nevertheless significant cultural effect, the presence of a minority culture in his all-Emirati classes (unlike other public tertiary universities, at this particular institution there are small numbers of non-Gulf Arabs and other nationalities in some classes). This, he surmised, had an effect on the other students in the class, but he also revealed it had caused him to adopt a more academic tack in his pedagogical approach at the time, avoiding some of the 'lighter' CLT activities that he uses with other classes:

> *"They should be similar, but one of the classes - and I think this is significant - one of the classes has … 3 people who are not from the UAE. They are very good, very mature, I think they are the sons of lecturers at the university, and their influence on the rest of the class is quite a big thing, that class is much more serious … the level of English they have is better. The other classes are 100% Emiratis … they love games and stuff, but their focus is much weaker."*

Cultural reasons were also singled out for differences in class management issues by some interviewees. As D noted, contrasting the different 'types' of student in the Gulf and Europe:

> *"Managing a class of Emirati women is not a difficult thing in terms of managing them to be focused on you when you want them to focus on you, and focused on the task when you want them to focus on the task, because by their nature, through their upbringing, they're used to listening to an authority figure."*

He contrasts these Emirati students with European students, who he claims are far more demanding and difficult to manage:

> *"Managing a class of … either mixed students in an institution in the UK, or Spanish students … or Greek students or whatever… is that management of them was all about how interested they were in what they were doing, and whether they thought they were learning. Because … their stake in what was happening was much greater. I can walk into a classroom here* [the UAE]*, and I*

could have written the lesson plan in the corridor on the walk between my desk and the classroom, and the students will be receptive … not questioning the value of what you are doing with them.   Whereas I would be more prepared in a class even of Spanish teenagers ... and certainly of Greek businessmen … because at the end of the lesson, or even in the middle of the lesson, somebody may legitimately say "What's the value of this" Or "How is this related to what we did last week? " So, in terms of managing, it is very different here."

Teacher R moved to Kuwait and very quickly changed his approach, moving from a CLT approach to what he described as a *'dynamic form of lecturing… very teacher-lead but I also focused on individual students as much as possible.'* He found this necessary to manage the class and maintain order – his early attempts at student-centred learning had failed, largely as he saw it due to students not taking activities seriously which did not involve the teacher 'leading'.

He recounts his experience teaching in Kuwait, and in particular the shock of teaching Gulf students, having previously taught more motivated students in Europe, Latin America, and S.E. Asia.

R: *"What surprised me initially with my Kuwaiti students was their lack of any kind of work ethic, lack of interest in anything other than their immediate interests, and frankly, childishness. I had been warned of this by colleagues in the region, though it was still a surprise, especially as I was teaching officers on a military base. Having taught both in Europe, Latin America and the Far East… I had been used to ... adults who were there to learn, to participate… to be engaged. I had to change my approach radically, though. After wanting to quit after the first week… [laughs]… somehow I got used to them and they got used to me. Or maybe it was just me!?"* [laughs].

Other respondents picked up on cultural differences that may have actually been more to do with being busy professionals rather than the broader national culture, such as the businessmen J found himself teaching in the Czech Republic, who rejected his attempts at a CLT approach because:

"They were lazy! No, they were hardworking businessmen who saw their English classes as some kind of break and we'd go out for lunch and whatever, they'd ask me questions about America, ask me questions about my family. I'd ask questions about the Czech Republic ....there was not much structure, I don't think they thought that they needed English classes per se, they just wanted to maintain [the level] *where they were."*

Institutional reasons

Curricula/syllabi/ materials

Lack of resources forced some teachers to change their approach, just shortly having arrived at a new post. Teacher A, though a relatively experienced trained teacher with the equivalent of a PGCE from his native Ireland, a TEFL Certificate and

several years of teaching behind him, spoke of his shock on arrival at his institution in Sudan:

