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HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHER EDUCATORS IN COLLEGES OF EDUCATION

Noorjehan N. GANİHAR

Karnatak University, Karnataka

nnganihar@rediffmail.com

Biodata

Dr. Noorjehan N. Ganihar is working in Karnatak University, Dharwad since 1986. Presently she is a Professor, Post-graduate Department of Education, Dean, Faculty of Education, Karnatak University, Dharwad, Director of UGC Sponsored Dr. Zakir Husain Studies Centre, Co-ordinator of Karnataka State Open University, Mysore, she was the former Academic Council member of Karnatak University, Dharwad and former Syndicate member of Karnatak University. She obtained her M.A. in Economics, M.Ed., and Ph.D. Degrees. She has a P.G Diploma in Education from S.N.D.T. Women's University, Bombay. She also has a P.G. Diploma in Human Resource Management, and a P.G. Diploma in Higher Education from IGNOU. She was a "Second Rank" holder in her B.A course, "First Rank" holder in B.Ed., M.Ed. and P.G Diploma in Education Management.

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Noorjehan N. GANİHAR
nnganihar@rediffmail.com

Abstract

This paper explores human resource as an integral force in a society. Though it has many faceted aims and objectives, the significant aim is to develop the human resource in schools and colleges. A country may have well-defined policy infrastructure facilities, well-equipped laboratories and libraries, but it can hardly achieve its educational goals unless it has committed teachers. In recent years considerable concern has been felt in the sphere of teacher education. Its role to develop the human resources in schools and colleges is greatly emphasized. Training needs can be aptly explained as the gap between the requirements for skills and knowledge inherent in the job and those possessed by the current jobholder. Teacher educators working in teacher education colleges need through training in their teaching skills and knowledge. From the findings of this paper it is observed that teacher educators irrespective of their age, gender, designation, subject specialization have shown their bent of mind about the need for training in their profession. So in order to gear up their potential abilities in the field of their workplace, intensive training through refresher and orientation courses is the need of the hour.

1. Introduction

Education is an integral force in a society. Though it has many faceted aims and objectives, the significant aim is to develop the human resource in schools and colleges. The National Education Policy (1986) rightly points out that students are positive assets with high potentials who have to be developed with tenderness and care. Without them no social institutions like schools and colleges can exist whose permanent concern is to develop human potentials.

A country may have well-defined policy infrastructure facilities, well-equipped laboratories and libraries, but it can hardly achieve its educational goals unless it has committed teachers. In recent years considerable concern has been felt in the sphere of teacher education. Its role to develop the human resource in schools and colleges is greatly emphasized.

1.1. Meaning of Teacher Education

It is well known that the quality and extent of learner achievement are determined primarily by teacher competence, sensitivity and teacher motivation. The National Council for Teacher Education (1998) has defined teacher education as – A programme of education, research and training of persons to teach from pre-primary to higher education level. Teacher education is a programme that is related to the development of teacher proficiency and competence that would enable and empower the teacher to meet the requirements of the profession and face the challenges therein. According to Good's Dictionary of Education (1945) teacher education means, all the formal and non-formal activities and experiences that help to qualify a person to assume responsibilities of a member of the educational profession or to discharge his

responsibilities more effectively. In 1906-1956, the program of teacher preparation was called teacher training. It prepared teachers as mechanics or technicians. It had narrower goals with its focus being only on skill training. The perspective of teacher education was therefore very narrow and its scope was limited. As Kilpatric (2002) put it, ―Training is given to animals and circus performers, while education is to human beings. Teacher education encompasses teaching skills, sound pedagogical theory and professional skills. Teacher Education = Teaching Skills + Pedagogical theory + Professional skills. Teaching skills would include providing training and practice in the different techniques, approaches and strategies that would help the teachers to plan and impart instruction, provide appropriate reinforcement and conduct effective assessment. It includes effective classroom management skills, preparation and use of instructional materials and communication skills.

1.2. Human Resource Development

The emerging trend in modern educational management is clearly towards the adoption of human resource philosophy. With the effective utilization of this approach, organizations benefit from two significant payoffs: increased organizational effectiveness and bonafide satisfaction of individual employee's needs. Rather than viewing the achievement of the organizational and human needs and of the employees needs as separate and exclusive events, supporters of the human resource philosophy contend that these needs are mutual and compatible. One need not be gained at the expense of the other.

'Human Resource' is a relatively new concept in the field of management and organization. The term, signifying humanistic approach in solving social problems, became popular during the early 1970's and showed that managing people as resources rather than factors of production or simply as human beings with feelings and emotions could result in benefiting richly both the organization and its employees. A number of principles have been evolved to provide the base for a human resource approach.

Human resource development has been a concern not only of national bodies but also of international organizations. Teacher quality plays a vital role in ensuring optimum human resource development. The paper highlights the various endeavors made by the Central and State governments to augment the quality of education, teacher preparation and professional development of teachers. It suggests the employment of a number of strategies to address the issue in the field of school education in general and teacher education in particular (World Bank, 1994).

The relevance and significance of Human Resource Development (HRD) for the development of an economy and its people is now very well established across the world and it is widely appreciated by the national governments as well as international agencies and institutions like UNO, ILO, WHO, UNESCO, UNDP, etc. Emphasis on human resource development increased especially due to certain international developments that took place during the last few decades like opening of global markets, increased market orientation of economies and restructuring in socialist countries which have given rise to an increased competition, forcing developing countries to produce and market their products and services at competitive prices. Development of highly competitive abilities and products has been made possible essentially by changing the orientation of the process of education to human resource development which focuses on increased productivity of human resources by linking it closely with technical progress at all levels of work (Boxall, 1992).

Human resource development is the process of enabling people to make things happen. It deals with both: (1) the process of competency development in people (which includes knowledge, skills, attitudes and values); and (2) the creation of conditions (through public policy, programmes and other interventions) to help people apply these competencies for their own benefit and for that of others (Rao 1996). Implied in this conceptualization of human resource development are many facets of development of people including their physical, intellectual, emotional, social, moral and all other forms of development. Physical development demands proper health and nutritional care of the learners and specific programmes and public investment for the same. Intellectual development of people comes through the process of education. However, a well thought and rigorously enforced system of education which ensures an all-round and balanced development of individuals and groups remains at the centre of the process of human resource development. The emphasis on education is reinforced by the pioneering example of enhancing economic growth through social opportunity, especially in basic education, of Japan. It is sometimes forgotten that Japan had a higher rate of literacy than Europe had even at the time of Meiji restoration in the mid-nineteenth century, when industrialization had not occurred there but had gone on for many decades in Europe. Japan's economic development, stresses Sen, was clearly much helped by the human resource development related to the social opportunities that were generated. The so-called East Asian miracle involving other countries in the East Asia was, to a great extent, based on similar causal connections. These economies went comparatively early for massive expansion of education and, later also, for health-care.

Human resource development is a never-ending continuous process which is closely linked with the changing needs of the society in various spheres of human activity. Changing societal need patterns which emerge due to the dynamic nature of economic, political and social processes demand that the sets of competencies developed by education systems at one point of time should be updated, reformed and refurbished continually in order to keep the developed human resources continuously relevant and progressively engaged in the development process. This point has been well stressed in the Report of the UNESCO's International Commission on Education for the 21st Century which argues that in future the workers will have to learn and re-learn new skill sets continually as the already learnt skill sets would be found unacceptable as being obsolete in the job market at short intervals. This signifies the fact that human resource development has to be a continuous process which is composed of initial development of human beings through first phase of their education followed by continued upgradation and further development throughout the active working life of the individuals. The direction of this continued upgradation of human resources in a society will be linked with the fast emerging information society which is emphasizing the intangible dimension of work, heavily stressing on the development and honing of intellectual and social skills of individual workers. Thus, education systems no longer be expected to train a labour force for stable industrial jobs. They must instead train individuals to be innovative, capable of evolving, adapting to a rapidly changing world and assimilating change.

This important point was also emphasized by the Heads of the Commonwealth States when they met in Zimbabwe in 1991. They appreciated that human resource development is central to the promotion of sustainable development and alleviation of poverty in all commonwealth countries, despite a wide diversity among them. This has been very well demonstrated by the earlier referred example of Japan and other East Asian economies which had expanded education and health-care facilities much before they broke the restraints of general poverty (Brown, 2010).

In the 1991 Commonwealth Heads' Conference, a Working Group on Human Resource Development was formed which recommended five key strategies for effecting human resource development including: well managed and more professional government; partnership with NGOs and the private sector; priority for women; mobilization of resources for education and HRD; and use of technology. The Group also stressed that a 'mission approach' has to be followed in implementing these strategies (Rai, 1996).

1.3. Performance Appraisal

Performance appraisal is personnel evaluation method seeking the measurement of employee work effectiveness using objective criteria. Performance appraisal systems hope to achieve higher productivity outcomes by delineating how employees meet job specifications. A major challenge for performance appraisal systems is to define performance standards while maintaining objectivity. Performance appraisal is one of the important components in the rational and systematic process of human resource management.

1.4. In-Service Education

In-service education is obligatory on the part of the teachers who are supposed to know the modern methods, approaches, techniques and other recent trends involving the application of educational principles. Despite having vast resources and manpower, India has not been able to achieve a prominent position in the world. The reason is lack of training without clear-cut objectives. Radhakrishanan (1948), the Chairman of the Education Commission stressed the importance of post-training of the teachers and said: Most of our teachers do not keep intellectually alert and there is little, inducement for them to do. It is extraordinary that our schoolteachers learn all of whatever subject they teach before reaching the age of 24 or 25 and then all their future education is left to experience, which is another name for stagnation.

The in-service education that gears up teacher's potential has to be organized in such a way that the teachers realize relevance of the course material to their classroom practice.

1.5. Training Needs

Training can contribute to the effective use of the organizations resources, but only if approached systematically.

The importance of clearly defining needs before embarking on a training programme cannot be over-emphasized.

A training need can be defined as the gap between the requirements for skills and knowledge inherent in the job and those possessed by the current jobholder. It is vital that this gap is adequately analyzed to establish exactly what training is required.

1.6. The problem

The present investigation is entitled as **"Human Resource Development of Teacher Educators in Colleges of Education"** No doubt that everyone is interested in knowing how human resource development in each teacher education college can be achieved by regulating some correlated factors.

The present study aims at identifying certain variables responsible for human resource development in teacher education colleges that account for growth and development and prosperity of the institutions.

1.7. Objectives

The present study has the following objectives:

1. To study the difference in perception of human resource development climate of
   a. teacher educators of different age groups i.e. above and below 35 years
   b. men and women teacher educators
   c. arts and science teacher educators
   d. teacher educators working in aided and unaided colleges
2. To study the difference in perception of performance appraisal of
   a. teacher educators of different age groups i.e. above and below 35 years
   b. men and women teacher educators
   c. arts and science teacher educators
   d. teacher educators working in aided and unaided colleges
3. To study the difference in perception of in-service education of
   a. teacher educators of different age groups i.e. above and below 35 years
   b. men and women teacher educators
   c. arts and science teacher educators
   d. teacher educators with and without in-service education
   e. teacher educators working in aided and unaided colleges
4. To study the difference in perception of secondary teacher educators training needs of
   a. teacher educators of different age groups i.e. above and below 35 years
   b. men and women teacher educators
   c. arts and science teacher educators
   d. teacher educators with and without in-service education
   e. teacher educators working in aided and unaided colleges
5. To study the difference between principals and teacher educators in their perception of human resource development climate.
6. To study the difference between principals and teacher educators in their perception of performance appraisal.
7. To study the inter correlation between human resource development climate and
   a. performance appraisal
8. To study the inter correlation between human resource development climate and
   a. performance appraisal
   b. in-service education

c. secondary teacher educators training needs dimensions viz. instructional planning and preparation, subject matter competence, teaching competence, classroom management competence, instructional management, community service (academic), community service (social), professional self-development and general awareness.

1.8. Hypotheses

The following hypotheses are formulated based on the objectives of the study:

*Hypothesis***:** There is no significant difference between principals and teacher educators with respect to their perception of human resource development climate.

*Hypothesis***:** There is no significant difference between principals and teacher educators with respect to their perception of performance appraisal Part-I and Part-II

*Hypothesis***:** There is no significant difference between age groups (below 35 and above 35) of teacher educators with respect to their perception of human resource development climate.

*Hypothesis***:** There is no significant difference between age groups (below 35 and above 35) with respect to their perception of performance appraisal Part-I and Part-II

*Hypothesis***:** There is no significant difference between male and female teacher educators with respect to their perception of human resource development climate.

*Hypothesis***:** There is no significant difference between gender (Male and Female) with respect to their perception of performance appraisal Part-I and Part-II.

*Hypothesis***:** There is no significant difference between gender (Male and Female) with respect to their perception of performance appraisal Part-I and Part-II

*Hypothesis***:** There is no significant difference between principals and teacher educators with respect to their perception of inservice education

*Hypothesis***:** There is no significant difference between principals and teacher educators with respect to their perception of teacher educators training needs and its dimensions

*Hypothesis***:** There is no significant difference between age groups (below 35 and above 35) of teacher educators with respect to their perception of inservice education.

*Hypothesis***:** There is no significant difference between age groups (below 35 and above 35) of teacher educators with respect to their perception of teacher educators training needs and its dimensions

*Hypothesis***:** There is no significant difference between male and female teacher educators with respect to their perception of inservice education.

*Hypothesis***:** There is no significant difference between male and female teacher educators with respect to their perception of teacher educators training needs and its dimensions

*Hypothesis***:** There is no significant relationship among human resource development climate and

1. Performance appraisal part I
2. Performance appraisal part II
3. In service education scale
4. Instructional planning and preparation
5. Subject matter competence

6. Teaching competence
7. Classroom management competence
8. Institutional management
9. Academic community service
10. Social community service
11. Professional self-development
12. General awareness
13. Secondary teacher educators training needs

*Hypothesis***:** Performance appraisal part I, Performance appraisal part II, In service education scale, Instructional planning and preparation, Subject matter competence, Teaching competence, Classroom management competence, Institutional management , Academic community service, Social community service, Professional self-development and General awareness would not be a significant predictors of perception of human resource development climate of teacher educators.

2. Methodology

The present study adopted descriptive survey method and the data were collected from principals and teacher educators from teacher education colleges.

2.1. Sample

The data for the study were gathered using a sample of 200 teacher educators, 30 principals from 34 colleges of education in four districts coming under Karnatak University, Dharwad. The teacher educators and principals were selected from each college giving due representation to the age, gender, designation, methods of teaching, in-service programme and type of management.

2.2. Tools

The following tools were administered to principals and teacher educators of teacher education colleges.

1. Human Resource Development Climate Questionnaire by Rao and Abraham (1990) (Principals and teacher educators)

2. Performance Appraisal Effectiveness Questionnaire Part I by Rao and Abraham (1990) (Principals and teacher educators)

b) Performance Appraisal Effectiveness Questionnaire Part II (Teacher Educators)

3. In-service Education Scale (Training Effectiveness Questionnaire) by Rao and Abraham (1990)

4. Secondary Teacher Educators Training Needs Assessment Scale by Nilavar (1992)

2.3. Data Collection

The investigator personally collected the data from 30 teacher education colleges out of 34 teacher education colleges affiliated to Karnatak University in four districts. Principals and individual teacher educators were personally administered the tools. Clear-cut instructions were given to fill up the responses to the items in the tools. The filled in proformas were collected.

2.4.Data Analyses

For the analysis of the data collected, differential and correlation statistics were used.

Table 1. *Results of t-test between Principals and Teacher Educators with Respect to their Perception of Human Resource Development Climate*

Group	Mean	SD	t-value	p-value	Signi.
Teacher educators	69.5429	15.9308	0.2993	>0.05	NS
Principals	68.5952	17.7266			

From the results of the above table, it can be seen that, the principals and teacher educators of colleges do not differ significantly with respect to their perception of human resource development climate (t=0.2993, p>0.05) at 5% level of significance. Hence, the null hypothesis is accepted and alternative hypothesis is rejected. It means that the principals and teacher educators of colleges have similar perception of human resource development climate.

Table 2. *Results of t-test between Principals and Teacher Educators with Respect to their perception of Performance Appraisal Part-I and Part-II*

Performance appraisal	Group	Mean	SD	t-value	p-value	Signi.
Part I	Teacher educators	34.8600	8.0376	-1.2555	>0.05	NS
	Principals	36.8000	6.8097			
Part II	Teacher educators	37.5150	9.0131	-0.3886	>0.05	NS
	Principals	38.2000	8.9381			

From the results of the above table, it can be seen that,

1. The principals and teacher educators of colleges do not differ significantly with respect to their perception of perception of performance appraisal Part-I (t=-1.2555, p>0.05) at 5% level of significance. Hence, the null hypothesis is accepted and alternative hypothesis is rejected. It means that the principals and teacher educators of colleges have similar perception of performance appraisal Part-I.
2. The principals and teacher educators of colleges do not differ significantly with respect to their perception of perception of performance appraisal Part-II (t=-0.3886, p>0.05) at 5% level of significance. Hence, the null hypothesis is accepted and alternative hypothesis is rejected. It means that the principals and teacher educators of colleges have similar perception of performance appraisal Part-II.

Table 3. *Results of t-test between Age Groups (Below 35 and Above 35) of Teacher Educators with Respect to their Perception of Human Resource Development Climate*

Age groups	Mean	SD	t-value	p-value	Signi.
Below 35	70.8754	14.2832	1.2082	>0.05	NS
Above 35	68.1560	17.4479			

1. From the results of the above table, it can be seen that, the teacher educators belonging to below 35yrs and above 35yrs of age groups do not differ significantly with respect to perception of human resource development climate (t=1.2082, p>0.05) at 5% level of significance. Hence, the null hypothesis is accepted and alternative hypothesis is

rejected. It means that the teacher educators belonging to below 35yrs and above 35yrs of age groups have similar perception of human resource development climate.

Table 4. *Results of t-test between Age Groups (Below 35 and Above 35) of Teacher Educators with Respect to their Perception of Performance Appraisal Part-I and Part-II*

Performance appraisal	Age groups	Mean	SD	t-value	p-value	Signi.
Part I	Below 35	35.1961	7.0697	0.6023	>0.05	NS
	Above 35	34.5102	8.9584			
Part II	Below 35	38.4314	7.7313	1.4712	>0.05	NS
	Above 35	36.5612	10.1301			

From the results of the above table, it can be seen that,

1. The teacher educators belonging to below 35yrs and above 35yrs of age groups do not differ significantly with respect to perception of performance appraisal Part-I ($t=0.6023$, $p>0.05$) at 5% level of significance. Hence, the null hypothesis is accepted and alternative hypothesis is rejected. It means that the teacher educators belonging to below 35yrs and above 35yrs of age groups have similar perception of performance appraisal Part-I.
2. The teacher educators belonging to below 35yrs and above 35yrs of age groups do not differ significantly with respect to perception of performance appraisal Part-II ($t=1.4712$, $p>0.05$) at 5% level of significance. Hence, the null hypothesis is accepted and alternative hypothesis is rejected. It means that the teacher educators belong to below 35yrs and above 35yrs of age groups have similar perception of performance appraisal Part-II.

