

# JISTE

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# Non-Thematic



# Journal of the International Society for Teacher Education

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The *Journal of the International Society for Teacher Education (JISTE)* is published as a service to those concerned with global teacher education. It serves as a forum for the exchange of information and ideas related to the improvement of teacher education. Articles focus upon concepts and research which have practical dimensions or implications and applicability for practitioners in teacher education. The Journal limits its articles to those in which ideas are applicable in multiple social settings.

*JISTE* is an official, referred publication of ISTE. Initially, manuscripts are papers presented at the previous International Seminar for Teacher Education. Manuscripts are submitted by the author(s) for review for possible publication. Points of view and opinions are those of the individual authors and are not necessarily those of ISTE. Published manuscripts are the property of *JISTE*. Permission to reproduce must be requested from the editor.

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## Secretary General's Message

John Ralston Saul delivered the Massey Lectures on CBC Radio in 1995 and these were published in *The Unconscious Civilization*. Among many other challenging opinions on modern society he argues that there is a desperate need to reformulate the idea of national growth.

In many countries today education is viewed as a cost and therefore a liability. A golf ball, he says, is an asset and the sale of it a measurable factor of growth. He illustrates this idea further by saying:

*"a face lift is an element of economic activity while a heart bypass is a liability which the economy must finance. Holidays are among the pearls of the service industry, while child care is a cost."*

Investing in educating the young and caring for citizens is not treated as an asset but rather as a cost and seen as a burden. Everywhere we hear of downsizing and cost cutting. Corporate and institutional anorexia is depriving societies of human potential for real growth. New directions are needed to ensure that investment in the care and education of citizens is valued.

JISTE is an international voice, particularly for teacher educators, which promotes the value of education for individuals and the whole of society, nationally and globally, and seeks to enhance the status of the teaching profession.

Congratulations to our Editors and the contributors to the first issue of our Journal published earlier this year. The articles were subjected to exacting editorial review by members at the 16th Annual ISTE Seminar in Brazil and subsequently by editorial reviewers. The high standard which this process ensures is evident in the first issue and is maintained in this the second issue.

ISTE members are invited to support JISTE by subscribing and making this valuable new journal available to their colleagues and in their university library.

Warren Halloway

## Editors' Message

As teacher educators we seek to understand the process of teaching and learning and to assure the accomplishment of instructional goals in primary and secondary schools through the instruction of teachers.

At one time our frame of reference for preparing teachers might have been the schools in our local region in which we expected our graduates to find employment. This can no longer be the case. The reality of our time is that graduates of our programs will serve young people in many different settings, within and outside our state and national boundaries. And, they will serve in a world of change to which they will need to adapt through the coming decades. With this in mind, it becomes imperative that we as educators of educators seek alternative answers to dilemmas that face our profession. This can be accomplished, in part, by developing an awareness of educational processes and goals of instruction in different social settings and using this knowledge to increase our effectiveness. This Journal of the International Society for Teacher Education offers a resource for teacher educators to improve our effectiveness through learning from colleagues in other countries

The articles in this issue offer: a description of the way a few people have affected the thinking of teacher educators around the world through their willingness to bring teacher educators together in purposeful dialogue (DoCosta and Mably), practical guidelines for preparing school administrators based on analysis of practical experience (Low and Chew), a case study of changes in teacher education in line with changes in society (Halloway et. al), a demonstration of change in teacher education in response to change - and consistency - in instructional technology (Ganske), a framework for universities and teacher educators to become active partners in the development of the communities and countries in which they exist [whether economically advantaged or not] (Tambo), a presentation of changes in government policy and implications for teacher educators as they bridge policy and practice to assure teachers are prepared to serve the current and future needs of schools and their communities (O'Brien), and a study of prospective teacher attitudes about the instruction they are receiving as teacher educators seek to respond to their student's needs while fulfilling expectations of society.

The authors of these articles work in Australia, Cameroon, Canada, England, Kuwait, New Zealand, and Singapore. The diversity of their settings coupled with the universality of the issues they discuss, remind us of the global nature of our profession and the opportunity we have to learn from each other.

**George Churukian**  
**Craig Kissock**  
**Corey Lock**

# SEMINAR BORN IN A RAIL CAR: THE HISTORY AND PHILOSOPHY OF ISTE

Cornel DaCosta  
Colin Mably

*In this short invitation paper, the co-originaors of ISTE recall the events and ideas that led to the first seminar in 1981 and influenced ISTE's subsequent development.*

Back in '79 (as opposed to '97), the opportunities to meet with colleague teacher educators on an international basis were somewhat limited. The Association for Teacher Education in Europe (ATEE) was establishing itself as an annual event with internal squabbles about whether the conference language should be French, German or English. There were one or two other European initiatives underway funded by the European Commission. The International Council on Education for Teaching (ICET), an American based world assembly, was active, but usually targeted at government ministry levels. Our School of Education and Humanities of North East London Polytechnic (then NELP, now the University of East London or UEL) was receiving a regular stream of overseas visitors, especially from the Americas and Antipodes. These were exciting days for us. Our school was enjoying something of a reputation for innovation in teacher education program design and perhaps it was this that led to invitations to present our work at a few national and international gatherings.

It was in the spring of '80, on a rail journey home after one such international event in Manchester, that the pair of us began to reflect on our experiences. A brief analysis revealed that the parts we had both found most interesting had not been the official conference program but, rather, the informal interactions around it. Refreshment and meal breaks, unscheduled time and most of all evenings either in the bar or in the communal kitchens of the dormitory accommodation were where we had important contact and communication with new international colleagues. It was during these moments that we really explored important professional issues of common concern, got beyond formalities, began to understand and like each other, and above all, feel professionally enriched.

The official program of most international events at that time usually involved a series of keynote presentations. The participants' job was mainly to provide an audience for this. Speakers were either recognized experts in their educational fields, or aspiring to be so. Most were very certain about the significance of their research findings, philosophical analyses, ideological positions, and so on. The result, more often than not, mirrored either an academic presentation in the classical European tradition, a dry description of a research procedure, a step-by-step debunking of accepted practices, or a rallying cry for revolution from hegemonic or reactionary forces. Almost everyone over-ran their time allowance, usually at the expense of questions from the floor. Worst of all, many speakers simply read from a transcript which we either already had in our hand, or was distributed at the end. The communication traffic was pretty much one-way, and the chairs got harder to sit on as the proceedings progressed.

Perhaps it was the relative comfort of the seats on that British Rail carriage that put us in reflective mood. NELP had gained fame by turning critical thinking

about teacher education into a series of preservice and inservice programs that had raised the status of “practice” to at least that of “research” and “theory”. The starting point had been a thorough consideration of the question: “What is a competent teacher?”, eventually followed by “Where do you learn to become a competent teacher?” and the painful realization that it certainly was not on the college campus. Our students therefore spent an average of 3 days per week in schools, one day on campus and one day in private study throughout their training. School of Education faculty went to their students’ schools to conduct on-site seminars with them and the teachers who acted as school supervisors. These were heady days for us. We had developed programs that ranged from diplomas to masters, and they were producing positive and exciting results.

Turning our newly acquired experience in teacher education program design to focus on international teacher education events was a logical step. The question: “What is it that is likely to motivate an international gathering of teacher educators?” was easily answered. Here are some of the points we itemized:

- present the event as a “seminar”, not a “conference” implying a collective approach to thinking about teacher education;
- make it at least a 6-day residential experience, located somewhere free from other worldly distractions, providing time in a peaceful setting so that people do not have to depart just at the point where they feel they are making important connections with other participants;
- keep the participant numbers relatively small, about 80 persons, so that everyone gets to know everyone else, and have everyone stay for the whole time, not swing by for just enough time to give a presentation and leave;
- make sure that participants’ are comfortable regarding meals, accommodation and refreshment so that they can concentrate on the business of the event;
- make the focal point small paper groups of about 12 persons that stay together for most of the time, not keynote presentations;
- have everyone bring a paper with 20 copies for others in their paper group to read ahead of discussion time and allow only 15 minutes or less for the author to introduce it;
- emphasize that polished, finished, papers are not so important, but that work in progress is legitimate, and that the proceedings allow teacher educators to test out their ideas on peers prior to paper completion;
- recognize that many of us are uncertain about our work in a way which can benefit from the reactions and advice from colleagues;
- view the collected participants as a unique professional resource comprising an array of experience, concern, culture, language, offering professional enrichment for all to share;
- focus on key issues and questions for the future, not the past, or at least tease out the implications of the past and current practice for the future.