> *"Well, when I got there … there were huge classes of up to 60 students without any resources, without even a proper blackboard, and the CLT I'd been trained in was all dealing with small, highly motivated groups of European language students, that's what it was tailored for, and that's what I taught in Dublin, those French and continental European teenage students coming to Dublin to learn English, so it was very different, it was a huge shock. I quickly got in touch with Hywel Coleman, who was at one of the northern universities* [in the UK] *and he was doing a project into teaching ESL/EFL to large classes, and they had material which they freely distributed … and it was extremely helpful."*

Lack of resources also forced a change in approach on N, who had just completed a CELTA certificate course and found himself in Hungary. CLT methods did not seem to be working, so he tried a project-based approach, which though it engaged students, seemed to produce little language competence. As he recollects:

> *"I still remember the school in Hungary, they didn't have materials or course books so it was very much 'make it up as you go along'. I tried to do some project work. I had my students do a project about … a tourist guide to Hungary. I thought 'that's a great idea, they can be creative', but they just sort of copied it off the Internet. I mean it looked great, and they printed it off, but there hadn't actually been much engagement or of learning English, and I remember frustratingly thinking 'How do I get around that?'"*

A large syllabus was problematic for J while teaching in Korea. Though he was able to apply some aspects of his CLT approach, he felt unable to utilize it fully and achieve what he felt was real student competence in structures and skills. As he says:

> *"The syllabus was way too much, way too much; the target language we had to cover… it was kind of like here* [the UAE] *sometimes. You just had to cram it all in."*

Curriculum constraints and materials also forced changes in teachers. P recounts his experience in Saudi teaching business English, where he found his CELTA background of little use due to the curriculum.

> *"[In] Saudi Arabia, I worked for a sub-contractor in Riyadh, because I was finishing off my Master's then, and that was mainly business English … quite different again … and I'm not sure that the CELTA background was an awful lot of use at that point. It tended to be more…. I guess again more mainstream type teaching techniques. Fairly large classes there,* [mainly] *reading and writing, with far less focus on oral English."*

Two teachers worked on military bases in the Gulf, and the rigid structure of the materials and syllabus forced a change in their approach. Teacher D, who had earlier

defined his approach as eclectic, retaining many aspects of CLT, noted the change as follows:

> *"When I got to the Middle East, that became a very kind of formulaic, book-driven teaching method. I worked for the military in Saudi Arabia; it was the American Language Course for military personnel. Basically, it was a book every 4 weeks, then a test, then a book for 4 weeks, and then a test again, a book for 4 weeks then a test throughout the year. And at the end of the year the student got a grade that allowed them to go and study at an air force base in America … or not!* [laughs]. *All the materials were provided by the American government."*

In Kuwait, he also taught the same course, and found the materials *"… so dry, very prescribed …very tedious, very formulaic".* R who also worked in Kuwait on a military base found exactly the same, a forced shift in teaching approach, dictated by an extremely prescriptive course.

On arrival at a tertiary-level technology college in the UAE, D again found the curriculum dictating his approach, in that teachers were allotted specific skills. On the first day of the semester, his line manager told him:

> *"He said 'OK, you will be a writing teacher this semester', which surprised me as … as you know the idea of splitting skills in EFL is a very old idea, which even at that time was kind of very out of date, but at that time they had writing teachers and reading teachers, so there'd be the receptive skills and the productive skills as they called them. You have a writing teacher and a speaking teacher, and a reading and listening teacher, and they were timetabled like that, separately, and that's all they were responsible for."*

Methodology/approach reasons

After his Sudan experience, with large classes bereft of materials, teacher A encountered a very different issue 15 years later in the UAE, where technological innovation side-lined traditional pedagogy and methodologies, leaving something of a gap. The new college policy of laptop learning for all students, involved all courses being re-written by teachers and put online. There was an emphasis on projects and a movement away from any form of explicit language teaching, and A found this a destabilizing time when he was forced to abandon his CLT methodology or indeed, any form of traditional pedagogy. With no place for textbooks and with little explicit teaching of English skills, grammar, lexis, etc., ESL teachers were pushed into unfamiliar territory. As A states:

> *"In 2000 the laptop initiative seemed to involve tearing up the old methodology … in terms of what you did in the classroom. In some ways it was exciting and innovative, in others it was challenging and … also quite destabilizing, you know because the old certainties were not there anymore… I felt that things were questioned, and cast aside, things that were still very valid and useful, and as you probably know, you sometimes feel unsure of your rights to professionally question some things … you know I can remember at one stage, you probably remember this too, there was a downgrading of for example … grammar was out for a while. You know I don't feel I'm being unduly critical."*

He considered the institution's Project-Based Learning (PBL) approach and emphasis on technology, though interesting and innovative, had forced teachers to abandon important aspects of pedagogy and undermined students' skills in core English skills, as he went on to mention:

"Well … [grammar] … *was just not seen as a priority, it was seen as a bit of a waste of time, it was felt the students would just pick it up incidentally. Then suddenly it came back, because people could see it was obviously important, and we needed it, to explicitly teach it … I think with PBL it was just felt they would pick it* [grammar] *up, and that was felt the same with vocabulary etc., too. So I think in some ways it was good, I had to challenge my own thinking, but in other ways it was bad, a certain baby going out with the bath water too, but that's probably happening in lots of contexts, and I feel that technology and the constantly changing profile of students who have learnt different ways of interacting with information and communicating is posing quite a challenge to educators, obviously."*

J found something similar in the UAE context, and its preference at the time of PBL, with less focus on language, and more on 'the project'. Though he had to change his methodology from the CLT he used successfully in Korea, he seemed unruffled by the new institutional approach, and compensated for it by focusing on - and explaining - structure. As he explains:

"*My methodology? It's changed, I'm more laid back here kind of, and some levels* [of teaching] *are project-based here. When I do find time to teach* **English** [his emphasis due to the project-based nature of the course, laughs], *I work through a kind of casual way. I try to get them to work through group and pair work …* [and] *I explain grammar a lot, I find myself explaining things a lot here, more than I ever did before in my teaching career."*

Teacher D describes the PBL approach that was introduced in his college in the UAE, but despite the dramatic change he had to make in teaching style, was positive about it, more so than A for example:

"*About 10 years ago, they decided that they should take this task-based learning approach, that it should be all about experience and doing things that were real. And so the language became integrated with the content subjects, and it was used to achieve real things … rather than contrived language classroom things. Which I think was a very good … approach to take."*

Upcoming changes in the institutions seemed not to perturb him, as his eclectic approach allowed him to adapt to institutional changes:

"*I think even project-based learning has died a little bit now, and we are into kind of modular approach to courses, which is going to dictate* **again** [his emphasis] *the way we approach language teaching Yes, even ... in whatever institutionalized approach to language or to learning that has been imposed … I have always kept things, some of those things I know worked."*

Experiential reasons
<u>Newly Qualified teachers (NQTs)</u>

One of the 6 teachers experienced difficulties several times in applying his taught CLT methodology, both in Egypt and the UK, which he laid at the door of his lack of experience, though there are possibly cultural and institutional elements accounting for

his perceived lack of experience too. (It should also be noted that the CELTA is a qualification to teach English to adults, not for teaching children).

He describes his perceptions of his CELTA course in relation to his first teaching position at an Egyptian primary school, which he recalls as something of 'a baptism of fire' after attempting to implement his CLT methodology; he then switched to a disciplinarian, book-based approach, resorting to banging on the table when discipline broke down, and when that failed, walking out of the classroom.