Table 5**.** *Results of t-test between Age Groups (Below 35 and Above 35) of Teacher Educators with Respect to their Perception of Teacher Educators Training Needs and its Dimensions*

Variable	Age groups	Mean	SD	t-value	p-value	Signi
Instructional planning and preparation	Below 35	53.7990	17.5163	2.2618	<0.05	S
	Above 35	47.9911	18.7942			
Subject matter competence	Below 35	64.7059	22.6400	2.0642	<0.05	S
	Above 35	58.0357	23.0558			
Classroom management competence	Below 35	64.6514	25.1968	3.0338	<0.05	S
	Above 35	54.6769	21.0176			
Institutional management	Below 35	66.5074	21.3342	2.2246	<0.05	S
	Above 35	60.1403	19.0207			
Social community service	Below 35	64.7518	20.3221	2.4241	<0.05	S
	Above 35	57.8603	19.8626			
Professional self-development	Below 35	63.8009	20.4120	2.1855	<0.05	S
	Above 35	57.4961	20.3772			
Teacher educators training needs assessment	Below 35	64.3990	18.1131	2.4174	<0.05	S
	Above 35	58.3562	17.2008			

From the results of the above table, it can be seen that,

1. The teacher educators belonging to below 35years and above 35years of age groups differ significantly with respect to perception of instructional planning and preparation ($t=2.2618$, $p<0.05$) at 5% level of significance. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected and alternative hypothesis is accepted. It means that the teacher educators belonging to below 35years of age group have higher perception of instructional planning and preparation as compared to educators belonging to above 35years of age group.
2. The teacher educators belonging to below 35years and above 35years of age groups differ significantly with respect to perception of subject matter competence ($t=2.0642$, $p<0.05$) at 5% level of significance. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected and alternative hypothesis is accepted. It means that the teacher educators belonging to below 35years of age group have higher perception of subject matter competence as compared to educators belonging to above 35years of age group.
3. The teacher educators belonging to below 35years and above 35years of age groups differ significantly with respect to perception of classroom management competence ($t=3.0338$, $p<0.05$) at 5% level of significance. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected and alternative hypothesis is accepted. It means that the teacher educators belonging to below 35years of age group have higher perception of classroom management competence as compared to educators belonging to above 35years of age group.
4. The teacher educators belonging to below 35years and above 35years of age groups differ significantly with respect to perception of institutional management ($t=2.2246$, $p<0.05$) at 5% level of significance. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected and alternative hypothesis is accepted. It means that the teacher educators belonging to below 35years of age group have higher perception of institutional management as compared to educators belonging to above 35years of age group.
5. The teacher educators belonging to below 35years and above 35years of age groups differ significantly with respect to perception of social community service ($t=2.4241$, $p<0.05$) at 5% level of significance. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected and alternative hypothesis is accepted. It means that the teacher educators belonging to below 35years of age group have higher perception of social community service as compared to educators belonging to above 35years of age group.
6. The teacher educators belonging to below 35years and above 35years of age groups differ significantly with respect to perception of professional self-development ($t=2.1855$, $p<0.05$) at 5% level of significance. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected and alternative hypothesis is accepted. It means that the teacher educators belonging to below 35years of age group have higher perception of professional self-development as compared to educators belonging to above 35years of age group.
7. The teacher educators belonging to below 35years and above 35years of age groups differ significantly with respect to perception of teacher educators training needs assessment ($t=2.4174$, $p<0.05$) at 5% level of significance. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected and alternative hypothesis is accepted. It means that the teacher educators belonging to below 35years of age group have higher perception of teacher educators training needs as compared to educators belonging to above 35years of age group.

Table 6**.** *Results of t-test between Male and Female Teacher Educators with Respect to their Perception of Human Resource Development Climate*

Gender	Mean	SD	t-value	p-value	Signi.
Male	70.3571	15.6042	0.7220	>0.05	NS
Female	68.7286	16.2884			

From the results of the above table, it can be seen that, the male and female teacher educators do not differ with respect to perception of human resource development climate (t=0.7220, p>0.05) at 5% level of significance. Hence, the null hypothesis is accepted and alternative hypothesis is rejected. It means that the male and female teacher educators have similar perception of human resource development climate.

Table 7**.** *Results of t-test between Male and Female Teacher Educators with Respect to their perception of Performance Appraisal Part-I and Part-II*

Performance appraisal	Gender	Mean	SD	t-value	p-value	Signi.
Part I	Male	36.0000	7.7185	2.0213	<0.05	S
	Female	33.7200	8.2255			
Part II	Male	38.6300	9.1692	1.7587	>0.05	NS
	Female	36.4000	8.7583			

From the results of the above table, it can be seen that,

1. The male and female teacher educators differ significantly with respect to perception of performance appraisal Part-I (t=2.0213, p<0.05) at 5% level of significance. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected and alternative hypothesis is accepted. It means that the male teacher educators have higher perception of performance appraisal Part-I as compared to female teacher educators.
2. The male and female teacher educators do not differ significantly with respect to perception of performance appraisal Part-II (t=1.7587, p>0.05) at 5% level of significance. Hence, the null hypothesis is accepted and alternative hypothesis is rejected. It means that the male and female teacher educators have similar perception of performance appraisal Part-II scores.

Table 8**.** *Results of t-test between Male and Female Teacher Educators with Respect to their perception of Inservice Education*

Gender	Mean	SD	t-value	p-value	Signi.
Male	73.5455	16.5174	2.1963	<0.05	S
Female	68.7614	14.2001			

From the results of the above table, it can be seen that, the male and female teacher educators differ significantly with respect to perception of inservice education (t=2.1963, p<0.05) at 5% level of significance. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected and alternative hypothesis is accepted. It means that the male teacher educators have higher perception of inservice education as compared to female teacher educators.

Table 9. *Results of t-test between Male and Female Teacher Educators with Respect to their Perception of Teacher Educators Training Needs and its Dimensions*

Variable	Gender	Mean	SD	t-value	p-value	Signi.
	Female	62.0556	21.7013			
Institutional management	Male	59.6000	20.8650	-2.6611	<0.05	S
	Female	67.1750	19.3638			
Social community service	Male	58.0781	20.2183	-2.3169	<0.05	S
	Female	64.6719	20.0281			
Professional self-development	Male	57.3654	20.9401	-2.3238	<0.05	S
	Female	64.0577	19.7704			
General awareness	Male	54.8000	18.7737	-2.9680	<0.05	S
	Female	62.8375	19.5166			
Teacher educators training needs assessment	Male	58.3361	18.2322	-2.4843	<0.05	S
	Female	64.5399	17.0642			

From the results of the above table, it can be seen that,

1. The male and female teacher educators differ significantly with respect to perception of institutional management ($t=-2.6611$ $p<0.05$) at 5% level of significance. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected and alternative hypothesis is accepted. It means that the female teacher educators have higher perception of institutional management as compared to male teacher educators.
2. The male and female teacher educators differ significantly with respect to perception of social community service ($t=-2.3169$, $p<0.05$) at 5% level of significance. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected and alternative hypothesis is accepted. It means that the female teacher educators have higher perception of social community service as compared to male teacher educators.
3. The male and female teacher educators differ significantly with respect to perception of professional self-development ($t=-2.3238$, $p<0.05$) at 5% level of significance. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected and alternative hypothesis is accepted. It means that the female teacher educators have higher perception of professional self-development as compared to male teacher educators.
4. The male and female teacher educators differ significantly with respect to perception of general awareness ($t=-2.9680$, $p<0.05$) at 5% level of significance. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected and alternative hypothesis is accepted. It means that the female teacher educators have higher perception of general awareness as compared to male teacher educators.
5. The male and female teacher educators differ significantly with respect to perception of teacher educators training needs assessment ($t=-2.4843$, $p<0.05$) at 5% level of significance. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected and alternative hypothesis is accepted. It means that the female teacher educators have higher perception of teacher educators training needs as compared to male teacher educators.

Table 10. *Results of t-test between Teacher Educators with and Without Inservice Education with Respect to their Perception of Secondary Teacher Educators Training Needs and its Dimensions*

Variable	Inservice education	Mean	SD	t-value	p-value	Signi.
Instructional planning and preparation	Within service	47.0644	18.8210	-2.1229	<.05	S
	Without in service	52.8685	17.8597			
Classroom management competence	Within service	53.1987	21.2123	-2.7939	<.05	S
	Without in service	62.9975	24.2869			
Institutional management	Within service	57.7841	19.1009	-2.7668	<.05	S
	Without in service	66.1474	20.5711			

From the results of the above table, it can be seen that,

1. The teacher educators with and without inservice education differ significantly with respect to perception of instructional planning and preparation (t=-2.1229, p<0.05) at 5% level of significance. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected and alternative hypothesis is accepted. It means that the teacher educators without inservice education have higher perception of instructional planning and preparation as compared to teacher educators with inservice education.
2. The teacher educators with and without inservice education differ significantly with respect to perception of classroom management competence (t=-2.7939, p<0.05) at 5% level of significance. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected and alternative hypothesis is accepted. It means that the teacher educators without inservice education have higher perception of classroom management competence as compared to teacher educators with inservice education.
3. The teacher educators with and without inservice education differ significantly with respect to perception of institutional management (t=-2.7668, p<0.05) at 5% level of significance. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected and alternative hypothesis is accepted. It means that the teacher educators without inservice education have higher perception of institutional management as compared to teacher educators with inservice education.

Table 11. *Results of Correlation Coefficient among Human Resource Development Climate and Other Variables*

variables	HRDC	PA I	PA II	IPAP	SMC	TC	CRMC	IM	CS-AC	CS-SO	PSD	GA	STETN
HRDC	1.00												
PA I	0.69*	1.00											
PA II	0.64*	0.76*	1.00										
IPAP	-0.03	-0.03	-0.14	1.00									
SMC	-0.10	-0.04	-0.05	0.82*	1.00								
TC	-0.03	-0.11	-0.15	0.76*	0.70*	1.00							
CRMC	0.03	-0.01	-0.10	0.63*	0.62*	0.74*	1.00						
IM	0.01	-0.08	-0.10	0.69*	0.64*	0.75*	0.71*	1.00					
CS-AC	-0.01	-0.01	-0.05	0.47*	0.57*	0.50*	0.59*	0.63*	1.00				
CS-SO	-0.01	-0.06	-0.09	0.68*	0.66*	0.78*	0.76*	0.81*	0.66*	1.00			

PSD	-0.04	-0.10	-0.11	0.62*	0.62*	0.69*	0.69*	0.76*	0.82*	0.81*	1.00		
GA	-0.16*	-0.25*	-0.26*	0.55*	0.57*	0.70*	0.65*	0.73*	0.60*	0.78*	0.79*	1.00	
STETN	-0.04	-0.11	-0.15*	0.78*	0.76*	0.89*	0.83*	0.90*	0.73*	0.92*	0.89*	0.86*	1.00

*p<0.05

From the results of the above table, it can be seen clearly that,

1. Human resource development climate scores are significantly and positively correlated with
   - Performance appraisal part I scores
   - Performance appraisal part II scores at 5% level of significance (p<0.05)
2. Human resource development climate is significantly and negatively correlated with
   - General awareness
3. Performance appraisal part I scores are significantly and positively correlated with
   - Performance appraisal part II scores at 5% level of significance (p<0.05)
4. Performance appraisal part I scores are significantly and negatively correlated with
   - General awareness scores at 5% level of significance (p<0.05)
5. Performance appraisal part II scores are significantly and negatively correlated with
   - General awareness scores at 5% level of significance (p<0.05)
6. Instructional planning and preparation scores are significantly and positively correlated with
   -Subject matter competence scores
   -Teaching competence scores
   -Classroom management competence scores
   -Institutional management scores
   -Academic community service scores
   -Social community service scores
   -Professional self-development scores
   -General awareness scores
   -Secondary teacher educators training needs at 5% level of significance (p<0.05)
7. Subject matter competence scores are significantly and positively correlated with
   -Teaching competence scores
   -Classroom management competence scores
   -Institutional management scores
   -Academic community service scores

-Social community service scores

-Professional self-development scores

-General awareness scores

-Secondary teacher educators training needs at 5% level of significance ($p<0.05$)

8. Teaching competence scores are significantly and positively correlated with

-Classroom management competence scores

-Institutional management scores

-Academic community service scores

-Social community service scores

-Professional self-development scores

-General awareness scores

-Secondary teacher educators training needs at 5% level of significance ($p<0.05$)

9. Classroom management competence scores are significantly and positively correlated with

-Institutional management scores

-Academic community service scores

-Social community service scores

-Professional self-development scores

-General awareness scores

-Secondary teacher educators training needs at 5% level of significance ($p<0.05$)

10. Institutional management scores are significantly and positively correlated with

-Academic community service scores

-Social community service scores

-Professional self-development scores

-General awareness scores

-Secondary teacher educators training needs at 5% level of significance ($p<0.05$)

11. Academic community service scores are significantly and positively correlated with

-Social community service scores

-Professional self-development scores

-General awareness scores

-Secondary teacher educators training needs at 5% level of significance ($p<0.05$)

12. Social community service scores are significantly and positively correlated with

-Professional self-development scores

-General awareness scores

-Secondary teacher educators training needs at 5% level of significance ($p<0.05$)

13. Professional self-development scores are significantly and positively correlated with

-General awareness scores

-Secondary teacher educators training needs at 5% level of significance ($p<0.05$)

14. General awareness scores are significantly and positively correlated with

-Secondary teacher educators training needs at 5% level of significance ($p<0.05$)

3. Major findings

The major findings of the study are enumerated as follows.

1 The teacher educators belonging to below 35years of age group have higher perception of instructional planning and preparation as compared to educators belonging to above 35years of age group.

2 The teacher educators belonging to below 35years of age group have higher perception of subject matter competence as compared to educators belonging to above 35years of age group.

3 The teacher educators belonging to below 35years of age group have higher perception of classroom management competence as compared to educators belonging to above 35years of age group.

4 The teacher educators belonging to below 35years of age group have higher perception of institutional management as compared to educators belonging to above 35years of age group.

5 The teacher educators belonging to below 35years of age group have higher perception of social community service as compared to educators belonging to above 35years of age group.

6 The teacher educators belonging to below 35years of age group have higher perception of professional self-development as compared to educators belonging to above 35years of age group.

7 The teacher educators belonging to below 35years of age group have higher perception of teacher educators training needs as compared to educators belonging to above 35years of age group

8 The male teacher educators have higher perception of performance appraisal Part-I as compared to female teacher educators.

9 The male teacher educators have higher perception of in-service education as compared to female teacher educators.

10 The female teacher educators have higher perception of institutional management as compared to male teacher educators.

11 The female teacher educators have higher perception of social community service as compared to male teacher educators.

12 The female teacher educators have higher perception of professional self-development as compared to male teacher educators.

13 The female teacher educators have higher perception of general awareness as compared to male teacher educators.

14 The female teacher educators have higher perception of teacher educators training needs as compared to male teacher educators.

15 The teacher educators without in-service education have higher perception of instructional planning and preparation as compared to teacher educators with in-service education.

16 The teacher educators without in-service education have higher perception of classroom management competence as compared to teacher educators with in-service education.

17 The teacher educators without in-service education have higher perception of institutional management as compared to teacher educators with in-service education.

18 The male teacher educators have higher perception of performance appraisal Part-I as compared to female teacher educators.

19 The male and female teacher educators have similar perception of performance appraisal Part-II scores.

3.1. Findings of Correlation Analysis

1. Human resource development climate is significantly and positively correlated with

   - Performance appraisal part I

   - Performance appraisal part II

2. Performance appraisal part I is significantly and positively correlated with

   - Performance appraisal part II

4. Instructional planning and preparation is significantly and positively correlated with

   -Subject matter competence

   -Teaching competence

   -Classroom management competence

   -Institutional management

   -Academic community service

   -Social community service

   -Professional self-development

   -General awareness

   -Secondary teacher educators training needs

5. Subject matter competence is significantly and positively correlated with

   -Teaching competence

-Classroom management competence
-Institutional management
-Academic community service
-Social community service
-Professional self-development
-General awareness
-Secondary teacher educators training needs

6. Teaching competence is significantly and positively correlated with
-Classroom management competence
-Institutional management
-Academic community service
-Social community service
-Professional self-development
-General awareness
-Secondary teacher educators training needs
7. Classroom management competence is significantly and positively correlated with
-Institutional management
-Academic community service
-Social community service
-Professional self-development
-General awareness
-Secondary teacher educators training needs
8. Institutional management is significantly and positively correlated with
-Academic community service
-Social community service
-Professional self-development
-General awareness
-Secondary teacher educators training needs
9. Academic community service is significantly and positively correlated with
-Social community service
-Professional self-development
-General awareness
-Secondary teacher educators training needs

10. Social community service is significantly and positively correlated with

    -Professional self-development

    -General awareness

    -Secondary teacher educators training needs

11. Professional self-development is significantly and positively correlated with

    -General awareness

    -Secondary teacher educators training needs

12. General awareness is significantly and positively correlated with

    -Secondary teacher educators training needs

4. Conclusion

The emerging trend in modern educational management is clearly towards the adoption of human resource philosophy. With the effective utilization of this approach, organizations benefit from two significant payoffs: increased organizational effectiveness and bonafide satisfaction of individual employee's needs. Rather than viewing the achievement of the organizational and human needs and of the employees' needs as separate and exclusive events, supporters of the human resource philosophy contend that these needs are mutual and compatible. One need not be gained at the expense of the other.

With all the economies of the world slowly going global it becomes essential that our most precious national resource -The human resource is properly geared for this globalization. If our nation is to compete successfully in this competitive environment, our human resources have to be developed, trained to be and made into experts in all the necessary areas. In order to increase the productivity of the nation, we have to increase the productivity of each individual.

Principals in most of the teacher education colleges have a better perception of human resource development climate. So, they have expressed a strong opinion in establishing human resource development climate in their institution. Particularly open systems of appraisal with emphasis on counseling, career development systems, informal training mechanisms, potential development systems etc. contribute to human resource development climate. For that sake there is need for proper know how about human resource development among the principals through orientation programmes to be conducted by the academic staff colleges in different universities.

Performance appraisal is a process of determining how well a worker is performing his job. It provides a mechanism for identification of merit and deficiencies observed in an employee in relation to his job performance. The objective of appraisal is to determine the present state of efficiency of a worker in order to establish the actual need for training.

Both principals and teacher educators have expressed positive views about Performance Appraisal Effectiveness system to be practiced in their institutions. To develop healthy awareness and better working about Performance Appraisal Effectiveness System, teacher educators, principals and management authorities of government aided and unaided institutions need to organize need based training and workshops on Performance Appraisal Effectiveness System. This can be conducted by university PG departments, Department of Instruction and Management Associations. Through which misconceptions and mis-utilization of powers can be

eradicated and institutional effectiveness and efficiency can be improved to a better condition.

5. Implications

The modern world is one in which the only constant is change is a precarious matter implementing human resource development programme in secondary teacher education colleges requires coping with change in a positioned constructive manner. Secondary teacher education institutions must be redesigned so as to be consistent with the human resource development that helps to create a congenial atmosphere for management.

For the last few years no research on human resource development has been conducted in the field of secondary teacher education programme. The major concern in secondary teacher education course should be educational excellence for which teacher education colleges have to become human resource centers and conduct performance appraisal of institutional personnel, In-service education and training needs of secondary teacher educators must be borne in mind. The principal as an initiator of human resource development climate would go a long way in making the institutions as human resource development centers.

Human resource development climate is correlated with performance appraisal part in-service education, secondary teacher educators training needs. Now a days most of the secondary teacher education organizations have lack human resource development, implementation of performance appraisal system of its personnel, and improper conduction of in-service education and neglected training needs of teacher educators.

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DO LANGUAGE EXAMINATIONS INFLUENCE HOW TEACHERS TEACH?

Philip Glover

Süleyman Demirel University

pgaglover@gmail.com

Biodata

Assistant Professor Dr. Philip Glover teaches in the English Language and Literature Department at Süleyman Demirel University in Isparta. He has taught English and trained English teachers in Turkey, Cyprus, UK and Hungary. He has worked in English language teaching as a manager and as a consultant with testing and in-service training projects. His research interests include methodology, classroom discourse, language testing and intercultural learning.

DO LANGUAGE EXAMINATIONS INFLUENCE HOW TEACHERS TEACH?

Philip GLOVER
pgaglover@gmail.com

Abstract

Examination influence on teaching, known as washback, has been found on curriculum, materials and attitudes to teaching. Evidence of washback on how and why teachers teach, however, has proved harder to identify. This paper looks in detail at three complicating factors in washback research; the variety of terms used, conflicting findings and the nature of positive or negative washback. The paper describes a study that used discourse analysis in order to investigate examination influences on teacher talk. Findings suggest that washback on how teachers teach, if present, may lie in some categories of teacher talk but not in others.

Keywords: language testing, examination washback, language teaching

1. Introduction

Washback, 'the effect of testing on teaching and learning' (Hughes, 1989, p.1), is change in teaching caused by an examination, and is of interest to teachers, administrators and innovators. Some teachers and testers believe that tests can exert a powerful influence on teaching, and may be harnessed to raise standards of teaching and learning. Thus 'measurement-driven instruction' (Popham, 1987) has the hope and expectation that testing will 'shape and pull teachers' practices in desirable ways' and 'motivate teachers to improve their teaching' (Chapman & Snyder, 2000). Others have observed that examinations have negative effects on the curriculum taught (Madaus, 1988), on problem-solving skills (Frederiksen, 1984) or on time spent teaching (Smith *et al*, 1991). There are examples from around the world of success and failure in the use of tests to raise standards of teaching (Wall, 2000; Kellaghan & Greaney, 1992).