It was probably the final point that accounts for the first title of what we now call ISTE, which was: Teacher Education in the 80s and 90s. It is a title that sounds like a single event, not an annual series, and that is how we saw it at the time. If you had told either of us then that now, anticipating the millennium, this uncertain



beginning would be still going on almost 20 years later, we would have laughed in disbelief.

That first seminar of 80 people from 15 different countries, based on a series of untested ideas, simply "worked". As organizers, the two of us did not get much sleep. Long days and evenings usually ended for us in a midnight meeting to review the activities and look for adjustments for the next day's proceedings. We had selected a team of colleagues experienced in facilitating small discussion groups to be paper group leaders and they were also included in this daily review process. We worried about anyone who appeared to be less involved than others. We found ways to make sure everyone was included at the core of the experiences, and ways to gently soften others away from taking a competitive, rather than collaborative approach. Most of all, we had to constantly remind ourselves and other English speakers, of our own mother-tongue advantage. In this way we became a family of professionals.

The rest is now history. Here ISTE is, all these years later, still alive and vibrant, still searching for ways to improve teacher education and mutually stimulate the professionalism of teacher educators. We have broken through some significant barriers: the "iron curtain" prior to revolution, the Arab and Israeli divide, the two Chinas, the pressures of South African apartheid, the relative gulf between developing and more developed nations. The annual seminar has developed a mother organization: the International SOCIETY for Teacher Education with a constitution that ensures and protects the essential format of the seminar - those key elements worked out on that 1980 rail car ride, a steering committee, a Secretary General, a thrice yearly newsletter, an internet list server and discussion forum. The publication you are now reading represents another important progression, the Journal of the International Society for Teacher Education or JISTE, the society's own refereed professional journal, taking its essential philosophy to an ever widening audience. Add to this the countless instances of joint research, co-authorship, faculty and student exchange programs, visiting professorships, associated events, and a world family of teacher educators now covering almost every part of the globe.

At the first TE80/90 the idea of repeating it on an annual basis was raised by some of the participants. We had not considered this at all in our planning. Someone said "Most annual events die after 3 years!". TE80/90 has stood a far greater test of time. Had we not changed this original title to ISTE we would now have to be thinking of a new one, like TE2000. Perhaps ISTE has survived and prospered in part because of its philosophical underpinnings and organizational structures which have not significantly changed from those worked out at 100 kilometers per hour, somewhere between Manchester and London. Thanks to countless professional colleagues, the train is still rattling along picking up new passengers at each stop on a track which is firmly laid out into the 21st century.

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## PREPARING THE NEXT GENERATION OF SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

Guat Tin Low  
Joy Oon Ai Chew

*The paper reports on the effectiveness of the mentoring program in preparing school principals in Singapore. Data for this study were collected via an open-ended questionnaire. Altogether 46 school principals who had been mentors in the program responded to the questionnaire. Mentors reported that mentoring was a valuable and worthwhile training mode for aspiring school principals. The program gave aspiring school principals a feel of real life principalship as well as ample opportunities to learn from mentors. Respondents concluded that the mentoring program benefited not only the protégés and the educational system in Singapore but they too benefited for they were often "forced" to reflect on their practice.*

While most countries have teacher preparation programs, few have specific programs which prepare school administrators. In Singapore we have since 1984 offered two programs to prepare school administrators. They are both full-time one-year courses. The first, the Further Professional Diploma in Education (FPDE), prepares heads of departments who form an important part of the school management team and the second is the Diploma in Educational Administration (DEA) program which prepares school principals. Participants for both programs are fully sponsored by the Ministry of Education (MOE) in Singapore, i.e., they are on full-pay leave whilst they are attending the one-year course at the university.

When the program was first conceptualised we grappled over how best we could prepare participants for the responsibilities of school principalship. There is so much that one can teach through the traditional instructional technique--role playing, simulation exercises or buzz groups all have their limitations. We are also conscious of the fact that university programs cannot provide participants with all the necessary skills required by the demands of the position. Research (Daresh and Playko, 1989) shows that traditional programs to prepare administrators were not meeting the needs of the new head. How best can we then prepare our school leaders?

We thought then of apprenticeship or internship. Literature in the area of principal preparation through internship was scarce then, but there were papers written on mentoring (e.g., Roche, 1979; Ashburne and Devanne, 1981). The use of mentoring to assist beginning teachers has been widely reported (Bowers and Eberhart, 1988). Based on what was reported we decided to introduce mentoring in our principal preparation programs. Since then mentoring has become a significant component, a "focal point" (Walker, Chong and Low, 1989) of the DEA program. The program includes participants who are mainly vice-principals from both the primary and secondary schools and they are trained separately.

The mentoring component consists of eight weeks spread over two semesters, four weeks in each semester. Participants or protégés are attached to their mentors for two months but in reality most keep in touch with their mentors throughout the program. Participants are first exposed to some of the course work before the one-month attachment to a mentor. In this way, they are able to use management theories

and skills learnt in the course during the attachment. Throughout, the emphasis is placed on theory-practice linkages. Protégés select their mentors based on a number of criteria, such as school size, type of school or program offerings. It is apt at this stage to define mentoring and to briefly discuss mentoring as practised in Singapore.

### **What is Mentoring?**

The concept of mentoring comes from Greek mythology—to Homer's *Odyssey*. Odysseus entrusted his son Telemachus to his advisor Mentor. Telemachus then came under Mentor's tutelage and became his protégé. The image is thus created of a more senior person guiding, coaching and advising a younger person. In an earlier study we had defined a mentor as "a senior person who undertakes to guide a younger person's development, both in their personal growth and where their career is concerned...we view mentoring as a developmental process within more formal training programs." (Chong, Low, and Walker, 1989). The relationship between a mentor and a protégé has been described in various ways, such as guide, sponsor, patron (Kirkham, 1993); coaching, counselling, facilitating and networking (Clutterbuck, 1992).

### **The Singapore Context**

Mentoring of school administrators in Singapore differs from those in other countries in that it is part of a full-time program of study. Hence, protégés actually spend eight weeks in a mentor's school and in most cases, protégés shadow their mentor throughout the school day and are able to observe and listen to all that takes place in the mentor's office. Protégés also accompany their mentors to meetings and functions. It is the practice that mentors spend time at the end of each day reflecting on the learning experience with their protégés while each morning time is spent going through the plans for the day. Towards the end of each school attachment period, generally in the last week, protégés take over the running of the school while mentors take a back seat.

Chew, Low and Dixit (1996) noted "...the Singapore model of mentoring for principalship training is highly structured and yet flexible enough to allow the key role participants (the mentors) considerable freedom to fashion their own mentoring styles and negotiate for a set of school management tasks to suit their protégés' developmental needs." It is structured in that prior to the attachment, mentors and protégés are brought together for twenty hours of "pre-attachment" seminars. These seminars are facilitated by mentors and it allows both parties to get to know each other and also to prepare the protégés for the attachment in the mentors' schools. During the attachment together with lecturers from the university, two tripartite conferences are held whereby feedback about the protégé's performance is openly discussed. Feedback to participants is based on a tripartite form whereby mentors and protégés rate themselves on a list of ten skills such as human relationship skills, communications skills and perceptual skills.

Besides these, other structured activities include the two review sessions whereby all participants return to the university and participants present case records of incidents that occurred during their attachment. Through these case records participants and lecturers involved in the program distil the learning. Each year about 40-50 vice-principals enrol for the course and thus far eleven cohorts of participants

have graduated from the program. What is of interest is that an increasing number of our DEA graduates are currently involved in the DEA program; this time as mentors. They have been mentored previously and today they have been selected to become mentors to others.