> *"I want to be honest; it* [the CELTA] *didn't really prepare me for a class of 25-30 rowdy, rumbustious youngsters. I mean it gives you the knowledge in English language and structures and functions, you get to do a little bit of teaching practice. But to be honest with you, I don't think it really prepared me, I felt that the 2 years of my first teaching job was a preparation if you like. I don't think … the CELTA doesn't really give you enough experiences with challenging scenarios. You usually get a bunch of volunteer students who are very pleased to see you and they're as good as gold. I mean, it set me off on the track, but I certainly didn't feel I was qualified after it!"*

Later after completing a PGCE in the UK, he worked as a language support teacher in a secondary school, teaching ESL to largely Pakistani-origin students, but he still described himself as feeling under-equipped to teach, and *'very unsure of my skills and ability in terms of teaching effectively.'*

Practical (experiential) knowledge

This was the most frequently-given reason for diverging from CLT methodology, with it being cited 14 times by the interviewees.

Teacher P, who had almost 20 years of experience in the UK, China, Japan, Saudi Arabia and UAE, had clearly evolved a teaching style to suit what he believed his learners wanted, particularly he says with reference to his students in Saudi Arabia. Only on arrival in the UAE was he made to question the approach he had developed, being observed by a line manager who considered it 'far too teacher lead.' On reflection, he explained:

> *"I'd certainly got much more into that mould I think … at King Fahad University … it's actually in the literature, I think it's Adrian Holliday … he writes about teaching performances. The teacher puts on a great show, and the students sit there and passively watch it. I probably started to go too far towards to that. So when I got to HCT, y'know, in conjunction with the supervisor, I started to move away from that, trying to do more kind of discovery-type learning."*

He later justified his teaching style and argued, based on his experience, saying he would adapt it to whatever teaching situation he found himself in., with a particular emphasis on student needs:

> *"To be honest if somebody said "What is your teaching style?" I don't think I could say. And I was once criticized … about something I wrote … in a paper … about teaching techniques and methodology and that. A tutor actually criticized this and said "This just looks like a rag bag of techniques, are you telling me that you will do anything if it works?", and my response was "Actually, yes". I look at the students, and think "Are our students capable of this, are they capable of, for example, discovering things for themselves?" And if they like active things, I'll go*

with that. But if the needs of the course are that they improve their reading for an IELTS exams in a 6 week period, then I will go back to probably teaching reading strategies in a very traditional manner… I think the bottom line is very, very much – what do these students need?"

He went on to give a specific example where he addresses students' needs, in this case employing a 'traditional' grammar class to meet what he considered to be a deficit in the students' knowledge:

*"A good example is I'm doing level 1 writing at the moment, and … some teachers I know basically just fire lots of writing activities at the students as if they are simply going to get better by writing, writing, writing. I mean, obviously lots of practice helps, but some teachers just go in and it's like: "OK, here's task 1, here's task 2, here's another task 1" [speaking of IELTS writing tasks] and get them to write them, correct them and give them back. Whereas with a class I've got at the moment we're supposed to be … writing an assessment piece on the past tense.   So I just chucked the writing book out the window last week and gave them a good old fashioned grammar lesson on how the past tense was, because it didn't appear to me that they knew, they didn't really know, and they were just guessing… And then we did some activities to use the words and I thought that was an effective way, an **effective** [his emphasis] way to focus on the form on what they had to do. But I find some colleagues, they would say "I'm not a grammar teacher, I'm a writing teacher" and just give them a past tense writing question, without them having checked if they know the past tense, and how it works."*

When asked about his teaching approach, teacher A gave an insightful and philosophical insight into how he had moved away from CLT and embraced a wide teaching repertoire, and that he had actually entered into, as he terms it, a meta-educational perspective on the classroom, looking far beyond it in terms of inspiration, rather than the nuts and bolts of the profession:

"Well I go back to the old Richards and Rogers cop-out, the eclectic approach, but I think CLT had lost its gloss anyway, as I think questions were asked as to what was lost in terms of adopting CLT, things like the grammar and, you know, content aspects of language teaching were lost for a while…[it]… was a lot more on communication, so you know if you can communicate it didn't really matter how you did it, as long as the student was understood or was confident. But I think there's now an eclecticism, there has been a revival of a need for real competency in skills, especially in our environment where students are studying in English, or working in English, so a return to ways of getting them to be better in all the skills, writing, reading etc. … not necessarily that they are getting better [laughs], but at least professionally there has been an acknowledgement that that is important, while before it wasn't acknowledged."