In the field of language testing, assumptions about washback were challenged by Alderson and Wall (1993, p.115), who observed that: 'very little evidence has been presented to support the argument that tests influence teaching'. They proposed washback hypotheses for investigation, including hypotheses that tests may influence what teachers teach, how teachers teach and attitudes.

Subsequent research in different parts of the world found evidence of washback on what teachers teach and attitudes in the form of:

- More attention to parts of the curriculum tested in the examination, with activities in class showing wider, narrower or simply different teaching content in examination lessons;
- Materials used for teaching that reflect the content of the examination;
- Teachers' often negative attitudes to what and how they teach for examinations.

A number of studies identified washback on curriculum content and classroom activities. Wall and Alderson (1993) and Wall (1999) found curriculum-narrowing with the content of

teaching limited to what was tested, more time being spent in lessons on writing and reading. Alderson and Hamp-Lyons (1996) found teachers reported effects such as curriculum-narrowing, lost instructional time and reduced emphasis on skills that require complex thinking. A study of 'assessment-driven reform' found that the inclusion of a writing test increased attention to writing (Stecher *et al*., 2004, pp.68-69). Washback on classroom activities was also found in Japan (Watanabe, 1996) and in New Zealand (Hayes & Read, 2004).

Examination influence on materials was observed by Wall (1999), who found teachers used supplementary books in examination preparation to compensate for lack of grammar in the course book. Shohamy *et al* (1996) found teachers of a new Arabic-as-a-second-language examination replaced textbooks with exam-type sheets. Cheng (1997) found that teachers relied on textbooks to interpret the new examination and also found that materials changed as new books were introduced. Differences in language produced by students in tests were attributed to the influence of materials published for a new examination (Andrews *et al*., 2002), and Nikolov (1999, p.243) found washback on supplementary materials. Watanabe (1996) found textbook materials used in class were past papers or constructed by teachers on the examination model. In a study of Cambridge Proficiency Examination study evaluators found 'books tend to represent directly the content, approaches, activities and tasks of the exam' (Hawkey, 2004).

Evidence of washback on attitudes has also been found, often as a conflict between how teachers would like to teach and how they feel they are forced to teach for examinations (Smith *et al,* 1991, p.41). Hughes (1989, p.1) refers to a writing skills course tested by multiple choice which leads to 'pressure to practise such items rather than practise the skill of writing itself'. Prodromou (1995, p.14) claims that 'sound teaching practices are often sacrificed in an anxious attempt to 'cover' the examination syllabus, and to keep ahead of the competition'. Alderson and Hamp-Lyons (1996, p.285) found negative attitudes to examination teaching, with teachers complaining that teaching became 'boring and fragmentary', resenting time pressure. Shohamy *et al* (1996, pp.308-9) found teachers claimed that an English examination forced them to teach in a certain way or felt they could teach more creatively at times when not under examination pressure whilst others appreciated the motivation provided by the oral test. Qi (2005, p.154), suggests that a test's 'selecting and evaluative functions lead to the short-term goal of teaching to raise scores', which works against teachers' long-term goal of improving language proficiency in class. Others refer to negative attitudes to what and how teachers have to teach for examinations (Kiss-Gulyas, 2001; Cheng, 1997). There is an overlap in research between studies of how teachers teach and attitudes to teaching, with self-reports about teaching behaviour being taken as evidence of classroom practice (Stecher *et al,* 2004), rather than as evidence of attitudes.

1.1. Washback on How Teachers Teach

Research into washback on how teachers teach is more complex than that for what teachers teach and for attitudes. There seems to be a conflict between on the one hand claims that 'most teachers are familiar with the amount of influence testing can have on their instruction' (Bachman and Palmer, 1996, p.33) or that 'there is a general consensus that high-stakes tests produce strong washback' (Qi, 2005, p.3), and on the other hand empirical studies which conclude that 'there is no evidence of 'washback' on methodology' (Wall & Alderson, 1993, p.66), or that after the introduction of a new test; 'it can be seen that the general pattern of teaching approaches had not changed much' (Cheng, 1999, p.268), or 'the use of achievement tests has no clear influence on teaching practices' (Wesdorp, 1982, p.48).

Three factors complicate interpretation of washback research into how teachers teach:

Factor 1: the variety of terms used and classroom features investigated.

Factor 2: conflicting findings.

Factor 3: positive or negative examination effects do not relate to theories of good teaching.

These ontological and epistemological issues may have contributed to some of the 'apparent contradictions' (Spratt, 2005, p.27) that have been perceived in washback studies. Diversity of terminology and a focus on varying aspects of classroom teaching may create difficulties in comparing studies. Some studies found no washback effects on teaching, others found washback to be present and still others found washback was varied, present in some ways but not in others. Table 1 (adapted from Author, 2006) summarises 16 washback studies in terms of findings, use of observation, terms and classroom features.

Table 1. *Studies, Terms, Aspects Investigated, Observation and Washback*

Study	Terms used	Classroom Aspects investigated	Observation	Washback
Wall (1999)	Methods, methodology	Explaining words and structures	Yes	Absent
Wall and Alderson (1993)	Methodology	Pre-teaching vocabulary for reading, Reading skills work	Yes	Absent
Wesdorp (1982)	types of teaching, teaching practices	Explaining, Demonstrating, Interaction patterns.	No	Absent
Alderson and Hamp-Lyons (1996)	Methodology, teaching practices	Talking time, Test-taking time, References to the examination, Laughter, Innovations, Metalanguage, Pair work	Yes	Variable
Watanabe (1996)	Methods	Translation, Grammatical explanations	Yes	Variable
Cheng (1999)	Tasks	Integrated language tasks, Explaining mock exams, Group work	Yes	Variable
Hayes and Read (2004)	Activities	Test-taking activities, Interaction, Feedback, Explanations, Student strategies, Laughter	Yes	Variable
Burrows (2004)	Methods	Curriculum, Teacher discourse, Explanations, Instructions, Interaction.	Yes	Variable
Nikolov (1999)	Activities, techniques, tasks	Translation, Gap-filling, Reading aloud, Grammar exercises	Yes	Variable
Cheng (1998)	Activities	Reading aloud, role play, group discussion	No	Variable
Andrews (1995)	Pedagogical strategies	Speaking for presentations, Group discussions, Using set phrases, Grammatical accuracy	No	Variable
Shohamy et al	Methodology,	Test activities, Memorization,	No	Variable

(1996)	content, Activities	Speaking at length, Group and pair work, Debates, discussions		
Chapman and Snyder (2000)	Cognitive load, Strategy	Multiple choice/ short answer questions, Problem-solving, Critical thinking, Rote learning	No	Variable
Stecher et al (2004)	Classroom practice, Methods	Explaining, Suggesting revisions, Giving examples, Discussion.	No	Present
Turner (2001)	Methodology, tasks	Performance tasks, Teacher discourse	No	Present
Prodromou (1995)	Methods	Penalising error, questions, Denying communication, Anxiety, Solemnity.	No	Present

1.1.1 Complicating Factor 1: The Variety of Terms and Features Studied

The 16 papers in Table 1 use 12 different terms for classroom teaching. It is not clear whether 'Method', 'methodology', 'practice', 'technique' and so on reflect fundamental differences in the authors' views of classroom events, or whether they may simply reflect a diversity of terminology used in English language teaching to describe similar phenomena. The authors in Table 1 do not state that they use their chosen term in order to differentiate their study from each other, but choose the word to refer to specific features of classroom teaching that they investigated. The terms are not defined, nor are differences between 'method', 'methodology', 'practice' or 'technique' explored. They do not imply distinctions such as between approach, method and technique (Anthony, 1963) or between approach, design and procedure (Richards & Rodgers, 1986, p.28), The terms relate to what happens in the classroom, the technique or procedure level of techniques, practices and behaviours that are observable when a method is employed. The choice of term therefore is not central to the studies, and the terminology does not reflect fundamental conflicts of principles, but rather linguistic choices available to describe similar events.

Whilst the use of so many terms does not seem to prevent comparability, the use of the term 'method', (Wall, 1999; Watanabe, 1996; Burrows, 2004; Stecher *et al*, 2004; Prodromou, 1995) may be problematic. In English language teaching, what actually constitutes a 'method' is not clear and is open to interpretation. 'Method' as a discrete set of procedures for a specific teaching purpose has been rejected as unhelpful (Prabhu, 1990), or even pronounced dead (Allwright, 1991). According to these views 'method' is a personal construct describing how an individual teacher teaches rather than a set of procedures that a teacher may choose to employ in lessons. If 'method' is a personal construct, then the use of the term itself may lead classroom research to highlight the individuality of teaching rather than common features in how teachers teach. Research comparing different methods in English language teaching encountered a similar difficulty (Oskarsson, 1973), where attempts to compare different 'methods' were confounded by teachers' individual differences. The study reported in this paper refers instead to 'how teachers teach' in order to avoid the problematic nature of the term 'method', and in order to bring together the different terms for teaching into one broad category.

There are 58 aspects of classroom teaching investigated in the studies, but they have much in common and relate to different aspects of discourse and classroom practices. Studies of discourse have looked at teacher and student talk, the number of turns, references to the test, metalanguage use (Alderson & Hamp-Lyons, 1996), explanations, discourse and interaction

(Burrows, 2004), grammatical explanation (Watanabe, 1996), talking about aims, explaining mock exams, textbook exercises, language items, meaning (Cheng, 1998, 1999), the nature of the feedback given, the use of explanations (Hayes & Read, 2004) explanations, instructions, discourse (Burrows, 2004), student talk (Andrews, 1995, p.79; Shohamy *et al*, 1996, p.301) and explaining vocabulary (Wall, 1999). All these studies view aspects of classroom talk as possible evidence for washback.

Studies of practices have looked at pair work, innovations (Alderson & Hamp-Lyons, 1996), translation (Watanabe, 1996), integrated language tasks, group work (Cheng, 1998, 1999), focus on student strategies (Hayes & Read, 2004), memorization, speaking at length, group and pair work, debates and discussions. (Shohamy *et al*, 1996, p.301), reading skills work and pre-teaching vocabulary (Wall & Alderson, 1993). All these studies see how activities are carried out (individually, in pairs or groups, with the teacher, in a certain atmosphere) as possible evidence for washback.

1.1.2. Complicating Factor 2: Conflicting Findings

Some studies found washback to be absent, some found washback varied between individual teachers or between different features of classroom teaching and some found washback to be present. These conflicting findings may be explained by looking at the nature of the evidence considered and the role of factors such as context. One possible explanation of conflicting findings lies in what is taken as evidence of how teachers teach. Studies that claim to have found evidence of washback have tended to use report data from teachers instead of observation. Studies that elicited reports on classroom behaviour without observing classrooms may indicate washback on attitudes rather than washback on how teachers teach.

Another source of conflicting perceptions is between those studies that found no washback and those that found evidence varied. A major study in Sri Lanka (reported in Wall and Alderson, 1993; Wall, 1999; Wall, 2005) concluded that washback on how teachers teach was not present. This study made extensive use of classroom observation and found that, whilst the content of teaching, materials and attitudes were influenced, the teachers taught for the new examination in the same way as they had done for the old one. Before and after the innovation the teacher's role was to 'make the child understand' rather than promote learning (Wall, 2007, p.147). The study identifies teacher cognition and resources as key factors in the innovation: 'the exam can have no impact on methodology unless the teachers understand correctly what it is the exam is testing' (Wall & Alderson, 1993, p.65), which is attributed to lack of resources for training teachers. Other studies found washback varied between one teacher and another (Watanabe, 1996) or varied in extent between teachers, more for one and less for another (Alderson & Hamp-Lyons, 1996). Other studies found washback of limited extent (Cheng, 1999) or varying according to context (Chapman & Snyder, 2000). According to these studies examination influence on how teachers teach was present but variable. Factors such as teacher cognition or time since the innovation were more influential than the examination itself. As different findings have emerged in different contexts, there seems to be no universal examination effect on the classroom, and findings should not be dismissed as contradictory, but rather as context specific. Washback may be found in specific contexts, or in different teachers, and washback is therefore worth researching.

1.1.3. Complicating Factor 3: Positive or Negative Effects

A third problem in washback studies is the identification of positive or negative influences on teaching. Messick (1996) cautions that negative washback should not be confused with 'bad teaching', noting that claims of negative washback need to be supported by evidence that examination lessons are indeed different, that any difference is the result of the

examination, and that any difference represents a negative effect on the teaching. Aspects of how teachers teach that are investigated need to be clearly associated with positive or negative influences on learning.

Some studies have referred to practices such as pair or group work or discourse patterns such as 'IRF'. Whilst the presence of pair work is likely to make a positive contribution to learning, more pair work is not necessarily better than less (Edwards & Mercer, 1987; Hay McBer, 2000). Consequently the presence or absence of pair and group work may show positive or negative washback, but more or less pair and group work does not increase the effect. The idea that student-student interaction makes a greater contribution to learning than teacher-student interaction is not supported by research that indicates the important contribution of teacher-led interaction (Muijs & Reynolds, 2005). Similarly positive or negative effects may be found in the presence or absence of classroom practices such as translation, integrated language tasks, focus on student strategies, memorization, speaking at length, debates, discussions, frequency of shared laughter, reading skills work or pre-teaching vocabulary, but it is difficult to claim that more or less of these features increases any positive or negative effects.

As for discourse, several washback studies refer to the 'IRF' pattern and its assumed negative consequences for teaching and learning (Cheng, 1999; Nikolov, 1999; Shohamy *et al*., 1996), using 'IRF' as an indication of conventional, teacher-centred teaching. 'IRF' is associated with the old examination for Nikolov, and Cheng expresses disappointment that a new examination has not broken the 'IRF' pattern. Classroom interaction has been viewed in terms of its contribution to learning by facilitating lifelike or 'genuine' communication (van Lier, 1988, p.28), and the presence of 'IRF' patterns in the classroom (Sinclair, 1982) has been used to analyse and comment on many aspects of language teaching (Cadorath & Harris, 1998; Cullen, 1998; Dinsmore, 1985; Duff, 2002; Hall, 1998; Kumaravadevilu, 1993; Nunan, 1987; Ohta, 1999; Thornbury, 1996). The presence of 'IRF' patterns in lessons has been used to support a view that some classroom interaction does not replicate real-life communication and as a consequence does not facilitate language learning. Alternative views of classroom discourse, however, see talk in lessons in a different light, with the function of guiding and supporting learning. According to this view it is more important to understand how 'IRF' patterns 'relate to the core institutional goal rather than dismissing them as undesirable or not genuine' (Seedhouse, 1996, p.22), and McDonough (2002, pp.138-139), suggests there is a need to 'de-couple' natural language learning processes from classroom interaction in order to see the classroom as another 'natural' environment which has its own language with its own purposes and characteristics.

1.2 Conclusions and Expectations about Washback on How Teachers Teach

There seem to be sufficient common features in the studies above to draw strong conclusions about washback as it has been investigated so far:

- Washback can influence how teachers teach but effects are limited by other influences such as context, resources and teacher cognition, leading to variations between teachers and situations.
- Examinations influence how teachers teach in some situations and for some teachers.
- The nature of such an influence needs further investigation in order to build on findings from previous research.
- Previous research has investigated effects on classroom discourse and practices, but a detailed description is lacking of what washback may look like in the classroom.

1.3. Expectations for Washback Based on Previous Research

1. Differences are likely to be found in examination lessons in what teachers teach and attitudes. Differences in aspects of how teachers teach, if present at all, are likely to vary between teachers and contexts.
2. Washback on how teachers teach might be present in classroom discourse or practices, and investigated through the use of a combination of observation, discourse analysis and teacher reports.
3. Positive or negative effects may be indicated by differences in classroom events and their positive or negative contribution to teaching.

Teachers have been exhorted to 'work for washback' (Bailey, 1996) and administrators expect changing an examination to change teaching. It is suggested that teachers can determine the extent of examination influence (Spratt, 2005). A clearer idea of what washback looks like may help teachers, administrators and students to work for the desired improvements. Findings from the study reported below may indicate aspects of how teachers teach that may be affected by an examination.

2. The study

The study (Author, 2006) investigated washback by looking in detail at classroom discourse in the form of teacher talk. The study focused on analysis of classroom discourse supported by field notes from lesson observation and teacher reports elicited by interview and questionnaire. The study made a detailed analysis of teacher talk using an analytical framework, firstly to identify aspects of teacher talk that were different in examination lessons, secondly to consider what differences show about how teachers teach, and thirdly to see whether these differences represent positive or negative washback. The study asked:

1. Does the teaching show evidence of possible washback?
2. What does possible washback show about how teachers teach in examination lessons?
3. Do differences in how teachers teach show positive or negative effects?

Classroom discourse data for the study came from transcriptions of teacher talk recorded in lessons, field notes and teacher reports from 12 English language lessons taught by two teachers teaching four groups in Central Europe over a period of 10 days. Eight hours of recordings, made with a lapel microphone carried by the teacher, were transcribed, producing transcriptions of 23,506 words used by the teachers. Comments on the teacher talk were added in brackets describing non-verbal sounds such as laughter and writing on the board, but prosodic features, pauses and so on were not included, and the transcriptions can be described as 'verbatim' (Rose, 2000, p.250).

In half of the twelve lessons final (twelfth) year students were preparing for the English language section of the school-leaving examination, and in the other six lessons students were in the eleventh year following a general English program. The study maximised comparability of the lessons by observing teachers and classes that were as similar as possible; two teachers with the same subject specializations, similar qualifications and experience in the same school teaching examination and non-examination classes in the same year with classes that were parallel in terms of age and academic program. These steps aimed to reduce the possibility that differences between the lessons may be due to factors unrelated to the examination.

The examination certifies the completion of high school studies, Years 9 to 12. Passing is a requirement for certain jobs and for entry into tertiary education, so the examination is a

high-stakes examination because of its serious consequences for the test takers, with failure preventing access to higher education and some jobs. A very high pass rate in the subject examinations somewhat detracts from this high-stakes status (Ábrahám & Jilly, 1999, pp.35-36). Nevertheless, consequences for the students who failed were serious, and the examination was a challenge for many candidates and important for school authorities (Alderson & Szollás, 2000, pp.17-21). The test takers were school leavers who had opted for the English language examination but who had not gained an exemption by passing the intermediate level state language examination. Candidates therefore tended to be the less successful learners of English (Ábrahám & Jilly, 1999, p.21). The washback of the examination was thought by teachers to be widespread and negative (Kiss-Gulyás, 2001, p.43). A study of 118 lessons found evidence of washback on materials, lesson content and tasks (Nikolov, 1999).

2.1. Supporting Data: Field Notes and Reports

The supporting data produced evidence that the examination lessons were linked to the examination and showed the presence of washback on what teachers teach and attitudes. The curriculum in the examination lessons was clearly based on the examination. Both teachers covered examination content in the examination lessons and language forms and skills in the non-examination lessons. Preparation for the examination consisted of practising examination tasks in lessons. Examination tasks were an oral presentation and interview, translation and a reading and grammar test. These activities were observed in lessons and reported by teachers who expressed their lesson aims in terms of examination tasks in examination lessons and language forms (grammar, functions or vocabulary) in non-examination lessons. Materials used in the examination lessons were taken mainly from past papers, whereas a general English course book was used in non-examination lessons.

Teachers' attitudes were also affected by the examination. Both teachers expressed negative views about the format of the examination and the fact that they felt obliged to abandon regular teaching in order to prepare students for the examination. They also commented on negative effects on student motivation caused by the pressure of the examination on the students.

The use of pair and group work, however, did not seem to be affected by the examination. Both teachers used pair and group work in both types of lesson, even though there was no pair or group interaction in the examination. These teacher choices of interaction patterns seem to have been motivated by a belief that such activities made a contribution to learning in general.

2.2. Teacher Talk Data

The study analysed discourse in examination lessons by looking at teacher talk. Classroom discourse can provide insights into how teachers teach in examination lessons because discourse is action through talk that is analyzable, is variable between people and situations and is interpretable as showing purpose. Discourse requires detailed analysis and can 'produce social explanations which are generalisable in some way, or which have a wider resonance' (Mason, 1996, pp.4-6), for example the consequences of examinations. Even a small-scale study of classroom discourse may show action that is repeated by many, though not necessarily all or most teachers.