### **Who are the Mentors?**

As the DEA program is an MOE-funded program and was offered as a response to the ministry's request for the preparation of school administrators, mentoring principals are therefore selected by the MOE. Thus far all mentoring principals have been "highly performing" principals in the system and have been deemed to be effective in their work. They are also regarded as among the most effective principals in Singapore. It is thus a privilege and an honour to be identified as a mentor in the DEA program. Their employer the MOE has selected them to guide, coach and socialise the next generation of school leaders.

### **The Study**

The data reported in this paper were derived from a questionnaire specifically developed by the research teams\*. It was sent to all mentors who have served in the DEA program and who are currently heading schools. (They may no longer be mentors.) All mentors who have retired or who are promoted to other positions at the headquarters were not involved. The questionnaire was sent to 76 Singapore principals who had served as mentors in the DEA program. Forty six (60.1%), 27 primary and 19 secondary school principals responded to the survey.

[This report is part of a study on mentoring of principals conducted collaboratively between the National Institute of Education (NIE) and the University of Leceister. Members in the teams include Prof. Tony Bush, Dr Marianne Coleman (University of Leceister); Dr. Chong Keng Choy, Mr. Leong Wing Fatt and Dr. N. Dixit (NIE)].

The questionnaire consisted of 29 items, mostly open-ended questions covering a number of dimensions. The process of coding the responses was done jointly by members of the research team over a three-day period. Responses to each of the questions were read through and categories formed only after all five team members agreed. The main issue was to ensure that data are not lost. The researchers were careful not to over-categorise data or lose sight of subtle differences in the responses.

This paper will present the findings to four of the open-ended questions, namely:

1. Do you consider mentoring a valuable and worthwhile training mode for aspiring school principals?
2. In your opinion, how did the DEA mentoring program benefit the Singapore education system?
3. What benefits do you believe your protégé/mentee gained from the mentor-protégé relationship/experiences with you?

4. What benefits did you derive from the mentor-protégé relationship/experience?

## The Findings and Discussion

The findings for this paper are derived from the responses of 46 mentors to issues raised in the questionnaire. *Is mentoring valuable and worthwhile? Has the Singapore education system benefited? Have mentors and their protégés benefited? Mentors were allowed to write as much or as little as they like, and all their responses were coded by the team of researchers. What are their perceptions? Mentoring--a valuable and worthwhile training mode?*

Of the 46 mentors, only two did not respond to the above questions. The remaining 44 all agreed that this was a valuable and worthwhile training mode for aspiring school principals. Their responses were clustered into the following four broad categories:

1. gives a feel of real life principalship:
  - a. first-hand practical observation N= 19 (41.3%)
  - b. a chance to practice skills N= 11 (23.9%)
2. opportunity to learn from mentor N= 13 (28.3%)
3. exposure to another system/leadership style/culture N= 11 (23.9%)
4. establish a network N= 2 (4.3%)

The general feeling among mentors was that during the two-month attachment, protégés were given a feel for the job they were being prepared for as well as first-hand observation. To quote from three mentors:

*They get first hand practical observation and tutored experience. They can reflect on their observations and build their own views based on their observations...*

*Each school day is full of excitement and the two school attachments give ample scope to see the principal in action...*

*Get to be where the action is, see first hand how decisions are made, plans are conceived, implemented and evaluated. Get real feel of the pulse.*

Besides getting a feel of the "action," mentors believe that protégés are able to put into practice what they have learnt in the classroom. The mentoring experience therefore allows a theory-practice linkage:

- Provided a chance to put theory into practice, gave them confidence.
- Opportunity to assess themselves for the role but not taking the role yet...
- They have the opportunity to observe closely the mentoring principal applying various skills in school management. They're given the opportunity to practice these skills and feedback is provided to them immediately by the mentoring principal.

While many similarities exist between the present findings and those reported elsewhere (e.g., Bolam, McMahon, Pocklington and Weindling, 1995), the

mentoring model used in Singapore is vastly different from those in UK or US, hence differences in findings exist. In other studies protégés are practising principals and they are mentored by more experienced colleagues. Generally they meet for career counselling and guidance (Daresh and Playko, 1992). In the Singapore program, protégés are vice-principals who are on a one-year full-time course, and they spend eight weeks with their mentors, hence the nature of the mentoring experience is different. This gives a feel of real life principalship'. Protégés in other studies may not have the opportunity to observe their mentors the way the protégés in this study did.

Thirteen mentors (28.3%) considered mentoring a valuable and worthwhile training mode for aspiring school principals because protégés have the opportunity to learn from them. To them protégés learn how to avoid pitfalls; to adapt, e.g., "mentee given the exposure will be able to adapt whatever is good for herself and her school"; how to build morale; learn another person's philosophy and ideals and learn management skills from their mentors. Benefits such as these are also reported by Bush and Coleman (1995) and Brady (1993).

To others (23.9%), it is of value that protégés are exposed to another system, another leadership style and another school culture which could be very different from those they know. These 11 mentors noted:

- Mentees will be exposed to the numerous areas of responsibilities the principal has to handle at one time. The need to prioritise and the stamina to handle...
- ...no one right way of doing things. Being exposed to other principal's management style is an enriching experience for aspiring school principals.
- it gives them the exposure to another school, another leadership style etc. Invariably they will learn something or other which is different or not available in the school they come from.

Two mentors referred to the establishment of networks. One wrote about sharing success stories with her protégé, the difficulties encountered and the solutions sought. It appears that through sharing her fears and joys with her protégé, she feels that a relationship has been established:

- a network has been established even after the training. Principals are no longer lonely.

Overall, mentors considered mentoring valuable and worthwhile. The perceived benefits are great for protégés as they become better prepared to take on the challenge of leadership.

### **Benefits for the Singapore Education System**

Forty four mentors responded to this question. Most (N=33, 71.7%) like their counterparts in the US (Daresh and Playko, 1992) and the UK (Bolam et al., 1995) noted that the system benefits by having more effective future principals. They wrote:

*It has trained and equipped a dynamic group of school administrators who are knowledgeable and skilful in managing schools and meeting the ever increasing high expectations of the Singapore education system.*

*It has produced quality principals who in turn have turned our education system into an effective and highly respected one.*

The last quote came from a mentor of several years' standing. She must have taken note of the graduates of the DEA program and noted the impact they were making in the education scene. Generally protégés learn from their mentors who give them instant feedback on their performance. Protégés have a "veteran" at close quarters should they need to clarify their doubts. "There is no necessity to grope in the dark," one noted.

The mentoring principals noted that after the school attachment new principals "need not go through the hard way of trials and errors." They noted that future principals, i.e., their protégés will:

- be better equipped for the challenge of principalship;
- be more confident and professional;
- have a sense of purpose and direction;
- have a wider perspective of principalship;
- be more knowledgeable and capable;
- have established a network;
- know how to cope in diverse situations.

Because protégés take on their principalship well-trained, becoming more professional with time, the system stands to benefit, since school effectiveness literature (e.g., Hallinger, 1992; Lane, 1992) has always attributed the success of the school to the school head. A school is as effective as its leadership.

Nine (19.5%) see the mentoring component as a basis for training future leaders. To them it is an excellent form of training, in fact through the mentoring experience the casualty or drop-out rate of principals could be reduced. These future school principals would have picked up a lot of "survival skills" from their mentors.

The program produces a pool of well-trained, more effective school principals, and in addition the mentoring component fosters the growth of mentoring principals. Seven (15.2%) of the mentors referred to the impact of mentoring on a personal level. Their protégés ask them numerous questions which challenge their assumptions and the net effect is they become more focused. As they teach and share with others, they learn.

The mentoring program benefits the Singapore education system in three ways:

1. protégés, i.e., the future leaders will be more effective, professional and confident;
2. present principals, i.e., mentors will also become more effective and knowledgeable in their job for professional growth takes place when they impart their skills to others, there is the effect of both invigorating and proliferating existing principalship skills; and
3. it ensures too, at least to some extent, that experienced, effective principals

left behind in the system some of what they have learned over the years for others to further develop.