His critique was not just limited to CLT, but education and educational policy as a whole, and, as he went on to explain, he had adopted a more philosophical viewpoint both on education as a whole, and the Arabian Gulf in particular.

"I've also feel professionally I've become interested in broader issues, it's not so personal, things like policy and education in general - rather than just English language and the classroom context - even our mission here and preparing people for work, and the questions related to that, I mean, is that a valid mission for education? And the context of the Gulf too, and the issues

associated with that. I find that interests me more than the kind of language-focused concerns, you know the kind of old-fashioned rarified PhD research into why Arabic readers can't spell for example, or another second language inter-language error analysis, it doesn't turn me on any more, though it used to! [laughs]. *I mean since starting a doctorate, I feel I've moved from the classroom and the language and almost entered a meta-educational analysis to the whole thing of what I'm doing, an almost existentialist philosophy of education, whereas when you start it's very technical, I do this and I do that, and you worry about how to get through the 45 minute lesson, it's almost like I'm fixing a car, whereas now I'm musing do I need the car?* [laughs], *or that it looks good but it doesn't go....or even what was the point of it in the first place?! Has it really benefitted us?!"*

Teacher N has also arrived at a similar conclusion, acknowledging that his methodological approach has changed many times since starting his career. In his current position, it has changed again, but unlike earlier in his career when in more than one situation he admits in his own words he 'had no idea what he was doing', now with a doctorate he has confidence in methodological shifts, including his latest shift in direction:

"I think it [my methodology] *has changed, and lot of it was due to … the development I got when doing the doctorate…about my search sort of for … methodological stability - and not finding it! It really started when doing the doctorate and that gave me confidence in my own … subjectivity."*

Like teacher P, teacher J, now teaching in the UAE, has arrived at a teaching style that is very much teacher-lead, with an emphasis on explanation to his students, in sharp contrast to his initial CLT training. Also like P, he justifies this based on his understanding of the needs of his students. He describes his approach as follows:

"I know this methodology goes against popular trends, current trends ... but I explain grammar a lot, I find myself explaining things a lot here more I than I never did before in my teaching career. Not just through examples, I want the students to know these things, and I find myself explaining more, and when I do that, I think, I have this idea the students will understand my explanation better. I never did that before … [but] *here is my understanding. The girls have listened to English a lot; they've had a lot of exposure, but maybe not to very good English. A teacher presenting is something they can keep up with. So that's why I do what I mentioned before, it's a time saver."*

Teacher D questioned many of the premises of his training early on, which he characterized as consisting of elements of CLT and the direct method. Even at the time of his training, he felt some of the elements of his training bordered on the foolish, and he ignored some of his training and put into practice ideas he found valid, as he describes:

"There was a period, wasn't there, where they took the direct method to the extreme, where you weren't allowed to speak the learners' language, you learnt the language through osmosis [laughs] *… that whole Rinvolucri thing, where you know, you are sitting around in circles, throwing pillows at each other, I could never get into those kind of things* [laughs]*! I mean I could never really get into that approach anyway … but that was the kind of approach that was the most acceptable. In fact, in teaching practices, it was very much frowned upon to use* **any form** [his emphasis] *of translation to help students which even then, even*

though I didn't know much about it, it seemed to be ignoring something that would facilitate the whole process. They were evangelical at that time about the whole idea – y'know, keep all other languages out, just work out meanings of words. They put a great deal of emphasis on the teacher's communicative ability…. And yet you knew perhaps the word in Spanish, or the word in French, or even in Greek or whatever. That was precisely what you wanted … and obviously in any normal classroom that's what you'd do, you'd translate. But if you were being observed …you couldn't do that."