In English language teaching discourse analysis has produced insights into classroom talk and how teachers teach, for example Duff (2002) looked at issues of identity, respect and language socialisation in a school in Canada, focusing on two lessons and producing insights into relations between students and the teacher's attempts to make cultural connections. Another study investigated student talk whilst preparing for and carrying out a task relate to

language learning (Mori, 2002) and yet another used systemic functional grammar to provide insights into science teaching (Young & Nguyen, 2002) by comparing language used by a teacher in a lesson with language in a text book.

A specific characteristic of language used by teachers is its pedagogical purpose, to facilitate learning. Mercer (1995, p.1) describes classroom communication 'in which one person helps another to develop their knowledge and understanding' as 'the guided construction of knowledge'. The role of the teacher can be 'crucial' to the success of learning, and Mercer notes classroom research identifying ways for teachers to guide learners more effectively (Mercer, 2000, pp.159-165). This guiding is described as 'scaffolding', which is seen as 'a useful metaphor for the intellectual involvement of a teacher with a learner's efforts during joint activity' (Mercer, 2000, pp.169-170). A range of different viewpoints have stressed the contribution of teaching to learning. The Russian psychologist Vygotsky, writing in the thirties saw the support and guidance that teachers provide in lessons through language as operating in a 'zone of proximal development' to facilitate learning (Vygotsky, 1978, pp.84-86). Others have cited a range of language factors that contribute to learning such as explaining, questioning (Muijs & Reynolds, 2005, p.38) and interaction (Muijs and Reynolds, 2005, p.43).

Teachers contribute to the 'construction of knowledge' (Mercer, 1995, pp.21-43) through 'guidance strategies' which involve 'intentional, goal-directed ways of talking… which reflect the constraints of the institutional setting'. According to this view teachers support learning by eliciting talk from students, by responding to what the students say and by describing shared classroom experiences (Mercer, 1995, pp.25-26). The techniques for guiding learning formed the three main categories of analysis in the study: Elicitation, Response and Description. These guidance strategies contribute to learning and provide a means of identifying patterns in talk as well as evaluating the contribution the talk makes to learning.

To facilitate analysis of the discourse the study developed a framework for identifying differences in teacher talk, describing how teachers teach and indicating positive or negative effects. During coding of the data the categories of Elicitation, Response and Description were each grouped in two sub-categories, Direct and Cued Elicitations, Evaluation and Correction Responses and Recap and Prospective Descriptions.

Direct Elicitation are questions and Cued Elicitations encourage student talk by providing a clue or prompt that leads to a student utterance, for example a teacher eliciting the word 'pulse' by saying 'you can feel it here' (Mercer, 1995, p.27). In the study the teachers would bring talk out of students using a combination of questions and prompts. If a question did not elicit a good response more clues would be provided to guide the students towards the answer. Clues included starting a sentence for the student to finish, using L1 or inviting peer correction, for example excerpt 1, showing an exchange where the teacher uses a series of prompts to guide the language produced by the student.

Excerpt 1

T: So, let's correct this sentence, OK. Er because it it…

S: (inaudible)

T: The verb is OK, cause, but how to say it…

S: (inaudible)

T: (in L1) it's (in L1) it…

S: it

T: Cause, cause, it causes.

S: causes

T: Causes it causes because it you don't need it. It causes…

S: addiction

Mercer's Response category (1995, pp.32-33) includes confirmation, rejection, repetitions, reformulations or elaborations. In confirmations and rejections a teacher says 'yes' or 'no', 'right' or 'wrong', and repetitions confirm or emphasise the correctness of a student utterance. During coding confirmations, rejections and repetitions were combined into a single sub-category, Evaluation Responses, because all these types of response indicated to the student whether their utterance was correct or not. For example, in one of the lessons the teacher prepares the students to write a formal letter by eliciting forms and content, responding with; 'Yes, yours sincerely' or 'apply, you want to apply for a job, very good'. Reformulations and Elaborations, on the other hand, offer a revised version of what has been said by the student and were combined into one sub-category of Correction Responses, for example; 'Dear, Dear Sir, or if you, if you know the name you can write a name. Dear Sir or Dear madam, comma, yes.'

In the Describe category teachers use 'we' statements, literal recaps and reconstructive recaps (Mercer, 1995, pp.33-41). 'We' statements talk about a past experience that is relevant to the present, for example when a teacher reminds the students about something that happened in the previous lesson. Recaps review aspects of shared knowledge, for example, reminders about previous lessons or drawing conclusions after a discussion or activity. Literal recaps repeat the shared knowledge and reconstructive recaps add further interpretation. These types of talk attempt to connect with experiences that are outside the immediate classroom situation. During coding it proved difficult to distinguish between these guidance strategies, possibly because they apply to a science teaching context, not language teaching. Consideration of the data found the teachers make connections with experiences outside the immediate setting by talking about past and future experiences, so two sub-categories were created, Recap and Prospective Descriptions. Recap Descriptions help the students make connections with previous classroom experiences through explanations of language points or feedback on task performance, and are often given in L1. Prospective Descriptions help the students to connect with activities they are going to do through instructions. Descriptions tend to be longer utterances giving information to the students or reminding the students of something they have done or learned.

3. Results

The talk was coded in the categories and sub-categories and analysed for differences in how the teachers teach in examination lessons. Analysis looked at three levels of talk in the analysis. The first level showed the total amount of talk measured by the number of words used by the teachers. The second level showed the amount of talk in the three categories of Elicitation, Response and Description. The third level showed talk in six sub-categories, Direct and Cued Elicitations, Evaluation and Correction Responses and Recap and Prospective Descriptions. The three levels of talk in the analysis narrow the focus progressively from a broad view of the talk to a detailed view. Categories and sub-categories are shown in Table 2, with the percentage of the total data that they represent. Descriptions made up around half the data, which is not surprising as they tended to be longer utterances giving instructions (Prospective Descriptions) explanations or feedback (both Recap

Descriptions). Similarly Cued Elicitations, which were often single-word prompts, made up the smallest proportion of the data.

Table 2. *Categories and Sub-categories Showing Percentage of Total Data*

Category	**Sub-categories**
Elicitations (21%)	Direct (13%)
	Cued (8%)
Responses (27%)	Evaluation (12%)
	Correction (15%)
Descriptions (52%)	Recaps (24%)
	Prospective descriptions (28%)
All (100%)	All (100%)

Table 3 shows that one of the teachers used significantly more words overall in the examination lessons, but the other did not. This finding can be compared with previous research that found differences in one teacher's examination lessons but not in the other teacher's lessons (Watanabe, 1996).

Table 3. *Words in Examination (E) and Non-examination (N) Lessons for Teachers A and B*

Category	E	N	χ^2	Significant difference
All words teacher A	4997	4874	$\chi^2(1) = 0.77$, $p > .05$	None
All words teacher B	7065	6570	$\chi^2(1) = 8.99$, $p < .05$	Significantly more

The words in the three categories of talk in Table 4 show some highly significant differences in examination lessons for both teachers. The teachers used fewer words for Elicitations and Responses and more words for Descriptions in Examination classes. The teachers appear to be bringing talk out of the students less and responding to their students less in direct interaction and talking more about what the students are going to do or have done. The teachers interact less and talk at length more.

Table 4. *Words in the Categories of Elicitation, Response and Description in Examination (E) and Non-examination (N) Lessons for Teachers A and B*

Category	E	N	χ^2	Significant difference
ELICITATIONS				
Elicitation words Teacher A	1070	1212	$\chi^2(1) = 4.42$, $p < .05$	Significantly fewer
Elicitation words Teacher B	1181	1568	$\chi^2(1) = 27.24$, $p < .001$	Significantly fewer
RESPONSES				
Response words Teacher A	1460	2062	$\chi^2(1) = 51.45$, $p < .05$	Significantly fewer
Response words Teacher B	1096	1583	$\chi^2(1) = 44.26$, $p < .05$	Significantly fewer
DESCRIPTIONS				
Description words Teacher A	2467	1600	$\chi^2(1) = 92.4$, $p < .05$	Significantly more
Description words Teacher B	4788	3419	$\chi^2(1) = 114.2$, $p < .05$	Significantly more

The number of words in the six sub-categories of talk in Table 5 show significant differences in examination lessons for both teachers for Cued Elicitations, Correction Responses and Recap Descriptions, but not for Direct Elicitations, Evaluation Responses and Prospective Descriptions. Both teachers used fewer words for Cued Elicitations and Correction Responses and more words for Recap Descriptions.

Table 5. *Words in the Categories of Direct and Cued Elicitation, Evaluation and Correction Response and Prospective and Recap Description in Examination (E) and Non-examination (N) Lessons for Teachers A and B*

Category	E	N	χ^2	Significant difference
ELICITATIONS				
Direct Elicitation words Teacher A	645	663	$\chi^2(1) = 0.12$ p= >.05	None
Direct Elicitation words Teacher B	810	920	$\chi^2(1) = 3.5$ p= >.05	None
Cued Elicitation words Teacher A	425	549	$\chi^2(1) = 7.89$ p= <.05	Significantly fewer
Cued Elicitation words Teacher B	371	648	$\chi^2(1) = 37.65$ p= <.05	Significantly fewer
RESPONSES				
Evaluation Response words Teacher A	746	764	$\chi^2(1) = 0.1$, p > .05	None
Evaluation Response words Teacher B	547	700	$\chi^2(1) = 9.39$, p < .05	Significantly fewer
Correction Response words Teacher A	714	1298	$\chi^2(1) = 84.8$, p < .05	Significantly fewer
Correction Response words Teacher B	549	883	$\chi^2(1) = 39$, p < .05	Significantly fewer
DESCRIPTIONS				
Prospective description words Teacher A	1162	1093	$\chi^2(1) = 1.1$, p >.05	None
Prospective description words Teacher B	1421	1982	$\chi^2(1) = 46.2$, p < .05	Significantly fewer
Recap description words Teacher A	1305	507	$X^2(1) = 175.72$, p < .05	Significantly more
Recap description words Teacher B	3367	1437	$X^2(1) = 387.7$, p < .05	Significantly more

Both teachers interact less with Cued Elicitations such as prompts, and they provide fewer actual corrections in Correction Responses. Both teachers use significantly more Recap Description words, which refer back to work done, but neither teacher uses significantly more Prospective Descriptions which talk about what the students are going to do. There is no significant difference in Direct Elicitations for either teacher, and Teacher A shows no significant difference in the number of Evaluation Responses. There seems to be no possible examination effect on the teachers' use of questions or their use of indications of whether the student utterance was right or wrong.

4. Discussion

4.1. Does the teaching show evidence of possible washback?

Findings indicate the presence in the data of possible washback on how teachers teach. According to the approach adopted in this study and in a number of previous washback studies (Watanabe, 1996; Alderson & Hamp-Lyons, 1996; Cheng, 1997), significant differences in examination lessons that apply to both teachers may be viewed as possible evidence of washback. Differences that apply to only one teacher may be evidence of influences such as individual teacher preferences. When both teachers use a feature of the

teacher talk more or less washback may be present. In this study both teachers used more Cued Elicitation and Correction Response words and fewer Recap Descriptions, suggesting there may be washback on these aspects of teacher talk.

4.2. What does possible washback show about how teachers teach in examination lessons?

These differences in discourse may represent an examination influence on how teachers teach. Both Cued Elicitations and Correction Responses show teachers guiding students in their learning, whereas Recap Descriptions show teachers telling the students about language or task performance. There seems to be a move away from guiding and towards telling in the discourse of both teachers.

The purpose of *Cued Elicitations* is to guide the students to show a better level of understanding or knowledge. *Cued Elicitations* help students 'take an active part… in the dialogue' and are an alternative to the teacher speaking at length: 'The teacher avoids continuous monologue or the mere provision of missing information.' (Mercer, 1995, p.27). When teachers use *Cued Elicitation* they work with students to build knowledge together. For Edwards and Mercer (1987, p.143) in pupils: 'are being inculcated into what becomes for them a shared discourse with the teacher (discourse in the broadest sense, including concepts and terminology as well as dialogue)… pupils' knowledge is aided and 'scaffolded' by the teacher's questions, clues and prompts to achieve insights that the pupils themselves seem incapable of'. As a result 'effective scaffolding reduces the learner's scope for failure in the task, while encouraging their efforts to advance'. Cued Elicitations, then, perform the function of guiding students to a better knowledge or understanding of an activity or language form. The teachers seem to do less of this guiding in examination lessons.

Correction responses also perform a guiding function in lessons by providing a student with language that improves what the student has just said. Correction responses require engagement from students as they focus on what the teacher wants the students to learn. Correction Responses are focused on teaching language, whereas Evaluation Responses simply inform the students whether they were right or not. The purpose of Correction Responses is to tell students what they should have said in a preceding utterance, as in the excerpt above where the teacher provides the correct form 'causes'. The corrections are intended to help students show their knowledge better. They involve the teacher and student interacting in order to build knowledge. The teachers seem to do less of this knowledge building in examination lessons.

Recap Descriptions provide information to the students about language forms they have used or tasks they have performed. They can refer to language and tasks encountered in previous lessons, servings as reminders of a point previously learned, or they can refer to language and tasks that have just been said or done, serving as feedback or advice. Both teachers use significantly more words on Recap Descriptions in examinations. Much of this talk is feedback about how the students have performed examination tasks.

The field notes and reports showed that examination links are also present in lesson content and methodology. The apparent change in the teacher talk seems to reflect these links. After the observed lessons the teachers stated that, in the examination lessons, their aims were to prepare examination tasks, and an influence on methodology was the need to practise for the examination. Teacher B explains her reasons for choice of methodology thus:

> *The lack of time. That we are very near the exam period. I don't like giving direct explanations, but at this time with these texts whenever something occurs they don't know I tell them, I explain. There isn't time for the method of not explaining directly.*

The teacher reports suggest a shift from correcting to explaining in examination lessons that is linked to the examination itself. Correcting students seems to become less important in the examination lessons, and explaining seems to become more important.

4.3. Do differences in how teachers teach show positive or negative effects?

The data themselves do not indicate whether positive or negative washback is present. Whilst less guiding in the form of fewer words in Cued Elicitations and Correction Responses may suggest a negative influence, with less scaffolding and shared discourse, the increase in Recap Descriptions cannot be said to represent a negative effect, because they also make a positive contribution to learning. The explanations of language points and feedback on student performance in examination tasks may be having a positive effect that counters the effect of less guiding. The category of description used in the study would require development for any claims concerning effectiveness to be made. A further analysis of Recap Descriptions could identify differences in their quality and content, on in the way they make connections with previous experiences, knowledge or learning, for example by looking at the role of explanations about language or feedback about performance.

5. Conclusions

The study found some indications of washback and what it may look like. Washback seems to take the form, on the one hand, of less prompting and correcting talk and, on the other hand, of more utterances that are longer such as explanations and advice. This move away from guiding talk connects with the examination through the lesson aims that are stated by the teachers. The guiding talk is more oriented towards the aims of teaching language forms, whereas the longer utterances focus on the students' examination performance.

This study is comparable with previous washback research, as it identifies any possible washback operating in a limited number of areas. This study goes a little further than previous research by looking in detail at the teacher talk and finding specific aspects of teacher talk that may represent washback. Whilst it may not seem surprising if the approach of a language examination leads teachers to talk more to students about task performance and do less prompting and correction of language forms, previous research has not identified such a washback effect.

If there is a relationship between teacher talk and the examination itself, there are implications for teachers, testers and administrators. Teachers could consider the relative contribution of prompting, correcting and longer utterances to learning for an examination. Testers could consider how they can get teachers to engage with the constructs and purpose of an examination. Administrators could consider the consequences of examinations, if the onset of an examination leads teachers to talk in longer utterances and use less direct interaction to teach language forms,

Three methodological aspects contributed to the study: the study of discourse using transcribed teacher talk, the use of a framework showing pedagogic purpose, and separating how teachers teach from what teachers teach. The combination of attention to classroom discourse related to pedagogic purpose and a focus on how teachers teach as different from what teachers teach and attitudes may support the development of more detailed understanding of washback in further research.

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BELIEFS AND PRACTICE OF EFL TEACHERS: CONSTRUCTIVIST OR TRADITIONAL

Sibel Kaymakamoğlu

The European University of Lefke

skaymakam@yahoo.com

Biodata

Dr. Sibel E. Kaymakamoğlu received her EdD from University of Leicester, UK. She has been in ELT as a lecturer and a teacher trainer for many years. She is working as a lecturer in the Department of English Language Teaching at The European University of Lefke. Her interest lies on Teacher Cognition and Constructivist Learning. She has conducted qualitative and quantitative research studies on teacher beliefs, craft knowledge, the influence of social context on teachers, teachers' role in educational innovations and social constructivist learning.

BELIEFS AND PRACTICE OF EFL TEACHERS: CONSTRUCTIVIST OR TRADITIONAL

Sibel Kaymakamoğlu
skaymakam@yahoo.com

Abstract

This study investigated the EFL teachers' beliefs about the nature of EFL teaching and learning in the Cyprus Turkish State Secondary Schools context to see to what extent their beliefs and perceived classroom practice were compatible with the new curriculum which was based on Constructivist view of learning and teaching. A questionnaire which consisted of 17 items about teachers' beliefs (first part) and 17 corresponding items about teachers' practice (second part) was employed to collect the data. The theoretical foundations of the items were 'EFL Teacher's and Learner's Role', 'Learning Environment', and 'EFL Learning'. In both parts, a 5 point Likert-scale format was used. Frequency distributions, percentages, means and standard deviations were calculated to provide information about the teachers' beliefs and classroom practice. Two-tailed t-tests were also employed to investigate whether there were any differences between the male and female teachers regarding beliefs and practice.The statistical analysis of the teachers' responses to the questionnaire indicated that the EFL teachers' beliefs and practice, in general, were in line with the new curriculum. The t-test results showed that the male and female teachers' reported perceptions of their beliefs and practice were very similar to each other.

Keywords: Educational Reform, ELT, teacher beliefs, teacher practice

1. Introduction

This study was conducted to investigate the EFL teachers' beliefs about the nature of EFL teaching and learning in the Cyprus Turkish State Secondary Schools context to see to what extent their beliefs and perceived classroom practice were compatible with the new curriculum which was based on Constructivist view of learning and teaching.Since a new EFL curiculum which holds firmly Constructivist views has been introduced into Cyprus Turkish state secondary schools, it is believed that exploring teachers' beliefs in learning and teaching EFL from this perspective might shed light on issues of implementation of this reform in practice.The next section presents a brief outline of the general structure of the New Cyprus Turkish Education System.

1.1. Educational Reform in Cyprus Turkish State Schools

The Cyprus Turkish Education System has begun a process of reconstruction due to the influence of other significant changes in the society. The impact of politics has been the main cause of this. The referendum for the European Union membership in April 2004, which caused rapid changes in many aspects, was a turning point in Cyprus Turkish society. To keep up with the modern education systems of the western world and the requirements of the new century, and in an attempt to satisfy a demand for quality education in Cyprus Turkish society, a reform of the education system was inevitable.

As part of this process, a Constructivist perspective has officially been adopted in the place of Traditional teaching. The curricula are designed within an understanding of education as learner-centered and Constructivist. In this new program the development of understanding and skills replaces the transmission and memorizing of knowledge. Learner-centered education is aimed for, in contrast to teacher and program-centered education (Ministry of National Education and Culture, 2005, p.40). This new education reform has brought 8 years Compulsory Basic Education which was 5 years in the old system. The grades were changed as 6, 7 and 8 corresponding to grades I, II and III in the old system, respectively. Such a radical change has never before been experienced in the educational arena of Turkish Cyprus.