### Benefits for Protégés

The mentors were all agreed that the greatest benefit for protégés is "learning". Protégés were able to pick up skills, knowledge, general management techniques, and in short were exposed to a wider perspective of school management. They also learnt about themselves and about leadership. We categorised this broad category of "learning" into six sub-categories.

#### Learning:

- Skills N = 19 (36.9%)
- Wider perspectives N = 13 (28.3%)
- Management N = 8 (17.4%)
- About self N = 8 (17%)
- Leadership N = 6 (13%)
- Knowledge N = 4 (8.7%)

Learning was the single most cited benefit. Bolam et al. (1995) reported too that a benefit for their new head teachers is obtaining another perspective on management issues. What did our protégés learn? In an earlier study with protégés, Low (1995) reported that the most important skill protégés learn from mentors is human relationship skills. Protégés appreciated the chance to observe the skills used with such ease. Mentoring principals wrote:

*My leadership style of running a school. How to handle conflict/staff and student matters. Learned about my philosophy in education. How to rally people to work towards a common goal. How to reach a win-win situation. How to be assertive yet maintain good human relationship.*

*An insight into how different principals operate, removing blinkers about "stereotype" principals, principalship can be used to liberate people to get the best out of them.*

*The mentee with a sharp intellect, plenty of ideas ... she learned to slow down in her driving, check on road signs, and see variety in the faces of fellow travellers. She learned to reflect.*

Though the "chance for reflection" is not a sub-category as reflection is subsumed in other categories, several mentors mentioned that their protégé had the opportunity to reflect on the roles of principalship. Bolam et al.'s (1995) subjects reported similar findings. Their subjects said they were able to reflect on what it means to be a principal.

Another benefit mentioned by mentors was the opportunity to observe (N = 7). As mentioned earlier, in the Singapore context protégés virtually shadow their mentors who very generously allow protégés to accompany them to meetings and to most functions.

*He had the opportunity to observe how another person carries out the role of a principal, reflect on it and determine his own leadership style.*



This opportunity to observe another person at such close quarters for eight weeks is an opportunity I believe not matched in any other mentoring program. Besides mere observation the opportunity is there for them to clarify any subtleties or ambiguous organisational expectations (George and Kummerow, 1981).

The mentoring program does not only benefit protégés but mentors and even their schools benefit from the program.

### Benefits for Mentors

The key participant of the program—the mentors lose more than just time and effort, they lose their freedom as well as space. Many shared their office with their protégés (loss of physical space) and are followed throughout the day (loss of psychological space). Yet in the midst of such loss, when asked if they benefited from the mentor-protégé relationship, all replied in the positive and with only one exception all recorded the benefits they derived from the relationship. The list below shows the broad categories of benefits of mentoring for principals.

learning N=26 (56.5%)  
networking N=9 (19.6%)  
satisfaction N=9 (19.6%)  
contributions to the system N=4 (8.7%)  
role modelling N=2 (4.3%)

Once again it would appear that "learning" was all important. Both the mentors and their protégés engaged in learning throughout the eight weeks. Indeed the concept of learning while doing or learning while teaching is evident. But what did mentors learn? Many mentors shared that they were forced to reflect on their practice because protégés asked them numerous questions. Some were forced to look at their job anew. In the process they often had to re-evaluate. One noted that these reflections have enabled me to fine-tune and perform my tasks at a higher level'.

Southworth (1995) reported that mentoring fosters reflective leadership in schools. Others mentioned direct learning from protégés. Protégés 'teach' their mentors in three ways. Firstly, mentors learnt from protégés how other schools/principals tick. Secondly, other mentors learn directly from their protégés e.g., "I picked his brains! He has certain ideas I find refreshing". Indeed mutual learning goes on. Thirdly, protégés helped to update their mentors. Mentors were able to update their knowledge on management and curriculum issues by drawing on their protégés' newly acquired theoretical knowledge. This could be viewed as a professional development experience (Bolam et al., 1995). Thus while one upgrades, the other updates and the knowledge base is broadened (Low et al., 1994). The wealth of managerial resource of the schools will be increased. We suggest then that the mentoring program could be seen as an inservice vehicle for improving the professional development of practising principals.

Another area of learning are related to an improvement in their teaching ability. Because they have to teach both in the pre-attachment seminars and throughout the eight-week attachment, a few noted that their teaching skills have improved. Further they were forced to keep up to date with educational trends and

changes. Some mentors find the experience tiring yet paradoxically rejuvenating.

Protégés contribute to the school by conducting staff development workshops for teachers or evaluate programs for their mentors. Again this is unique to Singapore because of the nature of the mentoring program. Networking, the satisfaction of helping a younger entrant and of contributing to the education system were other benefits mentioned. The fact that their skills are transferred on to the next generation of leaders seem to be gratifying for some, a finding also reported by Southworth (1995).

The findings in this study are not very different from those reported in the US or the UK. Mentors reported benefits not unlike those reported here. One benefit that was mentioned by other researchers (e.g., Daresh and Playko, 1992; Bolam et al., 1995) was not mentioned at all in the Singapore study and that is professional isolation. While other studies have reported that the mentoring process reduces the isolation of headship this was not mentioned at all by mentors in Singapore. It could be that in Singapore principals meet very regularly for workshops, sports meets and other meetings conducted by the MOE. Many principals also form their own network, so isolation may be a non-issue in this small city state, where the nearest school could be just round the block!

Secondly, in an earlier Singapore study (Walker et al., 1989) we found that approximately half of the sample of mentoring principals mentioned that becoming a mentor improved their professional image among staff. In the present study only a couple mentioned this aspect. It could be that the program is in its eleventh year and some of the novelty of being identified as a mentoring principal may have worn off.

## Implications

From the findings listed earlier, there is little doubt that the mentoring experience benefits both the key participants and the education system in Singapore benefits too. But certain issues regarding this important component of the DEA program need to be raised.

### 1. Learning from mentors.

Much of the learning that takes place seems to be incidental; protégés learn through observation and they check it out with their mentors. So much of what is learnt is dependent on the protégés and the mentors. Some mentors are more prepared to share. Some mentors may also not be comfortable with such close monitoring by a younger colleague. And there could be tension as has been reported by a couple of protégés. Then again what do we want protégés to learn? What can protégés learn from mentors about leading schools into the twenty-first century? These mentors are selected because they are very effective, but how does one define "effective"? This issue is of great importance because future school leaders are being groomed by mentors.

To Southworth (1995) some mentors may actually be passing on old ways of doing things that may not be relevant to the future. He wrote that mentors may be, "*handing on traditional role expectations and too little rethinking of the approach needed in the current and still changing circumstance.*" Thus what protégés observe and learn may not be wrong but may be inappropriate. What needs do principals have in the twenty-first century? What skills do they require to meet the challenges ahead and are our

mentors the best people to pass on such skills?

It is appropriate that the system takes stock and anticipates the requirements of tomorrow and then decide how best and through whom to challenge the new entrants to school leadership. It may be that a small part of the eight-week attachment could be done elsewhere. DEA participants could be attached to senior managers of multi-national companies, after all the trend is to refer to school principals as chief executive officers.

## **2. Matching**

Some mismatches could occur. This is an important issue for a mistake can mean a great loss to the system. Some protégés may be disillusioned by the experience and drop out of school leadership. It has to be stated that in our eleven years of the program this has not occurred. Matching is a little more problematic in our context because mentors in our program are selected by the Ministry of Education. In this way some mentors could be doing it not because they want to but because they have to. There could be unwilling participants. It is necessary therefore to ensure that all mentors are prepared to invest time and energy into this exercise.

## **3. Training of mentors**

We believe newly appointed mentors need to be initiated into the program. They need to know what and how they could go about sharing with their protégés. A newly appointed mentor in our present study kept asking his protégé for feedback regarding his performance! Successful mentors could be asked to share their experiences with the mentors and if there are skills that we want protégés to learn from mentors that might need to be spelt out. Mentors with their wealth of experience could help protégés cultivate a helicopter view. Through questioning them and always pointing them away from the nitty-gritty, perceptions of protégés could improve.