Frustration with the CLT/direct method training he had been schooled in caused him to create his own methodology almost immediately:

*"As soon as I started teaching properly overseas, I created a hybrid of my own which worked for me, and it used the value that I saw in the way **I had been taught** [his emphasis] languages in school, and the way I had been taught **to teach** [his emphasis] languages. Which were kind of two diametrically opposed elements to an approach, two ends of a spectrum: grammar translation, and this communicative direct method."*

As he mentioned, there were elements of CLT and the direct method which he considered valuable and retained in his hybrid approach, and returning to the UK after working in the Arabian Gulf, he was keen to get up to date with language teaching methodology. As he states:

"I thought the time spent in Saudi and time I spent in Kuwait had slightly de-skilled me. And I wanted to get back into a normal EFL classroom. So I was teaching throughout that year, but only part-time. So by the time I got here I was getting back up to date with the current sort of EFL approaches and things."

As mentioned earlier, irrespective of his teaching situation, he takes a pragmatic and eclectic approach, like teachers N, A, J, and P, cherry-picking whatever he feels will work, despite the institutional constraints:

"In whatever institutionalized approach to language or to learning that has been imposed … I have always kept things, some of those things I know worked."

Teacher R concurs with his opinion, remarking of the way things have fallen in and out of favour over his teaching career:

"I suppose I have developed quite a bag of tricks over the years in terms of teaching. The CLT I was schooled in I have largely dropped here in the Gulf, to be honest with you. I just feel … learners here [in the UAE] *are lacking in study skills, yet paradoxically they seem to respond better to traditional teaching methods. If you play language games with them too much, they can accuse you of just 'playing'! So I do a bit of everything, even drilling which they seem to enjoy. I go to TESOL Arabia every year* [a regional EFL conference]*, and I remember a year or two ago, a speaker mentioned the benefits of reading aloud, as if it was a ... a new technique, or a new dawn* [laughs]*. I've been doing it for years here, it seems one of the best ways to keep the class focused and effectively manage them."*

CLT: its continued relevance for the participants

It is perhaps important to note that though all the teachers did deviate from CLT at various stages in their teaching career, all reported CLT did remain their chosen approach in a variety of teaching situations, though this was not something specifically looked at in the research question, nor asked for in the interviews. In some cases the CLT methodology seemed to be accepted unquestionably by students, but in others, initial acceptance was less forthcoming, as teacher N noticed at the British Council in Hong Kong, where new students seemed surprised at the in-house CLT methodology. As he details, there was something of a cultural shock:

"… in-terms of students from the Hong Kong education system, which tends to be very rote- learning based, and very teacher-centered. When they … came to … courses in the British Council they would be very taken aback, at least initially, that we were expecting them to talk to each other, to participate… once they cracked the er… change, the fear of that, they'd be fine, but sometimes it took a little bit of time to work on them."

In total, the teachers detailed 11 different countries as varied as Japan, Hong Kong, Mexico, Saudi Arabia, Korea and Spain where CLT remained their chosen approach. These responses are detailed in Table 2 below.

Table 2. Teachers citing examples where their initial CLT training was successfully applied

Teacher	Teaching situation	Total
P	Japan (private language institution), Saudi Arabia (University co-sessional course)	2
A	Malaysia (International Islamic University, foundations and co-sessional courses)	1
J	Korea (University)	1
D	Spain, Greece (private language institution)	2
N	UK (ESL language support in secondary school), Hong Kong (British Council)	2
R	Spain, Mexico (private language institutions), Indonesia (University foundations and co-sessional courses)	3
	Grand Total	11

DISCUSSION

It should perhaps be seen as no surprise that these participants, all highly experienced ELT professionals, have progressed in terms of their skills acquisition from Cert TEFL recruits to a level where some, as teacher A eloquently phrases it, have reached a philosophical, meta-educational view of the classroom, and the actual teaching approach has become an application of what works based on their long experience, a mix of methodologies and techniques with no particular affiliation to any

particular school. In many ways this mirrors the Dreyfus Model (1986) of progression from novice to expert, with these teachers at a point in their careers where they no longer rely on rules, plans or maxims, but have an intuitive grasp of situations based on deep tacit understanding. As Dreyfus and Dreyfus remark (1986: 4):