1.2. The Traditional and Constructivist Perspectives

Here, Traditional and Constructivist perspectives will be discussed briefly for further clarification of the current educational context in North Cyprus (Cyprus Turkish). In this study, the term "Traditional" will refer to a teaching approach where learners are seen as passive recipients of the teachers' knowledge. A fixed body of knowledge is transmitted from the teacher or text to the learners. This view (i.e. transmission of knowledge) tends to lead to a teacher-centered classroom. Foreign language is taught through exposing the learners to mechanical exercises and drills. "[Students] learn facts about language rather than how to use it communicatively" (Nunan, 1999, p.74). The teacher presents and explains knowledge and learners memorize what has been taught. It is "empty" (McInerney & McInerney, 2002) learning in which the instructional sequence is important rather than real learning (i.e. spontaneous use of language in which learners can use the language available spontaneously and automatically without stopping to think and to check the rules of the language in their mind). In this teacher-centered teaching, the teacher is the controller/authority in the class and learners are believed to learn through conditioning behavior with the use of positive and negative reinforcement. "The primary role of the learner is as a passive recipient of teacher's knowledge. The teacher's role is to provide that knowledge by transmitting it to the learner, largely through lockstep, teacher-fronted modes of learning" (Nunan, 1999, p.74). In North Cyprus (NC) this is the prevalent approach to teaching, which the new curriculum is now aiming to replace.

In contrast, Constructivists (e.g. von Glasersfeld, 1995) view learning as a process of construction in which learners develop new knowledge through active participation.

Similarly, Woolfolk (2004) indicates that "Even though there is no single Constructivist theory, many Constructivist approaches recommend that educators:

- embed learning in complex, realistic and relevant learning environments;
- provide for social negotiation and shared responsibility as a part of learning;
- support multiple perspectives and use multiple representations of content;
- nurture self-awareness and an understanding that knowledge is constructed;

and

- encourage ownership in learning (Driscoll, 2000 cited in Woolfolk, 2004, p.327).

In this process, the focus is on self-regulated (i.e. autonomous), contextualized learning in which the aim is to engender intrinsically motivated learners. Constructivism emphasizes learners' understanding and meaning making and aims to adopt a learner-centered teaching in which learners are supported, guided and assisted through scaffolding (i.e. supporting) to become autonomous learners (i.e. to take control of their own learning). McInerney &

McInerney (2002) emphasize that "Learners ultimately appropriate and internalize the knowledge transacted through assisted performance so that it becomes their own" (p.46). In this new perspective, the importance of peer interaction is emphasized to help learners construct knowledge in a social setting since "learning occurs in social contexts" (e.g.Vygotsky's Social Constructivist view summarized by McInerney & McInerney, 2002, p.46).

In Constructivism, learning is viewed as not only learning subject knowledge but also learning how to learn. This approach aims to motivate learners intrinsically through making use of authentic (i.e. spoken or written language that have not been specifically written for the purposes of teaching language (Nunan, 1999, p.270)), stimulating activities, tasks and materials, and creating real life situations in which learners can practice real life language in class. Besides, it suggests providing students with challenging tasks, especially problem-solving tasks, to promote higher-order thinking rather than making the students memorize knowledge.

Woolfolk (2004) claims that "Constructivists believe that students should not be given stripped down, simplified problems and basic skills drills, but instead should encounter complex learning environments that deal with "fuzzy", ill-structured problems" (p.327).

It is expected that this study will provide insights into the teachers' beliefs and practice. This study is expected to contribute to the understanding of teacher cognition in the English language teaching and learning arena and thus to have some impact on theoretical and methodological assumptions about teacher education and teacher development (i.e. in teacher training).

2. Method

This study aims to explore the EFL teachers' beliefs about the nature of EFL teaching and learning in the Cyprus Turkish State secondary schools context to see to what extent their beliefs and perceived classroom practice are compatible with the new curriculum which is based on a Constructivist view of learning and teaching. The key research questions in this investigation were:

1. What are the beliefs held by the EFL teachers and how do they perceive their classroom practice regarding learning and teaching?
2. Are there any differences in beliefs and practice according to gender?

In this study, a questionnaire was employed to investigate the teachers' beliefs and practice.It was distributed to all the EFL teachers (N= 140) in Turkish Cypriot state secondary schools (N=20) and 81 teachers (67 female and 14 male) participated in the study voluntarily.

The questionnaire consisted of 34 items: 17 items about teachers' beliefs (first part) and 17 items about teachers' practice (second part). The theoretical foundations of the questionnaire were 'EFL Teacher's and Learner's Role', 'Learning Environment', and 'EFL Learning' and these theoretical concepts were reflected in both parts of the questionnaire. The items about beliefs had corresponding items in the practice part. In both parts, a 5 point Likert-scale format was used. To detect possible problems in advance and to modify the instrument before it was used in the actual study, the questionnaire was piloted twice on 20 EFL teachers at tertiary level. The belief and practice items were subjected to relability tests respectively and the Cronbach alpha scores were calculated as .8580 and . 8240, respectively.

For the analysis of the questionnaire data Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 13 was used.Two-tailed "t" tests were administered to test whether there was a significant difference between the means of

1) males' and females' beliefs,

2) males' and females' practice,

3. Data Analysis

3.1. Teachers' Beliefs

The mean scores, as can be seen in Table 1 below, indicated that there was a strong agreement about fifteen Belief items (4.58- 4.03), and an agreement about two Belief items (3.92, 3.30). The reported perceptions of the participants with the item *Belief 17 (B17): Learners should not be mainly passive recipients of teacher's knowledge* showed the highest mean score of 4.58 which means that there was a strong agreement with B17. The descriptive analysis of item *B9: A foreign language teacher should create a learning environment in which students can tolerate uncertainty* showed the lowest mean score of 3.30 which means there was an agreement about B9. The findings revealed that the participant teachers strongly agreed that learners should have an active role in foreign language learning and teaching (B17). They also agreed, although it was not a strong agreement, that in language teaching and learning, the learning environment created by the teacher should enable the learners to tolerate uncertainty. Since there was a small standard deviation (SD), ranging from .63 to 1.07 for the stated beliefs, it seemed that the teachers agreed with each other.

Table 1. *Means and Standard Deviations for Replies Concerning Beliefs about English Language Learning and Teaching*

Item	N	Mean	SD
B17. Learners should not be mainly passive recipients of teacher's knowledge.	81	4.58	.77
B6. Learners need to be active participants in the learning process.	81	4.55	.74
B3. Learners need to learn in a cooperative and collaborative environment.	81	4.53	.67
B11. A foreign language teacher should strive for maximum interaction among the learners.	80	4.47	.69
B8. Learning how to learn needs to be promoted.	81	4.44	.63
B7. Learners should be encouraged to take responsibility for their own learning.	81	4.41	.72
B14. A language teacher should consider the diversity of learning styles and learner needs.	80	4.41	.68
B4. Students' interests have an important effect on learning.	81	4.39	.66
B12. Teaching a foreign language should include an element of fun.	81	4.39	.70
B1. Learners need to be provided with opportunities to discover and construct their concepts and knowledge.	81	4.38	.71
B16.Using games in language teaching is not a waste of time.	81	4.38	.81
B13. Students learn by fitting new information together with what they already know.	81	4.37	.69

B15. Learners need to be encouraged to use higher-order thinking skills.	81	4.37	.69
B2. Learning a foreign language is making meaning.	80	4.36	.66
B5. A foreign language teacher should be a facilitator.	79	4.03	.77
B10. Learners need to be encouraged to take risks.	79	3.92	.90
B9. A foreign language teacher should create a learning environment in which students can tolerate uncertainty.	79	3.30	1.07

The analysis of the teachers' perceptions regarding their beliefs showed that all the teachers' agreed with the ideas of the new curriculum which was based on Constructivist language teaching and learning. This finding indicated that all the participant foreign language teachers' beliefs seemed to be congruent with the ideas of the new curriculum. This would be due to the fact that the new curriculum has been introduced recently and the teachers' might have been influenced by these ideas so that they had tendency to pretend they believe in these ideal beliefs, or they stated their genuine beliefs.

3.2. Teachers' Perceived Classroom Practice

The mean scores, as can be seen in Table 2, indicated that six items are claimed to be always practiced (4.65- 4.08), eleven items are claimed to be practiced most of the time (4.00-3.01). The analysis of the perceptions of the participants regarding item *P34: I encourage my students to participate in the lesson* indicated the highest mean score of 4.65 which means that teachers claimed that they always do this. The reported perceptions of the participants for item *P25: I do not prefer my students to work individually* revealed the lowest mean score of 3.01. In other words, teachers claimed that they do not prefer to give tasks and learning activities to learners that require individual study most of the time. Small standard deviations (SD), ranging from .47 to .96 for the teachers practice indicated that they agreed with each other.

Table 2*. Means and Standard Deviations for Replies Concerning Practice about English Language Learning and Teaching*

ITEM	N	Mean	SD
P34. I encourage my students to participate in the lesson.	81	4.65	.47
P33. I help my students to become autonomous learners.	81	4.35	.61
P31. I encourage my students to learn and use language in context.	81	4.27	.77
P22. I base new knowledge on students' existing knowledge.	81	4.27	.63
P24. I consider my students' interests when I design activities for language learning.	81	4.08	.80
P29. I consider the individual differences among my students.	80	4.08	.71
P30. I encourage my students to make inferences and induce rules about the language.	81	4.00	.72
P28. I encourage my students to evaluate their			.78

own progress.	80	3.90	
P21. I use games to teach language.	81	3.82	.77
P19. I put my students in small groups or pairs to come up with a joint solution or approach to a problem or task.	80	3.75	.77
P26. I give my students challenging tasks.	80	3.70	.75
P23. I provide my students with tasks in which they can practice analysis, synthesis and evaluation.	81	3.67	.86
P27. I assign my students tasks in which there are no set solutions to the problems.	81	3.62	.71
P20. I consider the differing needs of individual students when planning activities.	81	3.51	.80
P32. I teach some strategies for my students to check their own learning.	80	3.35	.88
P18. I give my students tasks which encourage risk- taking.	79	3.30	.83
P25. I do not prefer my students to work individually.	81	3.01	.96

The findings indicated that the teachers' reported perceptions about their perceived practice were in line with their stated ideal beliefs since they all agreed on all the practice items which reflected the ideas of the new curriculum based on Constructivism. This indicated that all the participant teachers claimed that they implemented what they believed in regarding the ideas of the new curriculum in their perceived classroom practice. Another interpretation of this finding might be that since all the teachers were expected to implement the ideas of the new curriculum in their classroom teaching by the authorities, they might have pretended to be implementing the new curriculum in their teaching.

3.3. Analysis of Gender-related Differences for 'Beliefs'

In order to test for differences between the mean scores of males' and females' perceptions regarding 'beliefs', a t-test was employed. As can be seen from Table 3., the results of the test showed that the differences were significant at the 0.05 significance level for 2 belief items: B1 and B7.

The significance for item *B1: Learners need to be provided with opportunities to discover and construct their concepts and knowledge* was p=.027 < 0.05. The mean score of males' responses was 4.00 while it was 4.46 for females. This showed that males' and females' reported perceptions of Belief 1 were significantly different with female teachers being more in favour.

For item *B7: Learners should be encouraged to take responsibility for their own learning*, the significance in the reported perceptions was p=.036 < 0.05. the mean score of males' perceptions was 4.76 and it was 4.34 for females. This revealed that the reported perceptions of male and female teachers differed significantly for Belief 7 with male teachers supporting this statement more strongly.

Table 3**.** *Perceptions of 'Beliefs' by the Variable 'Gender' (Independent Samples "t" Test Table)*

Beliefs	Gender	N	Mean	Mean Difference	t- value	df	P
B1	Male	14	4.00	-.46	-2.25	79	.027 *
	Female	67	4.46				
B7	Male	14	4.79	.44	2.13	79	.036 *
	Female	67	4.34				

*Significance

The analysis showed that the male and female teachers' beliefs were different significantly only in these two belief items.

3.4. Analysis of Gender-related Differences for 'Practice'

A t-test was also employed in order to test for differences between males' and females' perceptions regarding 'practice'. As can be seen from Table 4.1. below, the mean score difference reported was significant only for item *P26: I give my students challenging tasks* as p= .007 < 0.05 at the 0.05 significance level. Female teachers agreed more with this statement than the males.

Table 4. '*Practice' by the Variable 'Gender' (Independent Samples "t" Test Table)*

PRACTICE	GENDER	N	MEAN	Mean Difference	t-value	Df	P
P26	Male	14	3.21	-.67	-2.46	78	.016 *
	Female	67	3.80				

*Significance

The analysis thus indicated that the male and female teachers' were significantly different only in one practice item.

4. Discussion

Here, the research questions will guide the discussion of the findings.

The first research question is as:

1. *What are the beliefs held by the EFL teachers and how do they perceive their practice regarding learning and teaching?*

The quantitative findings obtained from the questionnaire about teacher beliefs and practice gave the impression that the EFL teachers' beliefs and practice about English language learning and teaching, in general, were in line with the new curriculum. In other words, regarding the teacher and learner roles in language learning and teaching, learning environment and EFL learning, all the teachers stated agreement with Constructivist teaching and learning. The teachers indicated strong agreement on fifteen belief items and agreement on two belief items. *B17: Learners should not be mainly passive recipients of teacher's knowledge* received the highest mean score (4.58). This could be interpreted as the teachers believing in the importance of their students' constructing their own knowledge, in line with a Constructivist learner role, though other interpretations are possible.

In regard to the teachers' perceived classroom practice, the teachers claimed always practice for six items and most of the time practice for eleven items. The highest mean score was for replies to *P34: I always encourage my students to participate in the lesson* (4.65), which would seem to be in line with a Constructivist learner role. The questionnaire results indicated that all the teachers gave the most importance to the learner's role in language learning and teaching since the items reflecting learner's active involvement received the highest mean scores in relation to the teachers' beliefs and their perceived practice.

2. *Are there any differences in beliefs and practice according to gender?*

The earlier studies indicated gender differences in teachers' adopting specific educational beliefs (e.g. Kalaian& Freeman, 1994, Li, 1999, Sang et al., 2009). The quantitative findings of this study are in line with these earlier findings yet in this study statistical analysis of the data showed that the difference in beliefs according to gender was small. The t-test results have indicated that the female and male teachers' reported beliefs were very similar to each other. Among 17 belief statements only in 2 were there significant differences. The female teachers agreed more strongly than the male teachers on *B1: Learners need to be provided with opportunities to discover and construct their concepts and knowledge* ($p=.027 < 0.05$) representing a Constructivist view of learning while the male teachers favoured *B7* more than the female teachers: *Learners should be encouraged to take responsibility for their own learning* ($p=.036 <0.05$) that puts emphasis on self-directed learning. It seems that the female teachers favoured a more active, facilitating role for the teacher than the male teachers since 'providing opportunities' for learners requires more organized effort (e.g. particular tasks) than simply 'encouraging' learners to take responsibility for their learning.

Similarly, the reported perceptions regarding practice were also found to be very similar for the females and males. There was a significant difference between the females' and males' perceptions only for 1 item *P26: I give my students challenging tasks*, ($p= .007 < 0.05$). The female teachers agreed more with this than the male teachers. From a Constructivist point of view, 'challenging tasks' are an important way of helping learners develop beyond what they already know. This finding could indicate that the female teachers had a greater tendency to put their Constructivist beliefs into practice.

The difference between male and female teachers confirmed the findings of Singer (1996) who investigated 443 college faculty members in Mathematics, English, Biology and Psychology in 163 institutions found that female teachers showed more tendency to promote learning environments that are more student-oriented, facilitative and effective driven. In addition, they tended to use class discussion more often, encourage collaboration and affective learning strategies. The differences in males' and females' beliefs and practice regarding the above mentioned items might have been related to some other factors, such as personality differences and experiential differences influencing the teachers' beliefs and practice since the difference is small. Therefore, the relationship among the teachers' beliefs, practice and gender needs further investigation.

5. Conclusions

The findings of this study contribute to our understanding of teacher cognition in EFL teaching and learning arena. It also provides evidence regarding the teachers' beliefs and practice about EFL teaching and learning in Cyprus Turkish EFL context. It shows the importance of understanding teachers' beliefs for teacher education and teacher development.

This study also yielded evidence in advancing our understanding of how compatible the teachers' beliefs and practice were with Constructivist view of learning and teaching in Cyprus Turkish secondary state schools context. It has also provided evidence to increase our

understanding of how and to what extent teachers' practical frameworks for EFL learning and teaching are influential in the implementation of the educational practices within the new Cyprus Turkish Education System. Although generalizations cannot be made for the whole EFL teachers working in Cyprus Turkish secondary schools contexts, to a certain extent it has the potential to help the educators to draw a picture of English langauge teaching in the state schools. However, since this study did not reveal any evidence about the teachers' actual classroom practice there is a need for further investigation to explore the actual classroom practice of the teachers. Besides, teachers' beliefs can be explored more deeply by means of qualitative investigation. Therefore, a further investigation employing interviews and observations would reveal better understanding of the phenomenon.

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EMOTIONAL CONTROL AND EXECUTIVE FUNCTIONS OF STUDENTS IN THE TRANSITION TO THE JUNIOR SECONDARY STAGE OF BASIC SCHOOL

Monika Bobáková,
University of Presov
monika.bobakova@unipo.sk

Miriam Slavkovská,
University of P. J. Safarik
miriam.slavkovska@upjs.sk

Ivan Ropovik,
University of Presov
ivan.ropovik@unipo.sk

Iveta Kovalčíková
University of Presov
ivetakovalcikova@yahoo.com

Ján Ferjenčík,
University of P. J. Safarik
jan.ferjencik@upjs.sk

Biodata

Monika Bobáková, lecturer and researcher at the Faculty of Education, University of Presov. Field of interest: emotions, coping, cognitive abilities and gifted children.

Miriam Slavkovska, lecturer and researcher at the Department of Psychology, Faculty of Arts, University of P. J. Safarik, Slovak Republic. She is interested in the assessment and treatment of patients with cognitive deficits as a result of degenerative diseases.

Ivan Ropovik, researcher at the Faculty of Education, University of Presov, Slovak Republic. His field of interest covers measurement and methodology.

Iveta Kovalcikova, associate professor, researcher at the Faculty of Education, University of Presov, Slovak Republic. Her field of expertise is assesment of cognitive capacities of pupils in elementary school.

Jan Ferjencik, researcher at the Department of Psychology, Faculty of Arts, University of P. J. Safarik, Slovak Republic. Field of interest: statistics, human resource management.

EMOTIONAL CONTROL AND EXECUTIVE FUNCTIONS OF STUDENTS IN THE TRANSITION TO THE JUNIOR SECONDARY STAGE OF BASIC SCHOOL

Monika BOBÁKOVÁ,
monika.bobakova@unipo.sk

Miriam SLAVKOVSKÁ,
miriam.slavkovska@upjs.sk

Ivan ROPOVIK,
ivan.ropovik@unipo.sk

Iveta KOVALČÍKOVÁ
ivetakovalcikova@yahoo.com

Ján FERJENČÍK,
jan.ferjencik@upjs.sk

Abstract

Parallel development of executive functions and self-regulation skills play an important role in social adaptation during the transition to the junior secondary stage of basic school. This paper deals with interrelations of executive functions and emotional control. These relationships are not yet sufficiently clarified and are thus the subject of many discussions in professional circles. Attention is also paid here to gender differences in executive functions. The research sample consisted of 54 pupils (33 girls and 21 boys) with a mean age of 9.4 years. Within the concept of executive functions, the paper focuses on the level of inhibition, switching, verbal and figural fluency and working memory. The Delis - Kaplan Executive Function System (D - KEFS) test battery by the authors Delis et al., (2001), and the intelligence scales Woodcock - Johnson International Edition (WJ - IE Slovak Edition) by the authors Ruef et al., 2001 were administered to examine these functions. Emotional control was measured by a BRIEF questionnaire based on evaluation of the pupils by their teachers. The hypotheses were confirmed only partially. On the one hand, a significant correlation was found between the emotional control of pupils, according to evaluation by their teachers, and executive functions (intercorrelations ranging from r =.21 tor = .25). On the other hand though, the significance of the relationship was not confirmed by the regression analysis. Gender differences in the observed executive functions were not confirmed either. Results are discussed here in relation to the assessment of pupils from the general population using the BRIEF questionnaire and to the given age of the children.