## **Implications for Initial Teacher Training**

We can see some applications from our research on the use of mentoring for principalship training for the area of initial teacher training. Mentoring as a training strategy for preparing beginning teachers or continuing teacher development is hardly new and is well documented in many teacher training programs such as those in England and USA (Daloz, 1986; Hagger, 1993; McIntyre and Hagger, 1996; Odell, 1990, Tomlinson, 1995). For a mentoring scheme to have its fullest impact, there must be considerable investment in planning for the mentoring process in school-based learning sites. This could take several forms such as training workshops to induct senior teachers identified as mentors to work in this capacity in the school setting, and providing supportive mechanisms that will facilitate a positive mentoring relationship between the experienced classroom teacher and the protégé. Our experience in designing the mentoring program for Singapore principals has shown us that experienced practitioners identified to serve as mentors are able to carry out their mentoring tasks more purposefully and confidently if they themselves are given focused training on how to carry out their mentoring function. It should not be taken for granted that mentoring will automatically take place when beginning teachers are paired up with more experienced classroom teacher practitioners. In the absence of such preparation, new mentors are likely to take a longer time to acquire a repertoire

of mentoring know-how, skills and strategies to nurture a younger colleague.

In the case of a mentor teacher program, a two-day workshop could be designed to induct newly appointed mentoring teachers consisting of two elements. One would be a theoretical overview of the nature of workplace, mentoring, and the principles of adult learning. The second element would be to invite a number of expert' mentor teachers with considerable experience as teacher developers to talk about how they themselves have planned and implemented mentoring activities with beginning teachers. The skills and techniques used for role modelling desired teaching behaviours, demonstrating different models of teaching and conducting feedback sessions with protégé would be made explicit and discussed at such workshop programmes.

Such preparatory work for new mentors would not be sufficient by itself. Mentors must be accorded the status and recognition of serving as teacher developers in the school system and be motivated to develop themselves as staff developers in the school and classroom context. Time must also be made available in their regular work schedule for them to work closely with their protégé in classrooms for demonstrations of teaching and skills practice in classroom management and lesson planning, among others. As documented in the Singapore model of mentoring for developing school leaders, the gains of using a teacher mentoring scheme are likely to be two-way if reflective practice (Schön, 1983) about the nature of teaching is encouraged in both the mentor and the protégé. Each school site could e a senior teacher assigned as a co-ordinator to facilitate the mentoring scheme.

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INNOVATION IN SECONDARY SOCIAL SCIENCE TEACHER EDUCATION:  
AN AUSTRALIAN CASE STUDY

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Brian Maye

*Teacher education in Australia in the 1990s is responding to a climate created by the introduction of market driven approaches coupled with changing professional demands. Universities have responded in a variety of ways in reviewing their teacher education programs. The University of New England (UNE) in Armidale, New South Wales, has restructured secondary social science curriculum courses within the Graduate Diploma in Education to achieve greater professional relevance and to respond to changing economic, institutional and public policy contexts. An innovative new approach introduced in 1996 for full time internal and part time distance education students uses a social science curriculum course based upon inquiry learning processes as a common foundation for subsequent discipline based social science curriculum courses. The restructuring also has provided students with a wider selection of such courses and opportunity to develop the flexibility to teach more effectively in the expanding secondary school social science curriculum. Organisational and educational changes have achieved economies for the University and for participating students, a valuable avenue of professional development has been opened for staff, and opportunity to forge closer professional links with schools has been provided.*

Teacher education in Australia in the 1990s, in common with most Western nations, has found itself responding to developments in education systems based on market driven economic philosophies. Connell (1996:51) refers to the 'commodification of advantages' as a key objective of such philosophies when applied to education, but points to the 'market' in education as being dependent upon the non-market authority of the state, which 'guarantees credentials, .... funds and certifies the production of knowledge, .... defines common curriculum, .... certifies teachers and .... provides the template on which private providers develop variations'.

The climate created by the introduction of market driven approaches, coupled with changing professional demands, has led most Australian universities to review their teacher education programs. One such program, the Graduate Diploma in Education at the University of New England (UNE) in Armidale, New South Wales, provides a professional teaching qualification acceptable throughout Australia and internationally. In 1996 secondary social science curriculum courses in this program were restructured to achieve greater professional relevance and to respond to changing economic, institutional and public policy contexts.

## **Background**

In Australia responsibility for public school systems, accreditation of private schools, and curriculum development remains exclusively with the various states and

territories. This situation has changed to some degree in recent years as a consequence of Federal Government initiatives which encouraged the states and territories to work collaboratively on national curriculum development. Curriculum frameworks, in the form of 'statements and profiles', are now available in eight areas of learning in secondary schools and six in primary. One of these areas of learning, entitled 'Studies of Society and Environment', integrates a number of social science disciplines and includes, inter alia, studies of the history, geography, economics, social institutions of Australia and its place in the world, as well as environmental and cultural issues.

The development of 'National Statements and Profiles' in Australia reflects the formulation of the national curriculum projects in the United Kingdom and National Curriculum Standards Frameworks in the United States. The advent of the National Statements and Profiles follows a period of curriculum change already under way in many states (Metherell, 1989), with their major purposes being to influence the inclusion of specified concepts, content and learning processes in curricula developed by state authorities, to induce an element of uniformity and accountability, and to include an emphasis on work related knowledge and skills. They are less prescriptive than the UK national curriculum, and their collaborative development with the states but somewhat tentative implementation reflects both the centralised national economic power and divided political authority of Australia's federal system of government.

Forces impacting on teacher educators in universities in Australia have tended to parallel those impacting upon schools (Reynolds & Green, 1995:29). Public funding has been reduced at the same time as calls are made for 'increased productivity', measured largely by teaching greater numbers of students with fewer teachers. Emphasis has been placed on teaching to develop work related 'competencies' in academic as well as vocational courses, 'teacher quality' and 'accountability' policies and mechanisms have been introduced into schools and universities, and the provisions of the 'National Competencies Framework for the Beginning Teacher' (Australian Teaching Council, 1996) is relevant to both systems. A greater range of subjects, particularly in the social sciences, has been introduced into schools to meet 'consumer demand' and to provide for greater competition between schools. Universities have been striving to meet competition between tertiary institutions by 'differentiating their product' and attempting to meet more closely the needs of their 'clients'.

It is against this background that Australian universities are responding to the pressures placed on teacher education in a variety of ways. Some have lengthened Graduate Diploma in Education studies from one to two years, while others have introduced double degree undergraduate programs which combine Bachelor of Education with discipline based first degrees. The University of New South Wales has closed its school of education (Garcia, 1996).

### **Developing a New Structure**

Restructuring of the secondary social science curriculum courses in the Graduate Diploma in Education at UNE required several economic and educational imperatives to be considered. Economic considerations within the University included institutional financial difficulties, forcing elimination of duplication in course content and consolidation of smaller classes to achieve economies of scale. Other factors

included the employment driven need for students to complete a wider range of social science 'method' courses, and the need to enable both full time internal and part time distance education students to complete their professional qualification at reduced cost to them. Educational considerations centred around the need to identify and rationalise common aspects of pedagogy previously treated in separate curriculum courses, while at the same time enabling appropriate emphasis on elements unique or important to teaching particular subject disciplines in secondary schools. There was also the need to ensure that student centred investigative learning approaches required by the National Statements and Profiles and by curriculum policy documents in various states were emphasised.

It was decided to break existing year long curriculum courses into a consolidated course in the first semester for students in all social science education specialities, followed later by discrete courses in history, geography, economics/commerce/business studies and interdisciplinary social science curriculum. The first semester course, the focus of this paper, emerged from the revision process as SS 950 Secondary Education: Society and Environment Curriculum.

Table 1 shows the current structure of the secondary Graduate Diploma in Education program, with one third of required credit points devoted to curriculum studies courses. Students undertaking secondary social science curriculum courses begin with SS 950 and follow with two selected discipline based curriculum courses. A third discipline based curriculum course can be taken instead of an elective.