> *"Human understanding was a skill akin to knowing how to find one's way about in the world, rather than knowing a lot of facts and rules for relating them. Our basic understanding was thus a **knowing how** rather than **a knowing that**."*

Their level of experience and lack of adherence to any particular methodological dogma endorses Loughran's point (2010:14) that *"coming to understand that there is not one correct and best way of doing teaching is embedded in experience."* It may be argued that some of the teachers have slipped into a rut in regard to their teaching: both J and P have adopted teacher-lead approaches because they appear to work and are effective ways to manage the class, though they are aware this could leave them open to criticism - P concedes his line manager criticized his approach, and J acknowledges his 'lecturing' approach is controversial and it is 'against current trends'.

However, the participants have not totally discarded the CLT methodology they were schooled in, with 11 unsolicited endorsements of CLT in the earlier 'overview of responses' section, with the methodology reported to work well in non-BANA countries as diverse as Japan, Saudi Arabia, Korea, Hong Kong, Indonesia, Malaysia and Mexico. Some, such as teacher P, actually explicitly stated they have 'returned' to some of the aspects of CLT in their current teaching situation, recognizing that their approach had become too teacher-centred, and despite giving the illusion it 'worked' through student 'approval', was probably engendering student passivity rather than active learning. So although the continuing relevance of aspects of CLT was not something actively sought out in the research, nor pursued in interviews, nevertheless it is worthy of mention and possibly further investigation.

In conclusion, the research sample indicated that with a total of 41 responses of divergence from their schooled CLT methodology, all the teachers had adopted different approaches for a variety of reasons, embracing eclecticism in their teaching largely based upon whatever 'worked', and generally for experiential reasons rather than cultural or institutional considerations.

It is perhaps pertinent to note that such a favouring of an eclectic methodology amongst an experienced body of teachers is hardly new, and indeed echoes the findings of Dr. Henry Sweet, writing over 100 year ago:

> *"But none of these methods retain their popularity long — the interest in them soon dies out… [they] have all had their day. They have all failed to keep a permanent hold on the public mind because they have all failed to perform what they promised: after promising impossibilities they have all turned out to be on the whole no better than the older methods…. A good method must, before all, be comprehensive and eclectic."* (Sweet, 1899: 3).

REFERENCES

Brandl, K (2008) *Communicative Language Teaching in Action: Putting Principles to Work.* Washington: Pearson

Breen, M. P., & Candlin, C. N. (1980) *The Essentials of a Communicative Curriculum in Language Teaching.* Applied Linguistics, 1(2), 89-110.

Cohen, L., Manion, L. and Morrison, K. (2007) *Research Methods In Education.* London: Routledge

Cresswell, J. (2009) *Research design: Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed Method Approaches.* CA: Sage

Golden-Biddle, K., & Locke, K. (2007) *Composing qualitative research* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Holliday, A. (1999) *Small cultures.* Applied Linguistics, 20 (2), 237-264.

Loughran, J. (2010) *What expert teachers do.* New York: Routledge

Nunan, D. (2003) *The impact of English as a global language on educational policies and practices in the Asia-Pacific Region.* TESOL Quarterly, 37(4), 589 – 613

Richards, J. C. (2006) *Communicative Language Teaching Today.* New York: Cambridge University Press

Richards, J. C., & Rogers, T. (2001) *Approaches and methods in language teaching.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

Savignon, S. J. (1983) *Communicative competence: Theory and classroom practice.* Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley

Sweet, H. (1899) *The Practical Study of Languages: a Guide for Teachers.* London: OUP

Available online at: http://archive.org/stream/practicalstudyl00sweegoog#page/n18/mode/2up

Widdowson, H. G. (1978). *Teaching language as communication.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.