Keywords: executive functions, emotional control, gender, teacher

1. Theoretical background

The period of transition to the junior secondary stage of basic school is, in many countries as well as in Slovakia, associated with increased demands on adaptation and academic performance. The pupil is exposed to new school subjects, a broader curriculum, new teachers and new peers in class. To cope with the situation successfully, there is a need for increased

self-regulation. Self-regulation can broadly be defined as a goal-directed behaviour involving goal setting, planning, motivation towards attaining one's goals and efforts to sustain attention and action. It is the result of cognitive and emotional development. Emotional development involves the development of the ability to feel, understand and differentiate more complex emotions. The extent, course, duration, way of experiencing and external manifestations of emotions are changing. In social interactions, it is necessary for the child to control their emotional reactions and to adapt to the rules and norms of their immediate environment. Such self-control represents narrower definition of self-regulatory mechanisms and is associated with suppression of impulses. It is related to the control and switching of attention, to the inhibition of dominant processes and to the ability to continuously review of incoming information. Some connections to the concepts of cognitive flexibility can be found here, therefore it can be stated that self-control is directly related to the concept of executive functions.

Executive functions are increasingly becoming the subject of many studies in neuroscience, as well as in psychology and education. In general, executive functions are considered essential for the successful functioning of an individual in everyday life, especially in stressful situations. Usually, the term 'executive functions' broadly defines cognitive processes that underlie goal-directed behaviour (Olson & Luciana, 2008). Executive functions are necessary in situations involving planning and decision making, problem-solving, error correction, initiating new tasks, dealing with risky situations, and the need to overcome a strong habit-forming reaction (Hughes & Graham, 2002; Koukolík, 2012). They form a multi-operating system that organizes and regulates human behaviour, allowing for independent and purposeful action (Preiss & Kučerová, et al., 2006). Executive functions do not operate in isolation. They are activated together with other cognitive functions (Denckla, 2005). They include for example the ability to suppress certain behaviours, to switch between tasks, to plan a way of solving a problem, and to generate verbal or nonverbal mental products (Anderson, 2002). In 1994, at a conference on this issue, six components of executive functions were identified: 1) self-regulation, 2) sequencing of behaviour, 3) flexibility, 4) response inhibition, 5) planning and 6) organization of behaviour (Eslinger, 2005).

Although there is a considerable discrepancy in the exact definition of the components of executive functions, the existing definitions agree in that executive functions include the abilities necessary for solving complex tasks (Zelazo & Frye, 1998).

One key need for a pupil in the school environment is the ability to actively focus attention, to purposefully shift it and to suppress unwanted and distracting stimuli. Executive functions are thus an important predictor of student academic achievement. These above abilities are developed along with other cognitive functions and are related to the overall maturity of the central nervous system of the child. Executive functions begin to appear in the first years of life, are fully developed in the adolescent age and gradually decrease following the natural aging process (Siqueira et al., 2010). Since adolescence is one of a person's sensitive periods, some authors point out gender related differences in the development of executive functions in pupils between 8 – 12 years of age. For example, Anderson et al. (2001) pointed to better cognitive flexibility in girls than in boys. Similar results were also found in the areas of planning. Bayer and Hausmann (2009) hold the opinion that the above differences are caused by hormonal changes, which start earlier in girls. In some other studies, however, gender differences in executive functions were not confirmed (e.g. Welsh et al., 1991), or were confirmed in verbal fluency only (e.g. Levin et al., 1991), which conforms with the generally accepted knowledge that women perform better than men in verbal tasks. There is a tendency to overlook gender differences in executive functions by researchers despite the legitimacy of such studies. In education, teachers often approach girls and boys in

a differentiated manner, which may be due either to the different reception of the taught content by girls and boys or to the different perception of pupils by teachers. A relevant question arises about the objectivity and legitimacy of a different view and approach to boys and girls by a teacher, as well as the question of specifications of gender different areas.

The relationship between emotion and cognition has been investigated for many years, however the connection between these phenomena is still not sufficiently clear. Emotional control, i.e. the ability to modulate or appropriately mitigate emotional reactions and responses, as viewed by Gioia et al. (2000), is a part of emotional regulation, and cognitive processes are closely connected with it. The high intensity of certain emotions can block some cognitive processes because of swift reaction to a changing situation or danger. On the other hand, emotions provide important information about the environment and the situation, which can help in decision making, problem solving, focusing attention and retaining useful information. Nader-Grosbois (2011) included cognitive processes among the factors affecting the development of emotional regulation. In this context, executive functions such as inhibition and planning that could help regulate and control the emotions of an individual are brought to attention. Zelazo and Cunningham (2007) define the relationship of emotional regulation and executive functions as mutually influencing processes effective in different ways depending on the situation and the problem to be solved. They specifically distinguished between everyday problems and those which are new to the child and thus more stressful. A similar view on the relationship of executive functions and emotional regulation or control is held by Ursache et al. (2013), according to which this relationship depends on the reactivity of the individual. As the authors state, high levels of executive function ability were observed among individuals who exhibited high levels of emotional reactivity and high levels of regulation of this reactivity. Emotional regulation, however, was unrelated to executive functioning among individuals exhibiting low levels of emotional reactivity, especially in terms of negative emotions. Certain differences in emotional reactivity can be observed between men and women. According to the findings of some authors (e.g. Carter et al., 2003, Zahn-Waxler et al., 2008) girls are emotionally more expressive than boys, with more strongly manifested internalized emotions such as guilt, sadness and fear. On the other hand, boys, whose level of emotional expression is lower than in girls, more strongly exhibit externalized emotions like anger and rage (Zahn-Waxler et al., 2008). In our research, we therefore focused on a closer look at the relationship of executive functions and emotional control, taking into account gender as an independent variable.

We were particularly interested in the following executive functions: inhibition, shifting, working memory, and verbal and figural fluency. Inhibition, shifting, and working memory are often influenced by the experiencing of mainly negative emotions. The primary evolutionary function of emotions is to help preserve the life and integrity of an individual, but in emotionally saturated performance, higher cognitive functions are often blocked. Gyurak et al. (2009) found a relationship between emotional control and verbal fluency which is often associated with high intelligence.

The research aim was to empirically verify the relationship between the selected executive functions and emotional control. We were interested in determining the extent to which emotional control contributes to the variability of executive functions ability in pupils. We also considered gender as a variable associated with a certain degree of emotional reactivity. We were specifically interested in the relationship of executive functions and gender in conjunction with emotional control.

2. Study

2.1 Participants

The participants comprised 54 pupils of whom 33 were girls and 21 boys. Their mean age was 9.4 years. The data were collected by psychologists during morning classes in basic schools. The research also involved the class teachers of the pupils from the sample, namely, 10 teachers, with different lengths of practice, whose task was to evaluate the emotional control of their pupils.

2.2. Instruments

To indicate the executive functions of the pupil the *Delis-Kaplan Executive Function System (D-KEFS)* of authors Delis et al. (2001) was used. It is still the only available standardized battery for a comprehensive assessment of executive functions. The Slovak version of the D-KEFS contains 8 separate tests for assessing a wide range of executive functions in verbal and nonverbal components. For the purpose of our research the following tests were selected:

A modified version of the *Trail-Making Test* was used to evaluate shifting, namely the condition of switching numbers and letters. In this test an examinee draws the trail switching between a series of numbers and the letters of the alphabet.

To evaluate fluency of thinking, two tests were used. To evaluate verbal fluency the *Verbal Fluency Test* was used – namely the Letter Fluency subtest in which an examinee should list as many words as possible which begin with the stimulus letter within the time limit. Non-verbal fluency was assessed by the Design Fluency Test in which an examinee should produce as many different figures as s/he can by connecting filled (empty) dots within the time limit.

The ability to inhibit an automated reaction was tested by the *Colour-Word Interference Test*, a modification of the Stroop test. The inhibition subtest is based on interference between the cognitive processes of reading and recognizing colours. The task of the participant is to name the colour while the read text is printed in a different colour from the name denoting the colour.

To assess working memory, the reverse numerical series subtest from the international edition of *Woodcock-Johnson* batteries for measuring cognitive abilities (WJ-IE Slovak Edition) (Ruef et al., 2001) was used. The examinee should enumerate backwards gradually increasing sequences of digits.

Level of emotional control was assessed by the subscales of emotional control from the *Behaviour Rating Inventory of Executive Function (BRIEF)* by the authors Gioia et al. (2000). The scale contains 86 items grouped within 8 separate subscales (Inhibition, Shift, Attention, Emotional Control, Initiate, Working Memory, Plan/Organize, Organization of Materials, and Monitor). The above subscales assess various aspects of executive functions. Information on pupils' behaviour was provided by the class teachers. They reported on a three-point scale the frequency of a particular type of behaviour.

3. Results and discussion

The relationship between emotional control and executive functions as well as between gender and executive functions was determined by means of the Pearson correlation coefficient (Table 1). A significant positive correlation was demonstrated only between emotional control and some executive functions, namely working memory, letter fluency and switching between stimuli.

Table 1. *Correlations between Emotional Control, Gender and Executive Functions*

	Working Memory	Inhibition	Letter Fluency	Design Fluency	Switching
Emotional Control	.214*	-.023	.253*	-.018	.237*
Gender	.072	.039	.091	-.004	-.038

$p<0.05$

It could be stated that the more a pupil is able to control his/her emotions, according to the teacher's report, the more items can be kept in his/her working memory, more verbal products can be produced and the pupil can move from one task to another relatively quickly. These relationships, however, apply only to a certain extent, due to the fact that the correlations were, despite their significance, very weak.

The relationship between gender and executive functions has not been established, i.e. no differences between boys and girls in the selected executive functions were found.

The relationships between the variables were then analysed by means of regression analysis, which indicates to what extent variables such as gender and emotional control predict variability in a range of particular executive functions. The results are presented in Tables 2 to 4. Following are the results of the dependent variables of working memory, letter fluency, and design fluency. Regression models with inhibition and switching between tasks as dependent variables demonstrated very similar results to the regression models given below; therefore they were not entered into the tables.

Table 2. *The Regression Model Using the Stepwise Method with Working Memory as the Dependent Variable*

		B	β	t	p
Step 1	Working memory (F_{total} (2,49)= 1,189; p= ,312); R^2=,041				
	Emotional control	,62	,19	1,45	,152
	Gender	1,39	,04	,34	,728
Step 2	Working memory (F_{total} (3,49)= 2,313; p= ,134); R^2=,039				
	Emotional control	2,09	,64	1,98	,062
	Gender	12,29	,40	1,50	,139
	Emotional control*Gender	-,92	-,64	-1,52	,134

Table 3. *The Regression Model Using the Stepwise Method with Letter Fluency as the Dependent Variable*

		B	β	t	p
Step 1	Letter Fluency (F_{total} (2,50)= 1,910; p= ,159); R^2=,075				
	Emotional control	,273	,240	1,696	,097
	Gender	1,213	,107	,754	,454
Step 2	Letter Fluency (F_{total} (3,50)= 1,460; p= ,366); R^2=,232				
	Emotional control	-,195	-,171	-,423	,674
	Gender	-2,832	-,249	-,826	,412
	Emotional control*Gender	,298	,590	1,208	,232

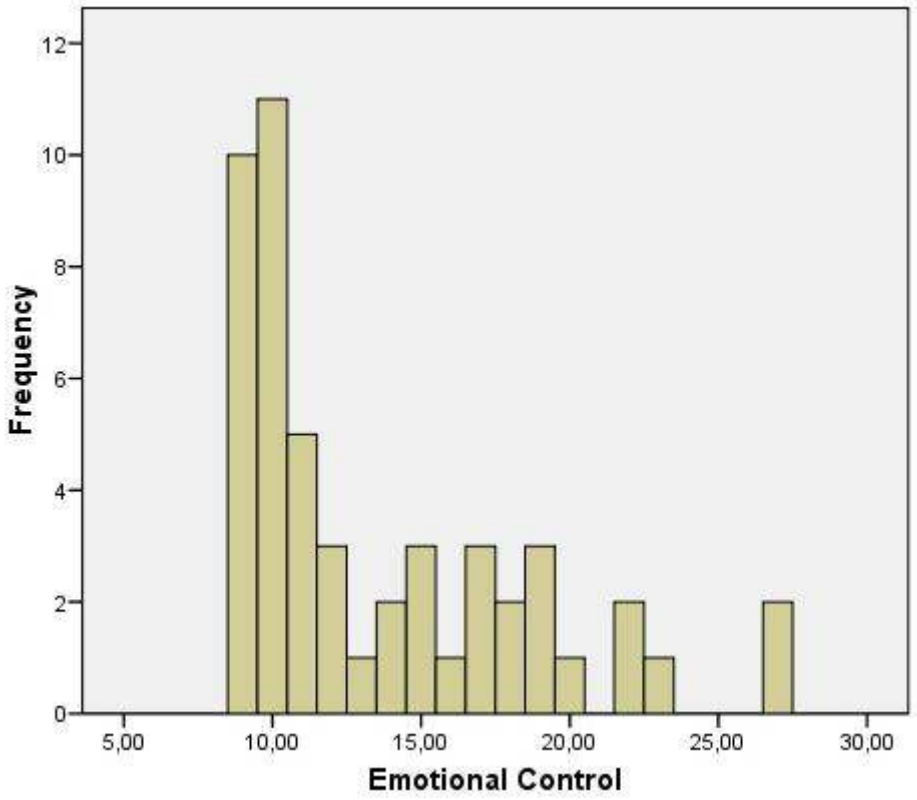
Table 4. *The Regression Model Using the Stepwise Method with Design Fluency as the Dependent Variable*

		B	β	t	p
Step1	Design fluency (F_{total} (2,50)= ,073; p= ,929); R^2=,003				
	Emotional control	-,009	-,011	-,078	,939
	Gender	-,422	-,053	-,363	,719
Step 2	Design fluency (F_{total} (3,50)= ,568; p= ,455); R^2=,012				
	Emotional control	-,290	-,365	-,742	,462
	Gender	-2,847	-,359	-,832	,410
	Emotional control*Gender	,178	,507	,754	,455

The insignificant contribution of emotional control and gender to the individual executive functions can be observed in the individual regression models. The above regression models could generally explain only a small percentage of variance, i.e. variables like gender and emotional control, according to these models, predicted the variance in individual executive functions in fewer than seven per cent of cases. It can be stated that manifested emotional control, as perceived by the teachers, is only weakly correlated with the quality of pupils' executive functions measured by the performance tests.

There is, however, another possible explanation which is based on the spread of the teachers' answers to the BRIEF questionnaire items (Figure 1). In most of their evaluations they gave their pupils the lowest value score on the three-level scale, meaning most pupils had the lowest raw score of 9-10 (after adding scores of nine items related to emotional control). Thus, the majority of teachers rated students indiscriminately as emotionally stable with a high ability to control emotional responses. The low variability of the above values is thus a limitation in formulating definite findings about the relationship between emotional control and executive functions.

Figure 1. *Distribution of Teachers' Reports on Emotional Control in the BRIEF Questionnaire* Items



4. Conclusion

Research on the relationship of emotion and cognition has a long tradition and the correlation between the two is undeniable. However, due to the high subjectivity of both constructs, the specifics of this relationship are not entirely clear. Interaction of emotions and cognition can be observed in the learning process when knowledge acquisition, but in particular, knowledge demonstration is often accompanied by positive or negative emotional responses. The learning process should be aimed at developing the cognitive but also affective characteristics of students. The complexity of the developmental dimensions can help a pupil in successful adaptation to the environment, in solving problems, or in motivation.

The results of our research did not confirm a direct relationship between emotional control and executive functions. One explanation is that the relationship of these constructs is not linear; as is the case with stress affecting performance according to the Yerkes - Dodson law, which explains such a relationship with a curve of an inverted U shape. According to this, to be able to perform better one needs a certain degree of stress, but excessive stress reduces levels of performance. A certain difference is also expected depending on whether the student is experiencing positive or negative emotions. In the follow-up research, it would be necessary to analyse the adequacy of using the BRIEF questionnaire, which is primarily intended for clinical practice in which there is greater suspicion of underperformance in executive functions and related cognitive processes. Although in the area of clinical practice this questionnaire proved to be valuable, its use in the assessment of the general population of pupils by teachers seems to be questionable.

The reason may be in the low motivation of teachers to discriminate amongst the normal population of children. The problem could also be in its rather small response scale (three-point), which poorly differentiates this type of population.

The differences in executive functions between boys and girls have not been confirmed by our research. This result is in agreement with the conclusions of the study by Welsh et al. (1991) Research confirming gender differences in cognitive areas focuses more on the adolescence period in which, under the influence of physiological changes, greater changes manifest themselves in the cognitive area.

We will attempt to remove these above limitations in our next research in which we would like to contribute to a better understanding of the researched question. This, we believe, would be of value both in educational practice as well as in the pupils' learning.

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DESIGNING AN EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM MODEL TOWARDS FURNISHING SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS WITH POSITIVE ATTITUDES FOR 'PEACE EDUCATION'

Gülay Bedir

Kahraman Maraş Sütçü İmam Üniversitesi

gulaybedir@hotmail.com

Mehmet Arslan

Gaziosmanpaşa Üniversitesi

tugberkcan_1999@hotmail.com

Biodata

Assist. Prof. Dr. Gülay BEDİR. Kahramanmaraş Sütçü İmam University, Department of Curriculum and Instruction. Bachelor's Degree: Inonu University, Malatya. Master Degree: Erciyes University, Kayseri. Ph.D. Degree: Inonu University, Malatya.

Prof. Dr. Mehmet ARSLAN. Gaziosmanpaşa University, Department of Curriculum and Instruction. Bachelor's Degree: Eskişehir Anadolu University Eskişehir. Master Degree: Türkiye Ortadoğu Amme İd. Ens. Ph.D. Degree: Hacettepe University. Ankara.

DESIGNING AN EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM MODEL TOWARDS FURNISHING SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS WITH POSITIVE ATTITUDES FOR 'PEACE EDUCATION'

Gülay BEDİR
gulaybedir@hotmail.com

Mehmet ARSLAN
tugberkcan_1999@hotmail.com

Abstract

Lack of education seems to be the source of not only the increase in the frequency of undemocratic and violent events in a society, but also for many other troubles we have. One way to raise democratic individuals that a society needs is to train or educate them through such an educational program leading to the mastery of information, skills, abilities, and attitudes that would enhance being democratic. The purpose of this study is to draft a design of an educational program model that would enable secondary school students to develop values and attitudes towards peace education. The purpose of the peace education program is to furnish secondary school students with positive attitudes and values towards peace education.. Literature survey has revealed seven categories of values and attitudes regarding peace education. During the designing phase of the program, interviews were conducted with teachers, students, and school administrators in order to hold a needs analysis under the light of the literature feedback. Data obtained after needs analysis directed the preparation of learning outcomes (goals), content, educational settings, and evaluation parts concerning these values and attitudes. Values and attitudes identified in this study are: Values and attitudes regarding human rights (Personal rights, interpersonal rights, societal freedom and political rights), Values and attitudes concerning cooperation and solidarity, Values and attitudes about preservation of cultures, Values and attitudes individuals have for themselves and for others, Values and attitudes regarding international solidarity, Values and attitudes concerning the protection of environment, Values and attitudes about spirituality.

Keywords: Peace education, curriculum, attitude

1. Introduction

Most research points out that majority of children have solid opinions regarding war, but vague ones for peace; and that they simply take peace as the opposite of war. Furthermore, peace is generally regarded as weak, passive, boring, and flat (Matthews, 2002). Following should be done and sustained in order for peace to reign in a community; peace culture should be expanded through education; an educational understanding that contains peace and negotiation should be settled; economic and social development should be balanced; ongoing effort should be exerted to bring up individuals that respect human rights; equality of women and men should be internalized, and the right to democratic involvement should be guaranteed; (UNESCO, 2002, 74-76). The required –themes for peace education were sorted: Human rights education, population education, social justice, environmental education, conflict and solving education, developmental education (Bajaj & Chiu, 2009). Knowledge,

understanding, skills, values, and attitudes within peace education should be conveyed to the students through either formal educational programs or specifically tailored ones.

A number of researchers contributed to the thoughts of peace through lots of studies on peace education. Galtung (1983) improved peace education thanks to the self-studies. In the regard; Researchers such Brock – Utne (1989) (2000), Harris (2008), Haris and Morrison (2003), Bajaj and Chiu (2009), Bal-Tal (2001), Bal-Tal, Rosen and Zehngut (2010), Reardon (1989), Shapiro (2002) provided crucial assistance based on peace education by means of their numerous studies, too. Sample of studies conducted in Turkey; Sertel and Kurt (2004), Kamaraj and Kerem (2005), Türnüklü (2007), Bedir and Arslan (2008), Özbek and Bedir (2010), Demir (2011).