**TABLE 1 - FULL TIME STUDENTS\***  
**Enrolment Pattern for Students Undertaking**  
**Secondary Graduate Diploma in Education Program**

1st Semester	Full Year	2nd Semester
	ELDC 404 The Social Context of Schooling (6 pts) ELDC 403 Introduction to Learning and Teaching (6 pts)	ELDC 320 - Educating Students with Special Needs in the Regular Classroom (4 pts)
	Two Elective Courses (16 pts) Two Curriculum Courses (16 pts)	
Ed 909 Practice Teaching: 1 week	3 weeks	4 weeks
*Distance education students complete the same courses spread over two years		

### Planning the Course

The process of deciding the most appropriate content and methodology for the consolidated course, SS 950, proved to be an interesting challenge. While the restructuring was predicated on the assumption of common content and methodology in previously existing separate 'method' courses, the detailed selection of areas



to be included called for an unusual degree of professional openness. With the course to be taught across one semester and students in that time needing to be prepared for an early period of practice teaching, the decision to include some areas of content and not others was not an easy one.

It was recognised that experienced teachers have a vested interest and belief in the components of the courses they teach, so there was the potential for the egos of team members to be dented if aspects they normally taught were not included. It was believed also that teaching and learning methodologies proposed by the team needed to exemplify those being advocated in the course. Having to justify their favoured approaches inevitably caused lecturers to question their own long held beliefs and practices. In this way the process of restructuring became a serendipitous professional development course, unconsciously modelling in advance the task of becoming familiar with a range of subjects and techniques which would be required of students.

Table 2 summarises the content of SS 950, which has been developed as a resource book and study guide for distance education students. Consultations, including a formal meeting, were held with senior social science teachers from local state and private secondary schools as the course was developed, and the continuation of close ties with local schools was endorsed by participants as mutually beneficial.

### The Residential School

SS 950 was developed for implementation both through direct teaching to internal students and by distance education techniques to external students. The course was introduced to 61 external students through a four day residential school in the first semester (February to June) 1996, and implemented subsequently with 38 internal students. A particularly important feature at UNE is the traditional requirement of a compulsory residential school in most distance education courses (Smith, 1979: 1-2) to ensure comparability of standards between internal and external students.. This requirement has proved expensive and time consuming for students with heavy personal and professional commitments, some of whom travel up to two thousand kilometres to attend residential schools.

<b>TABLE 2 - SUMMARY OF SS 950</b> <b>Secondary Education: Society and Environment Curriculum</b>	
<b>1. Introduction</b>	Welcome, Objectives, Administration of Course
<b>2. Assignments</b>	No.1 Essay on Curriculum Policy(1200 words) 40% No.2 Planning a Teaching/Learning Sequence 60%
<b>3. Society and Environment</b>	National and State Profiles, Process Related Learning
<b>4. The Syllabuses</b>	Structures, Objectives and Outcomes, Knowledge and Understandings, Skills, Values, Student Assessment
<b>5. Some Practicalities</b>	Course Approach, Programming, Lesson Planning, Practice Teaching, Traditional Lesson Types

6. Inquiry Learning	Process and Product in Learning, Kinds of Knowledge: facts, concepts and generalisations, Thinking Processes, Research Skills, Social Skills, Affective Processes
7. Cognitive Inquiry Sequences	The Inquiry Model Used in This Course (Initiate, Gather Information, Analyse and Organise Information, Synthesise and Conclude, Apply - IGASA), Learning Activities, Teacher Questioning, Lower and Higher Order Questioning
8. Cognitive Inquiry Learning Units	Situation Analysis, Focus and Contributing Questions, Outcomes (Concepts, Generalisations, Thinking Processes, Research Skills, Social Skills, Values), Content Samples, Resources, Learning Experiences, Evaluation
9. Values Education	Characteristics of Values, Approaches to Values Education (Inculcation, Values Analysis, Moral Development/Reasoning, Values Clarification, Action Learning)
10. Problem Solving Units	Stages in a Problem Solving Sequence, The Role of the Teacher, Controversial Issues, Citizenship Education, Professional Considerations
11. Assessment and Evaluation	Views on Assessment and Evaluation, The Focus of Evaluation, Types of Evaluation, Outcomes and Evaluation, Public Examinations

### Evaluating the Changes

Two opportunities were used to evaluate students' responses to SS 950, the compulsory course which was the major innovation in the restructuring. The first was during the residential school when a short questionnaire containing a five point satisfaction scale for a range of variables was completed, with comments, for each course included in the school. The second was at the end of the first semester when a similar kind of evaluation was administered independently by the University's Academic Development Unit to both internal and distance education students.

The profile of the distance education students who were respondents to the evaluations varied considerably from that of the full time internal students. There were, however, noticeably similar trends in their evaluation responses at the end of the semester.

Seventy-three percent of distance education students lived in New South Wales, 13% came from Queensland, with the remainder from Victoria, South Australia, Tasmania and the Australian Capital Territory. There was a majority of women (58%) and the age distribution of the group was bimodal, with a younger section being relatively recent graduates in their late 20's, and a larger group in their

late 30's. Many were making major career changes to teaching from a diverse range of previously established occupations. A significant number indicated their occupation as home duties, and just under a fifth were currently teaching, mostly in private schools.

The internal students had mainly graduated with social science discipline specialities within a Bachelor of Arts degree at UNE in the previous academic year. Their average age was 23 years, the majority were women (56%), and they came from regions spread throughout New South Wales.

Evaluation of SS 950 at the end of the residential school indicated high levels of satisfaction (72% of responses), with only 8.5% of responses indicating low levels of satisfaction. There was a high level of satisfaction (80%) with sessions on inquiry learning, which was a pivotal aspect of methodology for this course. Many comments were very complimentary and confirmed the statistical responses. They reflected considerable appreciation for the professionalism of the teaching team. Critical comments were mostly constructive and suggested better time management, use of additional practical teaching examples and further clarification of assignments.

Generally high levels of satisfaction, ranging from 64% to 95%, were expressed also for the sessions related to discipline based curriculum courses included in the residential school. Sessions which emphasised practical aspects of teaching, including links with inquiry learning methodology covered in SS 950, were rated highly, as were activities which stimulated new ideas and raised awareness of alternative approaches. Sessions on teaching about controversial issues were especially well appreciated, as were those on assessment and evaluation and selection of resources. Critical comments were made about time management in some sessions, but overall very appreciative comments were made about assistance given by staff.

In the evaluation involving both distance education and internal students, undertaken at the end of the course, both groups rated strongly the clarity of the objectives of the course, its organisation, positive interaction with staff, and fairness of assessment; with high ratings of satisfaction with these aspects ranging from 55% to 75%. They also rated highly the degree to which the content of the course integrated with their overall study programs in the Graduate Diploma in Education, ranging from 55% high satisfaction for internal students to 90% for distance education students. 54% of internal students and 82% of distance education students also rated highly the overall clarity and coherence of the course content. Comments from both groups reflected positively on the professionalism of staff, and expressed appreciation for the opportunity to work in groups with backgrounds in different social science disciplines. Practical workshops which linked course content to classroom practice received most supportive comment.

## **Conclusion**

The restructuring described above was undertaken for several academic, professional and contextual reasons. Initial implementation of the new course, supported by student evaluation, encourages the view that many of the intentions held during planning and development are well on the way to being achieved. In providing a consolidated course for all secondary social science students based upon inquiry learning processes a sound foundation has been provided for subsequent discipline based curriculum courses. At the same time students have been provided with a wider

selection of such courses and opportunity to develop the flexibility required to teach more effectively in the expanding secondary school social science curriculum. Logistical changes have achieved economies for the University and for participating students, a valuable avenue of professional development has been opened for staff, and opportunity to forge closer professional links with schools has been provided.

While challenges remain, particularly in the area of increasing the effectiveness of translating the educative approach followed in the new course to practical application in the classroom, it can be fairly claimed that actual and potential effects which are clearly beneficial can be identified for the teacher education students involved, for schools, for academic staff and for the University.