Part I: Schools to be administered: Secondary Education Schools/Course to be administered: Guidance & Counseling Hours/Level/Grade: I, II, III, IV/ Unit Themes: Peace Education/ Attitudes towards peace education. *Rationale:* Lack of education seems to be the source of not only the increase in the frequency of undemocratic and violent events in a society, but also for many other troubles we have. One way to raise democratic individuals that a society needs is to train or educate them through such an educational program leading to the mastery of information, skills, abilities, and attitudes that would enhance being democratic.

According to Sönmez (2007) education is an open system. An open system is a dynamic compound constantly renewing itself. Therefore, curriculum development also has a dynamic structure. More clearly, an understanding of a finished curriculum cannot exist. The curriculum should be renewed and developed in accordance with the changing and improving conditions. Curriculum is called as "yetişek" by Ertürk (1982, 95). According to him, "yetişek" is an order of learning experience from the view of the students while from the point of the educators, it is the organization of the learning situations. Varış (1994) states that an educational institution involves activities which were provided for children, teenagers and adults and intended to accomplish the goals of the national education and the institution. Sönmez (2007) explained the curriculum as a dynamic compound which involves the goals expected to be observed on the individual and learning situations and evaluation which can bring them into action. Moreover, Demirel (2007) defined curriculum as a mechanism of experiences which can be provided for the learner through activities planned both within school and outside of the school.

The first step in preparing an educational program is to analyze the field of study and the needs and expectations of both the individual and the society. Decisions made during this phase should be compatible with the social, economic, and political choices and plans of the society. Other decisions to be made later on are more specific and technical in nature. Findings obtained from the first phase dictate the learning outcomes that the students are expected to gain after the education; and the content, learning settings, and evaluation processes that will take the route to the learning outcomes are planned and organized accordingly (Erden, 1998, 6).

The educational program can only be considered successful providing that all the students within the program reach the goals. However, this may not always be true. Therefore, an evaluation phase is administered following the termination of the program to see the fallacies and to make the necessary rearrangements and modifications over the program (Demirel, 2007).

2. Method of the research

What set the frame for peace education are some different but related topics such as themes & principles, values & attitudes, and knowledge and skills. The purpose of the peace education program is to furnish secondary school students with positive attitudes and values towards peace education. Moreover, another purpose is to help students be a better citizen and inhabitant of the world by raising their awareness and stimulating their sensitivity for national and international issues. Literature survey has revealed seven categories of values and attitudes regarding peace education. During the designing phase of the program, interviews were conducted with teachers, students, and school administrators in order to hold a needs analysis under the light of the literature feedback. Data obtained after needs analysis directed the preparation of learning outcomes (goals), content, educational settings, and evaluation parts concerning these values and attitudes.

Part II: This part contains information on the calendar of the preparation and administration of the program.

Table 1. *Procedure- Time Schedule*

Months	**1st M.**				**2nd M.**				**3rd M.**				**4th M.**				**5th M.**				**6th M.**			
Weeks	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
Procedural Steps																								
Planning Needs Analysis																								
Goal Identification																								
Content & Organization																								
Table of Specifications																								
Organization of Learning Settings																								
Organizing Experimental Sessions																								
Presenting the Program to the Practitioners																								
Administration of the Program																								
Evaluation of the Draft Program																								
User's Manual Reporting																								

Part III: Needs Analysis: This one is a problem centered program design that naturally focuses on students' social problems, needs, interests, and strengths (Demirel, 2004).

Students and teachers were kindly asked to share their opinions about almost half a dozen open ended questions during the needs analysis phase.

What do you know about Peace Education?

What are the required knowledge, skills, and attitudes for Peace Education?

Have you ever participated in a study on Peace Education?

Does the school offer any solid activities in order to raise pacific individuals?

Do you think instructional programs of the current curriculum supply enough space for Peace Education?

Part IV:Learning Outcomes of the Educational Program

Values and attitudes related to Human Rights and Democracy: Definitive knowledge of basic concepts in human rights / Definitive knowledge of basic concepts such as democracy (equality, justice, etc) / Being a democratic person / Having respect for human rights / Being sensitive about human rights violation.

Values and attitudes related to Cooperation and Solidarity: Being able to express the importance of cooperating with other people / Enjoying to cooperate with other people / Being open for communication with other people / Being decisive about finding peaceful solutions to conflicts / Having no bias against other people / Being open to hear different opinions.

Values and attitudes related to the preservation of cultures: Being able to define the main concepts regarding culture / Being aware of cultural values / Volunteering to participate in activities organized to preserve the world's cultural / Feeling responsible to preserve the cultural values of one's society / Being aware of social and cultural changes / Being decisive to preserve the familial values.

Values related to Self and Others: Explaining the importance of concepts such as empathy, tolerance, open-mindedness, and negotiation / Having the ability to build empathy / Being honest and trustworthy / Being tolerant and warm against other people / Willingness to build common values.

Values and attitudes related to Internationalism: Having a sensitive personality about global issues / Respecting other people from other nations / Feeling responsible for international issues / Being sensitive about territorial integrity of other/ Appraising the significance of peace in the world".

Values and attitudes related to the protection of the Environment: Being aware of the current environmental issues / Willingness to perform responsibilities for the preservation of environment / Willingness to enroll in NGOs working for the preservation of environment / Being sensitive about environmental issues / Having a personality that loves all the creatures / Enjoying acting individually to preserve the nature.

Values and attitudes related to Spirituality: Accepting the existence of other religions in the world / Respecting the beliefs of other people / Being open for communication with people of other religions / Respecting the way that people of other religions perform their religious rituals, Not judging anyone for their religion"

Content

Values and attitudes related to Human Rights and Democracy: What are the fundamental rights and freedoms? / (Personal rights, Women's rights, Children's rights, Rights regarding interpersonal relations, Societal and political rights) / Basic Principles of Human Rights / What is Democracy? / Fundamental Principles that Democracy is Based on (National Sovereignty, Equality, Freedom, Pluralism) / The relation between democracy and human rights.

Values and attitudes related to Cooperation and Solidarity: What is cooperation?/ What is communication?/ What is dialogue ?/ What is solidarity?/ What are the causes of conflicts? The importance of dialogue within conflicts.

Values and attitudes related to the preservation of cultures: What is culture (Material culture-Spiritual culture)? / What are cultural values?/ What are customs and traditions?/ The importance of culture for nations; what should be done to preserve cultural values?

Values related to Self and Others: What are empathy, tolerance, self-awareness, self-discipline, self-esteem, moral courage, and open mindedness?

Values and attitudes related to Internationalism: What are the global issues? / How can the global issues be solved? / What is territorial integrity? / Why do we need peace in the world?

Values and attitudes related to the protection of the Environment: Awareness of current environmental issues / What is the biggest environmental issue that our world is facing? / What can be done individually, nationally, and globally for environmental issues? / What awaits the world if the environmental issues stay unsolved?

Values and attitudes related to Spirituality: What is faith?/ What is a religious service? Respecting different religions and their services / What is freedom of belief and worship?

Part V: Educational Settings (Teacher's Manual)

Methods and Techniques to Be Used: In this study, instruction, question & answer, and brainstorming methods will be employed because they are compatible with both the topic and the level of secondary school students. Moreover, other active learning techniques such as workstation, picture interpretation, writing poems, interviews, developing opinions, set of problems and solutions, newspaper preparation, first three things, sentence completion, building formulas, concept tree, showing cards, imagination, and story writing will also be used.

Instructional Tools and Documents: Slide machine, computer, recorder, books, and other related periodicals and newspapers will be used. Furthermore, colorful cardboards, scissors, glue, and pieces of woods in different sizes and shapes will be used in order to prepare necessary materials during the instruction.

Instructional Settings

Human Rights and Democracy/ Introductory Activities: What is the regime that human rights fit the best? / Explain the saying "Your freedom ends where someone else's freedom starts" / Transition to the lecture after discussing the question "What do you think our country would be like if we didn't have democracy?"

Instructional Activities: Activity 1: Preparing a Human Rights Tree with its Branches.

A piece of cardboard is cut and covered in brown color to represent the tree trunk. Capital letters are used to write human rights on the fastened trunk. Types of human rights are written on the branches of the tree. Students are encouraged to cut pieces of paper in different fruit shapes, to write one of the human rights onto the fruit shaped paper, and to hang it up onto the related branch of the tree while explaining what that particular human rights means. Upon filling all the branches, students' opinions about the human rights tree are assessed

Activity 2.Workstation Activity: Students are divided in groups of five. Each group is assigned a responsibility related with the topic of democracy. Seating chart of the class is arranged according to group work. Students name their own groups, and complete the work they are given in a certain period of time; and subsequently report on the work. Following is the depiction of the activity.

Group's Name: Peace
Group's Work: Finding a slogan about democracy.

Group's Name: Freedom
Group's WorkK:Writing a story about democracy.

Group's Name: Empathy
Group's Work: Writing a poem about democracy.

Group's Name: Democracy
Group's Work:Preparing a poster about democracy

Follow-Up Activities**:** Students are asked to present positive and/or negative examples that they have seen within the last week. Students are asked to chart both national and international major documents and/or agreements about human rights.

Cooperation and Solidarity /Introductory Activities: What conflicts within our society have you witnessed? What do you hink people should do about conflicts? What do you interpret from Ataturk's saying "Union and solidarity can defeat everything but death"?

Instructional Activities: Activity 1: Sentence Completion: Incomplete statements prepared beforehand are read to the students in class, and they are asked to complete them.

- I believe cooperation with other people is both important and necessary because……..
- We can have conflicts with people we communicate, but ……...
- If we bear bias for or against people or events.…….
- If we want tolerance to prevail in our society.……..
- If people respect each other and are understanding……..
- In order to reach social integrity……

Activity 2: Set of Problems and Solutions: Students in the class are divided into two groups. One half of the students are asked to find the problems that lead to conflicts within a society whereas the other half is assigned to find possible solutions to these problems or suggestions that can direct to a solution. All the problems and solutions defined by students are boarded in the class. When both groups are done, they start sharing opinions about both the problems and solutions as a whole.

Activity 3: First Three Things: Handouts bearing numbers and concepts like tolerance, cooperation, and conflict are prepared and distributed to the students in the class. All students are asked to write down first three things that come to their minds about whatever it is on

their handout in a limited amount of time. Later, students are engaged in a discussion about what they wrote for the concepts on their handouts.

Tolerance	Cooperation	Conflict
1-	1-	1-
2-	2-	2-
3-	3-	3-

Follow-Up Activities: Discussion about the influence of dialogue over preserving cooperation and ending conflicts in a society. Students are assigned to prepare a presentation on sayings, proverbs, or idioms about tolerance, communication, and dialogue.

The preservation of cultures / *Introductory Activities:* Students are invited to explain what "Cultural variety is richness" (variety is the spice of life) through discussion. How do you think social values contribute to solidarity? Discuss.

Instructional Activities: Activity 1: Newspaper Activity: Teacher provides students with information on topics that are related to culture, cultural and social values, and both national and global cultural values. Subsequently, students are divided into groups of four or five, and asked to prepare a newspaper on cultural and social values as a group activity. All groups present their newspapers to other groups.

Activity 2: Group Discussion: Groups for discussion are selected and decided a week before the discussion day. The debate question is "Which one do you think is more influential over the ruin of historical artifacts, humans or the nature?" Half of the students defend that it is the humans while the other half struggles to prove that it is the nature that demolishes the artifacts. One week is given in order to let them get ready through searching and collecting proof. Teacher moderates the discussion. A group of objective students who are not included in any of the groups serves as a jury and chooses the best group in terms of preparation and presentation.

Activity 3: Brainstorming: Teacher initiates the brainstorming by asking if all the cultural values we have in our society are positive, and students are told to feel free to contribute any example value that they think is either positive or negative.

Follow-Up Activities: Students are assigned to search about the historical and cultural background (including changes through the course of time) of the city they live in and to present the report to their classmates. Students are assigned to write an essay about possible results we will see if the cultural and historical values disappear.

Values related to Self and Others / *Introductory Activity:* Students are asked what their positive and negative personality traits are and if they can objectively judge themselves.

Instructional Activities: Activity 1: Crossword Puzzle**:** Students are asked to find out the missing words prepared by the teacher on a crossword puzzle. The puzzle is handed to each student and they are expected to finish it within the given time limit. Words: Self-awareness, self-respect, self-esteem, self-discipline, empathy, moral courage, open-minded, trustworthy, honest, tolerant, reconciliation, curious, and creativity.

Table 2. *Crossword puzzle*

T	S	O	L	B	H	E	E	M	E	O	R	E	R	V	V	S	S	H	H
D	A	S	A	S	E	L	F	E	S	T	E	E	M	E	S	R	V	T	C
S	S	E	O	A	G	S	W	I	A	A	U	G	O	E	V	I	O	I	T
T	E	S	N	R	P	R	U	T	T	U	P	J	R	D	H	R	T	F	R
A	L	N	N	T	I	T	P	C	Y	P	O	R	A	O	A	E	T	I	U
I	F	D	**E**	**M**	**P**	**A**	**T**	**H**	**Y**	G	Z	R	L	E	H	C	A	J	S
C	R	T	O	I	T	I	Z	A	E	R	T	E	C	A	T	O	G	E	T
R	E	C	M	S	Y	P	I	R	C	I	Y	D	O	U	E	N	A	S	W
E	S	E	M	S	P	H	E	P	H	S	O	R	U	J	H	C	C	C	O
A	P	D	O	A	H	H	O	D	I	U	D	Y	R	A	G	I	A	H	R
T	E	T	S	P	Y	Y	Z	N	B	I	S	Y	A	D	A	L	T	H	T
V	C	S	D	Y	S	T	H	H	E	B	Y	I	G	E	P	I	T	E	H
E	T	I	C	O	R	I	O	U	S	S	Y	E	E	E	A	A	F	J	Y
S	S	S	A	U	P	P	T	D	O	B	**T**	Y	C	O		T	C	O	G
T	T	U	B	V	H	S	V	G	E	S	C	S	D	P	A	I	A	I	F
E	T	C	O	P	E	N	M	İ	N	D	E	D	T	R	R	O	C	I	S
E	N	L	Z	O	G	S	A	K	D	O	U	A	D	P	D	N	N	A	A
S	I	Y	I	N	N	T	A	T	A	R	T	O	F	T	A	V	A	H	D
U	N	P	B	P	S	E	L	F	A	W	A	R	E	N	E	S	S	I	A
H	Y	D	F	S	A	G	H	E	E	I	K	M	N	N	E	S	P	R	I

Activity 2: Building Empathy: Teacher asks students to put themselves into his/her shoes and try to understand him/her by saying “How do you think I feel when you do something violating the classroom rules, or when you do not show interest to your classes?”

Follow-Up Activities: Teacher asks the students to write a story by using the words self-awareness, self-respect, self-esteem, self-discipline, empathy, moral courage, open-minded, trustworthy, honest, tolerant, reconciliation, curious, and creativity. Later, they are asked to comment on the things they mentioned in their stories.

Values and attitudes related to Internationalism: Introductory Activities: Explain what Ataturk meant by saying “Peace at home, Peace in the world” / What associations have been founded to preserve the world peace?

Instructional Activities: Activity 1: Press Conference: Some students in the class are given the role as reporters while some others were chosen as speakers before the activity, and they are told to be prepared. Students gather information about international associations, their duties and responsibilities, and if they fulfill their responsibilities adequately; and they present it to the class in a press conference atmosphere.

Activity 2: Building Formulas: Teacher gives some incomplete formulas to students to be completed**.**

1- Global Issues=…….……+…….+……...……

+……..

2-……+……..+……= World Peace

Subsequently, students are encouraged to build up their own formulas for international issues.

Activity 3: Picture Drawing*:* Teacher asks students to express the world they would prefer to live in by drawing a picture. Later on, students share their drawings and the themes of their drawings with their peers.

Follow-Up Actvities: What are the international issues you heard or read on TV or in a newspaper within the last week? How do you evaluate these issues personally? Discuss.

Values and attitudes related to the protection of the Environment / Introductory Activities: What is the biggest environmental problem that we live nationally and globally? Comment on the saying "We didn't inherit the world from our ancestors, we just borrowed it from our children".

Instructional Activities: Activity 1: Picture Interpretation: Students are shown two different pictures—one displays a clean environment while the other depicts an area polluted by different materials—and they are asked to comment on how they feel when they see such places. Afterwards, they are asked to explain which one is a better place to live by stating their reasons.

Activity 2: What would you do?: What would you do to solve both local and global environmental problems if you had the authority?

Activity 3: Interview: 5 students are chosen and sent to interview the managers of environmental organizations located in their neighborhood about their aim and the activities they are involved in. Then, students prepare a report about these organizations and present it to their classmates.

Follow-Up Activities: What harms the environment and the nature? Personally, what do you do to protect the environment? Which animals have become extinct so far, and which animals are threatened by extinction? What can be done to protect the species facing extinction? What possible future environmental problem worries you the most, and why?

Values and attitudes related to Spirituality: Introductory Activities: What does 'freedom of belief' mean? Explain. Do you celebrate the special occasions of your friends from other religions? How do you interpret the sentence "States should not favor any belief over the others"? Explain.

Instructional Activities: Activity 1: Developing Opinions: What can be done both locally and globally to improve the tolerance people have for different religions? Discuss.

Activity 2: Imagination Activity: Teacher wants students to imagine a place where people from different religions live in peace and where everybody respects the other's beliefs and religious rituals. Afterwards, students are asked to share how they felt during the imagination.

Activity 3: Showing cards: Teacher distributes three cards in three different colors each of which represent a respond. The red one symbolizes that the person does not agree, the yellow one means that the person is indecisive while the green one represents a full agreement. Next, teacher reads both positive and negative statements to students, and asks them how they feel about them by showing their cards.

I would like to know the religion of people around me. I can pray in places that belong to different religions. I find the way some tribes worship a little weird. I search about different religions to get to know them better. Everything would be better if there were only one religion in the world. At the end of the activity, each student is encouraged to assess their opinions in terms of freedom of belief and worship.

Follow-Up Activities: Which city in Turkey is a good example for the world as a place where people of different religions live in peace and where solidarity and tolerance prevails? What religions have been practiced by people in this city since its foundation?

Part VI:Testing Settings

1- Choose two countries where democracy practiced and not practiced, then evaluate the citizens of these countries in terms of rights and freedoms.

2- Who defines personal immunity, rights, and freedoms in democracy?

3- What are the results of conflict?

1- What is the benefit of cooperation for a society?

2- How does cooperation feed social solidarity?

3- What are the associations founded to preserve world peace? What are their duties and responsibilities?

4- What is the relation between democracy and human rights?

5- What does freedom of belief and worship lead in societies and in the world?

6- What are the most important global issues? How can they be solved?

7- What are cultural values? How can we preserve them?

8- What should be done to preserve the environment and the natural resources?

9- How can you personally contribute to world peace?

10- What does it mean to be at peace with oneself? Explain.

11- How can you explain the relation between peace and education?

12- What are the similarities and differences you have with your classmates?

13- Which heroes do you think of when you consider national and international peace? Why?

14- What is the benefit of building empathy?

3. Conclusion and Recommendations

The aim of peace education program has been to equip secondary school students with positive values and attitudes towards peace education. Related literature review has yielded seven different values and attitudes that can be grouped under the scope peace education. Teachers, students and school administrators have been interviewed for their opinions regarding peace education through open ended questions prepared under the guidance of the data obtained from the literature. Findings of the interviews have led to the preparation of peace education program that would furnish students with the aforementioned seven values and attitudes. Values and attitudes identified in this study are: *Values and attitudes regarding human rights (Personal rights, interpersonal rights, societal freedom and political rights), Values and attitudes concerning cooperation and solidarity, Values and attitudes about preservation of cultures, Values and attitudes individuals have for themselves and for others, Values and attitudes regarding international solidarity, Values and attitudes concerning the protection of environment, Values and attitudes about spirituality*. Other studies on this subject (same values and attitudes); Unesco (2005) "Peace education framework for teacher", Bedir, Arslan (2008) "An education program model directed to develop peace education attitude for students at the second echelon", Özbek, Bedir (2010) "Developing an attitute towards peace scale for assessing turkish university students". Another study on this

subject, Bal-Tal, Rosen and Zehngut (2010) divided peace education into two groups. (1)Indirect peace education: Reflective thinking, tolerance, empathy of ethnical, human rights and conflict resolution (2) direct peace education: conflict and peace, formation of peace, the history of conflict, new desires and emotions.