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Ludwig Ganske

*This paper is an attempt to find out about the current status of lo tech (as opposed to hi tech) media in Alberta schools. The terms and definitions take a North American perspective. Instruction in lo tech media has been largely removed from post-secondary teacher training institutions. The lo tech departments or agencies which have survived have either been completely reconfigured to deal exclusively with hi tech (microcomputer) instruction or new departments have been defined to address the new communication technologies. The survey discussed in this paper was developed to find out about teachers' perceptions in the schools about lo tech media - the old media: to see if these media were still being used and, if so, how much they were used. These perceptions should provide a basis for a more moderate approach to the diffusion of newer technologies than that apparently being taken by teacher training institutions in their desire to effectively serve teachers in the public schools.*

In the bulk of this paper I will report the highlights of an original survey (Technology in Alberta Schools) sent to Alberta schools which attempted to assess the perceptions of educators about what was happening with respect to the two technologies - lo technology and hi technology. Hi technology was addressed in a limited way for purposes of comparison in an attempt to find out what was happening to lo technologies as a direct result of the infusion of hi tech. A previous government survey specifically addressed the status of hi technology in Alberta schools. In addition, I am attempting to present a context for the survey along with a brief literature review of studies related to the topic and to draw some implications from the data collected.

## **Technologies**

For my purposes I will refer to educational media as the all encompassing name which embraces both of the technologies under its umbrella. Technology is a "generic term for the wide variety of tools and techniques that humans devise for transforming the world, although it has come to be associated exclusively with the mechanical, chemical and electronic inventions of the early industrialized countries" (McGinn, 1988, p iii). Lo technology consists of all those resources which are used by a teacher to help children learn: models; dramatized experiences; demonstrations, field trips; exhibits and displays; television, film; overhead transparencies, slides & filmstrips; audiotape recordings; and the chalkboard. Hi technology consists largely of microcomputer augmented instruction and the accessories which support the microcomputer. Educational media specialists have always devoted a sizable portion of their energies to defining the field, especially during the late 1960's and during the 1970's. I mention this now because much of what is happening with the introduction of microcomputers in the schools has happened before with earlier technologies especially with film, programmed instruction, and with television. All of these lo tech media were purported as establishing new realms of realism, as offering learners opportunity which was unavailable anywhere else, and as the great integrators able to incorporate many earlier media forms where necessary.

## Context and Literature Review

The question specifically addressed here pertains to the perceived value of the lo technologies in the current educational system. Micro-computers hit the educational scene in the late seventies. Their impact was minimal until the early eighties. I have used 1982 as the pivotal year to divide the pre-computer period from the post-computer period. Let me describe an ERIC search of the lo tech literature. In the period of 1966-1981, I had 145 hits of reviews of educational research for educational media. A large number of these hits did pertain to lo technology research. In 1982-1991 there were 38 hits. Of these 38 hits all but two were about hi technology studies and only two were related to lo technology in combination with hi technology. There appears to be an abandonment of the lo technology forum lending support to my earlier assertion about the place of lo technology in post secondary teacher training institutions.

The survey called for a spokesperson (normally the principal) at the school to assess the school's use of the old and to a much lesser extent the new technologies. The matter of choosing a spokesperson from a school was addressed by a national study (National Survey and Assessment of Instructional Materials - NSAIM) conducted in 1974. Their recommendation was to ask principals or school librarians about matters pertaining to the use of materials and resources in the school. In the letter accompanying the survey the principal was asked to complete the form or to pass it on to the person who would best be able to answer the questions. This particular survey followed an Alberta government survey: *Microcomputers in Alberta Schools - 1993 Survey* and was designed in a similar format to ask questions about the status and use of older forms of technology in a parallel manner to the survey on Microcomputers.

The Japan Audio-Visual Education Association conducts surveys at three-year intervals to assess the state of audiovisual education facilities in Japanese schools with their latest report released in 1992 (Japan Audio-Visual Education Association, 1993). The Japan Audio Visual Association survey is one of the only efforts that is currently made to regularly assess the state of health of audiovisual education that appears in the literature. The actual results of this very comprehensive (all schools in Japan) survey are less important than the presence of a systematic effort to determine what is happening to older technologies with the adoption of microcomputer technologies by the public schools. The Japanese report does include both hi tech and lo tech hardware and use.

Seidman (1986) drew two main conclusions from his survey of Fort Worth classroom teachers: teachers, as a whole seldom use media; and the simpler the medium is to use the more likely it will be used. Similarly, Carter and Wedman (1984) reported that teachers were more likely to use media if they were easy and inexpensive to produce. Carter and Wedman's survey was targeted more to the production of materials for classroom teaching and Seidman's was predominantly interested in the use of commercially available resources. Aside from these surveys there has been almost no activity on the lo tech side of educational media since 1985. This observation makes it especially important to gather some information about the current picture with respect to lo technology.

### The Survey

Alberta has 1664 public and separate schools as part of its public funded

educational system. The Technology in Alberta Schools survey was mailed to 500 randomly selected schools in the province with the proportion of elementary, junior high, and high school mailings matching the proportion in the universe of Alberta schools. Returns were received from 203 schools making an approximate return rate of 40%. Since the results were similar at each of the three levels of schools they were collapsed in the data analysis so this report will consider cumulative totals from all 203 schools. The survey was completed in April, 1995 and the analysis started in late June, 1995.

The Survey was divided into five parts. The first part gathered demographic information - school name, size, category (Grades K-3; Grades 7-9; and Grades 9-12) as well as information about the person answering the questions. Part two addressed the school's inventory of audiovisual hardware along with expectations of adding new inventory over the next academic year. Part two also set out to determine the main locations of audiovisual equipment - centralized in an AV Room or Divisional Office or decentralized to classrooms. Part three attempted to find out about media use patterns including frequency of use, and perceived change in use of the media in the last two years. Part four attempted to draw some comparisons between hi tech and lo tech use by asking questions which either required the principals to comment on the possible effects of the new technologies on the older ones or to ask if technology use was "increasing", "holding steady", or "decreasing". Part five asked questions about the anticipated needs associated with lo tech and hi tech media in terms of professional development. All questions in the survey were designed to be as objective as possible having respondents check off a box or rank order a set of statements. An opportunity to comment was included for each section to allow clarification or qualification of the forced choices in the instrument. Basically, three main generalizations emerge from the data:

1. Teachers perceive Lo tech media to be in a state of declining use.
2. Lo tech media are still used as teaching resources on a regular basis by large numbers of teachers, i.e., they coexist with hi tech media resources.
3. The influx of hi tech media has had only a limited effect on the use of lo tech media by the schools.

Even though the educational literature and the actions in teacher training institutions might lead the reader to conclude that lo tech media are no longer used in any significant way by teachers this survey indicates that the old media are alive and well and quite regularly used in the schools which returned the survey. This is an important result in that the old media are still viable resources in the teaching and learning of the schools yet their development, refinement and communication about them has all but ceased in the literature and in teacher training institutions.

### **Declining Use**

For the lo tech media of slides, filmstrips, films, and opaque projectors the principals felt that they were in a steady state of decline. However, there were still a sizable number of principals (8.9%) who felt these media were in steady state growth rather than decline. Seventy percent of people polled felt that the use of slides was declining over what it was two years ago. Similarly 68%, 65%, and 55% felt that

filmstrips, films and the use of opaque projection was also down. About 33% of people polled felt that these same media were holding steady in terms of use while less than 10% felt that their use was increasing.

Overhead transparencies and audiotapes do not fit into the same pattern as the other conventional media described earlier. Instead they are perceived as being more robust to tech media, especially overhead transparencies. For these media approximately 70% of schools saw their use as holding steady over what it was two years ago. Compact disks, which are considered to be a part of the hi tech family in this paper, show a completely different profile with 65% of people polled considering their use to be on the increase. Video media enjoy a relatively comfortable place in the school according to principals' replies. There appears to be a shift in role for the use of video in learning. Video production is gaining in popularity over what it was two years ago although large numbers of schools do not have adequate video equipment for in-school video productions. Of course the use of video programs remains popular. About 80% of people consider the use of prepared videotapes in instruction to be on the increase.

### **The Old Media are Still Regularly Used by Teachers Who Use Media**

Both lo tech and hi tech media are still used on a regular basis in the Alberta classrooms which were part of this survey. About half of the schools reporting have 75% of their staff (or more) using audiovisual technology one or more times per week. This was the highest use category included in the survey. The use of computer technology in instruction was nearly identical to the use of audiovisual technology. The major difference between these technologies is that the use of computer technologies is perceived to be on the increase while use of audiovisual technologies is on the decline.