Each of these seven areas identified during drafting the educational program has been separately analyzed during the development of the program. In the first phase, goals (outcomes) that target all the areas were determined in order to convey all these values and attitudes to students.. In the second phase, the content necessary for the actualization of these goals was defined. Third phase involved the organization of instructional/educational settings that contained introductory, instructional, and follow-up activities for each area. In the last phase, question and answer setting was organized in order to evaluate the general outline of students' values and attitudes. The administration of the program lasted for 9 weeks and 18 hours; one week for preparation and introduction, seven weeks for the activities, and one week for evaluation.

This exemplary "Peace Education Program" targets the high school students. Training programs on the same subject could be developed for preschool, primary school and secondary school students. Also, other programs can be prepared for teachers and administers in order to inform them about "Peace Education".

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THE READING STRATEGIES USED BY PROSPECTIVE ENGLISH TEACHERS IN TURKISH ELT CONTEXT

Ekrem Solak

Amasya University

ekremsolak@gmail.com

İ.Fırat Altay

Hacettepe University

ifaltay@hacettepe.edu.tr

Biodata

Ekrem SOLAK (Ph.D.) has been an Assistant Professor at ELT Department at Amasya University, Turkey. His major is teaching language skills, teaching reading skill, material development, syllabus design and learning strategies. He has publications in both national and international indexed journals and publication houses on various topics of language teaching and learning.

İ.Fırat ALTAY (Ph.D.) has been an Assistant Professor at ELT Department at Hacettepe University, Turkey. He has also been the vice head of prep school at Hacettepe University.

THE READING STRATEGIES USED BY PROSPECTIVE ENGLISH TEACHERS IN TURKISH ELT CONTEXT

Ekrem SOLAK
ekremsolak@gmail.com

İ. Fırat ALTAY
ifaltay@hacettepe.edu.tr

Abstract

The purpose of this research was to determine what types of reading strategies prospective English Teachers used to accomplish in their reading assignments and activities. The study was conducted at a state-run University, English Language Teaching Department in Turkey. The participants were 130 prospective English Teachers majoring English Language Teaching and taking up the lecture of teaching language skills. The Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies Inventory (MARSI) was used to collect data about the use of reading strategies while reading academic or school-related materials. The data collected was measured in SPSS program. The results indicated that participants used each strategy effectively. As the most striking strategy, subjects underlined or circled information in the text to help them remember the information. While both genders preferred to take advantage of similar strategies in common, they mostly preferred to use problem solving strategies compared to other strategies.

Keywords: Reading strategies, prospective English teacher's reading strategies

1. Introduction

Reading was the primary focus of language learning and teaching via Grammar Translation Method till 20th century. At that time, the aim of language learning was to read scientific texts in Latin. The 1929 Coleman Report proposed a new approach to the reading and recommended that reading in the target language without any translation was encouraged. The aim was to develop an idea of independent silent reading and to increase reading speed of individuals. Krashen (1985) viewed reading skill as a comprehensible input and claimed that reading gave rise to competence in speaking and writing. Krashen (1985) also maintained that voluntary reading could be a means from communicative language competence to academic language competence. Goodman et al. (1995) highlighted a psycholinguistic view of reading in which reading was viewed as an interactive process between the reader and the writer.

Reading can be considered probably the most important skill for language learners to major in academic contexts. Reading is an interactive process because learners make use of several sub skills to reach an understanding of written material such as recalling background knowledge, having an aptitude of text schema, lexical and grammatical awareness, L1-related knowledge and real-world knowledge, including their own personal purposes and goals. (Grabe, 1991)

Since the reading skill can be considered one of the most important skills in academic context, this research focuses on to determine the types of reading strategies used by prospective English teachers. By this means, it is believed that the implications of this study will give ideas to syllabus designers, material developers and lesson planners in reading

activities in English teaching context. This research is conducted in a Turkish setting on Turkish prospective English teachers which makes this study different from the current literature.

2. Conceptual Framework

2.1. Reading, the Reading Process, Reading strategies

Ransom (1978: 14) defines reading as "a conversation between the writer and the reader." Nuttall (1996: 4) regards reading as "the process of getting out of the text as nearly as possible with the message the writer puts into it." Williams (1996: 2) states reading as "a process through which one looks at and understands a written text." According to Goodman (1995), reading is a psychologically guessing game. Reading is described as a complicated process of drawing meaning from a text for different purposes in various contexts (Allen & Bruton, 1998). Additionally, in the reading process, readers make use of their background and their linguistic knowledge about the topic to achieve their purpose for reading (Peregoy & Boyle, 2001).

Garner (1987) defines reading strategies as an action or series of actions employed in order to construct meaning. Readers take advantage of a variety of strategies to help them with the acquisition, storage and retrieval of information. Readers can face some comprehension problems and use strategies to overcome their difficulties. Each reader benefits from various strategies and some of them lead to target in a faster and clearer way. (Tercanlıoğlu, 2004)

It has been observed that students, especially ESL and EFL learners, confront a variety of difficulties while reading. These difficulties comprise inadequate vocabulary, lexical inefficiency, structural complexity, language inaccessibility, poor reading skills, lack of schemata, and so on. Students' lack of interest is another major cause of their failure in reading.

2.2. Types of Reading

2.2.1. Academic Reading

A student has to pass various examinations during his/her whole course of academic life. Understanding a given passage is the goal for a reader to answer any kind of questions in the examinations because readers comprehend the text properly if they extract the required information as effectively as possible. (Grellet, 1996)

2.2.2. Non-academic Reading

Besides academic reasons, there are various non-academic reasons for reading. In an academic reading, students tend to read texts because of the syllabus and the thought of passing the examinations. But non-academic reading is open and readers get an opportunity to choose from a vast range of books according to their interest, options for choice and opportunity to spending time.

2.2.3. Intensive Reading

In intensive reading, readers extract specific information in shorter texts. Brown (1989) resembles intensive reading to a zoom lens strategy and states that "intensive reading calls attention to grammatical forms, discourse markers and other surface structure details for the purpose of understanding literal meaning, implications, rhetorical relationships."

2.3.4. Extensive Reading

Williams (1984) describes extensive reading as the "relatively rapid reading of long texts." According to Nuttall (1996), extensive reading is essentially a private activity and the reader dwells in his/her private world of reading for his/her own interest. Nuttall (1996) has pointed out two reasons for extensive reading. The first reason is that extensive reading helps to improve the reading skills of the students. The second reason is that extensive reading not only serves a different atmosphere for the students but also provides them with enjoyment.

2.3. Approaches to Reading

Top-Down and Bottom-Up are the two ways which readers process the text. Bottom-up can be defined as processing a text to figure out the meaning by reading word for word and letter for letter. On the other hand, Top- Down processing is to comprehend the global meaning of the text through clues in the text and the reader's good schema knowledge. Expectations of the reader play a crucial role in this process. The reader brings his/her personal experiences and views with him/her, and those aspects largely affect the way of interpreting a text. While bottom-up process is text-driven, top-down approach uses the meaning brought by the reader, namely, it is reader-driven. The most effective model is the interactive model which is a combination of both bottom-up and top down elements. (Anderson, 1999)

3. Method

The purpose of this study is to determine what types of reading strategies the prospective teachers use to accomplish in their reading assignments and activities. It is believed that implications of the research will inspire syllabus designers, material developers and lesson planners in English teaching context especially in reading activities. This study will answer the following research questions:

1. What are the most and least reading strategies used by the prospective teachers?
2. What groups of strategies do the prospective teachers prefer?

3.1. Subjects

The study was conducted at a State-run University, English Language Teaching Department in Turkey. The participants were 130 prospective teachers majoring English Language Teaching and taking up the lecture of teaching language skills during 2012-2013 academic year. The group had similar characteristics with respect to age and educational background. Gender distribution was 100 females and 30 males.

3.2. Instruments

In this research, *Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies Inventory (MARSI) Questionnaire* was used to collect data about the readers' awareness and use of reading strategies while reading academic materials. The MARSI Questionnaire (Mokhtari and Reichard, 2002) measures three categories of reading strategies including:

(1) Global Reading Strategies (GLOB), which can be classified as generalized or global reading strategies aiming to set the stage for the reading act.

(2) Problem-Solving Strategies (PROB), which can be defined as focused problem solving or repair strategies used when problems emerge in understanding textual information, and (3) Support Reading Strategies (SUP), which is composed of using the support mechanisms aimed at sustaining responsiveness to reading.

The 30-item questionnaire was validated by Mokhtari and Reichard (2002) and the internal consistency reliability coefficient ranged from 0.89 to 0.93. Five point likert scale ranging from 1 (I never or almost never use this strategy) to 5 (I always or almost always use this strategy) was used to collect data about the reading strategies. The data collected was measured in SPSS program as frequency, means and standard deviation.

4. Findings and Results

The following table presents the most and the least used reading strategies by prospective English teachers.

Table 1. *Reading Strategies Reported Being Used MOST and LEAST*

Items	Reading Strategy	N	*M*	SD
I underline or circle information in the text to help me remember it.	sup	130	4,28	1,02
When text becomes difficult, I pay closer attention to what I am reading.	prob	130	4,25	0,93
When text becomes difficult, I reread to increase my understanding.	prob	130	3,97	1,05
I adjust my reading speed according to what I am reading.	prob	130	3,95	1,18
I try to get back on track when I lose concentration.	prob	130	3,89	0,94
I take notes while reading to help me understand what I read.	sup	130	3,02	1,27
I skim the text first by noting characteristics like length and organization.	glob	130	2,99	1,22
I ask myself questions I like to have answered in the text.	sup	130	2,98	1,15
When text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read.	sup	130	2,92	1,38
I discuss what I read with others to check my understanding	sup	130	2,88	1,19

Table 1 shows the five reading strategies used most and least by the participants. There were totally 130 subjects participated in the study. The most used reading strategy used by the readers at an average of 4,28 was that readers were to underline or to circle information to help them remember it. The second most used strategy was that the readers paid closer attention to what they were reading when the text became difficult. This item had a rate of 4,25 mean. Similarly, subjects reread to increase their understanding when text became difficult and this was the third item marked most at a rate of 3.97. On the other hand, the item 'subjects discuss what they read with others to check their understanding' was the least used strategy by the participants at a rate of 2,88. The next least used strategy was that subjects read aloud to help them understand what they read when the text became difficult. Finally, the other least used strategy was that subjects asked themselves questions, they liked to have answered in the text and this item had an average of 2,98. While most used reading strategies were generally Problem-Solving Strategies (PROB), least used strategies were mostly Support Reading Strategies (SUP). Moreover, the average of all the reading strategies was 3,53.

Table 2. *Three Most and Least Used Reading Strategies Reported by males and females*

Items	Reading Strategy Group	N (male)	*M*	SD	N female)	*M*	SD
When text becomes difficult, I pay closer attention to what I am reading.	prob	30	4,26	0,94	100	4,25	0,92
I underline or circle information in the text to help me remember it.	sup	30	4	1,14	100	4,36	0,96
I adjust my reading speed according to what I am reading.	prob	30	3,96	0,8	100	3,94	1,27
I discuss what I read with others to check my understanding	sup	30	2,8	0,92	100	2,91	1,25
I take notes while reading to help me understand what I read.	sup	30	2,76	1,04	100	3,1	1,32
I skim the text first by noting characteristics like length and organization.	glob	30	2,73	1,11	100	3,1	1,32

Table 2 indicates the most and least common three Reading Strategies used by male and female participants. Both groups paid closer attention to what they were reading when text became difficult. The mean for this item was 4,25 for two groups. The second item which had the highest rate of mean for both groups was that they underlined and circled information in the text to help them remember it. The next most marked item by two groups was that they adjust their reading speed according to what they were reading. The mean for this item was 3,95. On the other hand, as the least rated item, subjects discussed what they read with others to check their understanding. Following this, the item 'I take notes while reading to help understand what they read.' got the lowest mean together with the item 'I skim the text first by noting characteristics like length and organization.' Comparing this Table with Table 1, most and least rated items exhibited the same characteristics at a large extent. All of the most rated items in Table 2 were the same with those in Table 1. So were the least rated items. While most used reading strategies by both genders were generally Problem-Solving Strategies (PROB), least used strategies were mostly Support Reading Strategies (SUP).

Table 3. *Item Statistics of Global Reading Strategies*

Items	N	*M*	SD
I have a purpose in mind when I read.	130	3,78	1,1
I use typological aids like boldface and italics to identify key information.	130	3,75	1,21
I think about what I know to help me understand what I read.	130	3,72	1,01
I preview the text to see what it is about before reading it.	130	3,63	1,11
I decide what to read closely and what to ignore.	130	3,63	1,14
I check my understanding when I come across conflicting information.	130	3,62	1,08
I use context clues to help me better understand what I am reading.	130	3,58	1,18
I check to see if my guesses about the text are right or wrong.	130	3,53	1,28
I try to guess what the material is about when I read.	130	3,48	1,01
I critically analyze and evaluate the information presented in the text.	130	3,39	1,07
I use tables, figures, and pictures in text to increase my understanding.	130	3,22	1,09
I skim the text first by noting characteristics like length and organization.	130	2,99	1,22
Total		3,53	

Table 3 presents 12 Global Reading Strategies from the highest to the lowest mean. The item which had the highest mean, 3,78, was that subjects had a purpose in mind when they read. Following this, the participants used typological aids like boldface and italics to identify key information. The mean for this item was 3,75. The next highest mean,3,72, belonged to the item ' I think about what I know to help me understand what I read.' On the other hand, the item which had the lowest mean, 2,99, was that participants skimmed the text first by noting characteristics like length and organization. The second item with the lowest mean, 3,22, stated that subjects used tables, figures, and pictures in text to increase their understanding. The next lowest graded item with a mean of 3,53 was that participants critically analyzed and evaluated the information presented in the text. Finally, the average of all the global reading strategies was 3,53.

Table 4**.** *Item Statistics of Support Reading Strategies (SUP)*

Items	N	*M*	SD
I underline or circle information in the text to help me remember it.	130	4,28	1,02
I go back and forth in the text to find relationship among ideas in it.	130	3,73	1,17
I paraphrase (restate ideas in my own words) to better understand what I read.	130	3,45	1,08
I use reference materials such as dictionaries to help me understand what I read.	130	3,25	1,08
I summarize what I read to reflect on important information in the text.	130	3,08	1,09
I take notes while reading to help me understand what I read.	130	3,02	1,27
I ask myself questions I like to have answered in the text.	130	2,98	1,15
When text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read.	130	2,92	1,38
I discuss what I read with others to check my understanding	130	2,88	1,19
Total		3,29	

Table 4 shows nine support reading strategies from the highest to the lowest mean. The highest mean, 4,28, belonged to the item ' I underline or circle information in the text to help me remember it.' Next, subjects went back and forth in the text to find relationship among ideas in it. This item had a mean of 3,73. Following this, the item 'I paraphrase to better understand what I read.' got the highest mean as 3,45. On the other hand, as the items which got the lowest means in this group, first, participants discussed what they read with others with a mean of 2,88. The next item getting the lowest mean, 2,92, was that ' When text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read.' finally, participants asked themselves questions they liked to have answered in the text. The mean for this item was 2,98. All in all, the mean for all support reading strategies was 3,29.

Table 5. *Item Statistics of Problem-Solving Strategies (PROB).*

Items	N	*M*	SD
When text becomes difficult, I pay closer attention to what I am reading.	130	4,25	0,93
When text becomes difficult, I reread to increase my understanding.	130	3,97	1,05
I adjust my reading speed according to what I am reading.	130	3,95	1,18
I try to get back on track when I lose concentration.	130	3,89	0,94
I read slowly but carefully to be sure I understand what I am reading.	130	3,72	1,11
I try to picture or visualize information to help remember what I read.	130	3,68	1,13
I stop from time to time and think about what I am reading.	130	3,60	1,05
I guess the meaning of unknown words by separating different parts of a word.	130	3,59	0,99
I think about whether the content of the text fits my reading purpose.	130	3,39	1,09
Total		3,78	

Table 5 presents nine problem solving strategies from the highest to the lowest mean. The first item which got the highest mean, 4,25, was that subjects paid closer attention to what they were reading, when text became difficult. Second highest mean belonged to the item saying ' I reread to increase my understanding, when text becomes difficult' with a mean of 3,97. Thirdly, subjects adjusted their reading speed according to what they were reading and it had a mean of 3,95. On the other hand, as the lowest three items, the first one was that participants thought about whether the content of the text fit their reading purpose with a mean of 3,39. Secondly, subjects guessed the meaning of unknown words by separating different parts of a word. Its mean was 3,59. Finally, as one of the items getting the lowest mean, 3,60, subjects stopped from time to time and thought about what they were reading. All in all, the average of all problem solving strategies was 3,78 which was the highest of three reading strategies group.

5. Discussion and Conclusion

Reading is an essential skill to master in academic context. Since prospective teachers are exposed to reading in many efforts, they must be proficient good readers to fulfill requirements in academic studies. According to the data collected, there is a moderate awareness of all the strategies. In other words, there is a kind of balance about the choice of reading strategies and each skill is essential for the readers. As the most striking strategy, subjects underline or circle information in the text to help them remember the information. In addition, they pay closer attention to what they are reading and reread the text, when text becomes difficult. Hsu (2007) also investigated the English reading strategy use of four-year technical college students in Taiwan. According to the results, the most often used category is metacognitive strategy category. This category was followed by social/affective strategy category. In addition, he also found that the effective learners tend to use specific kinds of strategies and use strategies more frequently than ineffective learners do.

As of genders' choice of reading strategy, both prefer to take advantage of similar strategies in common. Although both groups mostly use problem solving strategies, they do not prefer to use support reading strategies. While both pay closer attention to what they are reading and underline and circle information in the text, they do not prefer to skim the text first. The reason for the similarity can be the same educational background. The findings of Amer et al. (2010) are in line with results of the present study and they revealed that there was no statistically significant difference with reference to gender. However, Li's findings (2010) are not in consistent with the results of the present study. He found that females show higher use of reading strategies than males in each individual category, as well as in the combined sub-categories. In addition, while the males are more adventurous and bolder, the females are more careful and considerate. Moreover, Ozek and Civelek (2006) studied reading strategies used while reading a text by ELT students between the 1st and 4th year students in ELT Department at a state-run university in Turkey. They found that different reading strategies were used at pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading stages. The results proved that there were some significant differences on the use of cognitive reading strategies in term of students' gender, age, and proficiency in reading, school source, and duration in learning English. This finding is not consistent with the results of the present study. The findings of Hsu (2007) are in consistent with the results of the present study in terms of gender. He found no significant difference between male and female students in terms of overall strategy use. However, females use cognitive strategies and social/affective strategies more often than males do.

In the present research, participants mostly prefer to use problem solving strategies compared to others. They pay closer attention to what they are reading and reread the text to increase their understanding. Following this, as global reading strategies, they have a purpose in mind when they read and they use typological aids like boldface and italics to identify key information. As from the support reading strategies, participants underline and circle information in the text to help them remember better. Moreover, they go back and forth in the text to find relationship among ideas. The findings of this study are in line with Li's results. (2010) He investigated the students' awareness of reading strategy use at the senior middle school level in Cheese context. Based on his findings, there is a moderate awareness of all the strategies and the students hold a preference for Problem Solving Reading Strategies, followed by Global and Support Reading Strategies. On the other hand, Amer et al. (2010) investigated the online reading strategies of Omani EFL university first-year students and senior student teachers. Results of their study showed a statistically significant difference between fourth-year students and first-year students only in global strategies. In other words, while high-proficient readers use more global strategies than low-proficient readers do, first-year students reported using more support strategies than senior students did. In another study, Sarıçoban (2002) examined the strategies effective readers employ in pre-reading, reading and post-reading stages of instruction in classroom language learning at a state- run university ELT Department. The result proved that successful readers preferred global reading strategies first then moved to smaller units such as words, sentences and paragraphs.

The reading strategies analyzed above can be transferred to classroom setting and even to the free time activity as intensive and extensive reading. Since we consider the subject group as very good and good readers, following their choice of strategy can lead other readers to success in reading efforts. Adaptation of these strategies to each reading activity in the language classroom makes reading classes more meaningful and purposeful. However, which strategy is more appropriate for pre-, while and post reading stages for various ages can be the focus of other studies.

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