### **The Influx of the Hi Tech Media Have had a Limited Effect on Lo Tech Media**

About 70% of the people polled felt that the introduction of computer technologies into Alberta schools had no effect on lo tech media. Descriptive comments also provided support to the idea that the two technologies are viewed quite separately in Alberta schools - they are seen as relatively independent from one another.

### **Implications and Comments**

The survey generated a great deal of information in terms of inventories of audiovisual equipment and use patterns but the three findings above come closest to answering the question I was asking with respect to the public schools, "What has happened to the old media particularly with respect to the influx of computer driven media?" The third finding I present with more hesitation than the first two partly because it is much less strongly supported by the data than the other two findings and partly because it was an unexpected finding. I am surprised that teachers see the two technologies as distinctly separate ones.

I cannot examine the issues rising out of these technologies without looking at it from the context of my own experience as a lo tech media specialist for more than twenty-five years. I contend that the university environment tends to discount the



value of research which has occurred with respect to lo tech media. In the first phase of audiovisual education the field was mainly concerned with defining facilitating and unique characteristics of the media. Edgar Dale described his Cone of Experience which examined the media from the standpoint of abstractness and further he suggested that the media could contribute in a very meaningful way to the quality of the educational experience of the learner - the media were suffused with suggestiveness. They made contributions not possible to be made in other ways.

The second phase was to provide solid research evidence for the value of media. Research during the sixties and early seventies concentrated on comparison studies: the use of media compared to "traditional instruction". This phase, which generated contradictory results and many NSD findings, was replaced by studies with a more specific focus referred to as aptitude - treatment-interaction studies which sought to identify differential results from individual learner types. The literature which is being produced with respect to computer augmented learning parallels that of the literature in the early stages of audiovisual instruction - the emphasis is on defining viable and logical roles for computerized instruction and on comparison studies (Ryan, 1991; Wang, 1993; Snowman, 1995). Admittedly, this parallelism does not constitute an argument for parallel development. Taken together with the abandonment phenomenon described earlier, however, it does suggest that much of what has been learned from the older technologies is being ignored and the concept of a transition which would emerge from an evolutionary changeover from old to new technology becomes much less likely.

So my conclusions are these: The old media are not dead. They are still used and quite regularly used in school especially by those teachers who use media routinely in instruction. They are, however, in declining use as equipment wears out and is not replaced and as procedures are simplified (making transparencies) by computerized technology. There are large collections of lo tech resources (picture files, games, tapes, filmstrips, videos, etc.) which are available in local schools. These resources should be used in conjunction with hi tech representation. Graphics and audio hi tech media are still too expensive for the average school, in my opinion, except in exploratory and experimental ways.

We need to encourage a "true transition" from old to new and from my point of view this is not happening at the university level and in large measure what happens in the universities is followed by the schools. A "true transition" would involve activity in the middle zone between the two technologies: overhead transparencies prepared by software but printed for use on overhead projectors; the use of analog video footage to be incorporated into desktop video programs or used as standalone footage in conjunction with presentation programs, etc. This kind of approach would respect the visual and auditory resources available in older media formats and use them for integration or in conjunction with computer resources. A true transition recognizes technology as a family with respect for the contributions of members regardless of their age.

Finally, I do not feel that the hi tech movement is learning from the lo tech collective memory and in my opinion many of the mistakes made with earlier technologies could be either avoided or moderated if hi tech specialists would seriously consider their heritage in the development of the technology. Of course, to address the way that old technologies can inform newer ones is itself another paper but there are

fargely three reasons that the older technologies were less successful in improving the quality of teaching and learning than was their promise. These three conditions are related to one another. Teachers need to be able to have easy and ready access to available resources, the resources once located need to be inexpensive so they can be used at a local school level, and the resources will be most effectively used if there are suggestions or plans for their integration into the curriculum. The old media were not able to address these concerns well and the newer media have the potential to address at least some of them.

A hi tech response to these concerns will be most effective, in my opinion, if it builds on what has already been learned from attempts to use educational media in teaching/learning. If you know what the problems are you are already well on the way to discovering the solution but if you have yet to realize the problem then you are unlikely to address it in a meaningful way and that is missing the essence of what technology is all about.

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## RELATING THE UNIVERSITY CURRICULUM TO DEVELOPMENT ACTIVITIES IN AFRICAN RURAL COMMUNITIES

Leke Tambo

*This paper addresses the problem of relating university curricula in Sub-Saharan African countries to development concerns in rural communities. This issue is important because, although African leaders have continued to emphasize the need for universities to become directly involved in rural development efforts, curricular strategies for enabling universities to respond to that need have hardly been developed in many of these institutions.*

*I begin the paper with a discussion of development, a term which has been much misused and even abused within the context of the search for ways and means to improve the economic and social well-being of formerly colonized peoples in different parts of the World. On the basis of this discussion, I define rural development and identify the project/program method as a suitable approach for relating university teaching, learning and research to rural development concerns. This strategy suggests the achievement by African universities of at least five tasks: (a) identification of rural development activities; (b) relating rural development activities to the major university functions of teaching, research and community service; building university community partnerships; (d) promoting student and faculty participation; and (e) ensuring effective evaluation of student and faculty participation in rural development activities.*

University institutions flourished in some parts of Africa in pre-colonial times. The cases often cited in this respect are Al Azar University of Cairo, founded in the 10th century; Kairouine University in Fez; and Sankore University of 16th century Timbuctoo. The traditions of these ancient academic institutions do not, however, appear to have significantly influenced contemporary university systems in Sub-Saharan Africa, which are predominantly European in style. According to Van den Berghe (1973) the first of these universities, Fourabah College in Sierra Leone, was established in 1827 as a theological seminary. For most of Sub-Saharan Africa, it was not until after the Second World War that universities began to be created.

As the end of the War signaled the beginning of the overthrow of colonialism, universities were conceived by African nationalists as agents of political, economic and socio-cultural liberation. African governments and people have continued to stress the need for African universities to abandon the traditional European ivory tower image of the University and become concretely involved in the nation building and reconstruction effort. As the 1972 Accra Workshop organized by the Association of African Universities (AAU) put it:

*the truly African university must be one that draws its inspiration from its environment, not a transplanted tree... It must be accountable to, and serve, the vast majority of the people who live in the rural areas. The African University must be committed to active participation in social transformation. (AAU, 1973, pp.40-42)*

Van den Bergh (1973) stresses this line of thinking by pointing out that the nature of the University is incomprehensible without constant reference to the larger society. According to him, a university should not be an additional instrument whereby a ruling class maintains itself in power, nor a nurturing ground for a new privileged elite (p.9).

In the 1980's and 1990's, the need for universities in Africa to participate in societal improvement has continued to be a major concern of conferences and individuals. The Professors' World Peace Academy (PAPA), for instance, held a seminar in Lusaka, Zambia in 1984 under the theme "The University and the Challenge of Rural Development in the 1980's and Beyond." Writing in 1994, Tarpel posed the question: "Are universities key players in the search for solutions to our economic and social problems or have they taken a detached position?" (p.4).

However, the many statements and declarations about the necessity for African universities to participate in the development effort, particularly in the rural areas, have hardly been matched with curricular proposals or strategies to address this important educational goal. I intend to explore that concern in this paper. First, I shall discuss the concept of development and, within that context, define rural development. Then, I shall identify key development concerns in African rural communities and identify some approaches that are used in rural development. The paper will end with a discussion of strategies for relating teaching and learning at the university to rural development activities.

### **Concept of Development**

The term "development" has been used to describe different kinds of activities and policies in Third World countries; but there is no consensus about its meaning. As Mathews (1984, p.73) points out, "the meaning of 'development' is heavily laden with political and ideological considerations and biases."

Many writers and development planners, when they discuss development, tend to focus on its quantitative aspects, generally called 'economic growth.' The emphasis is on 'indicators' such as the gross national product of a country or its per capita income. The higher a country scores on these measures the more developed it is considered to be. Little or no attention is paid to the distribution of the wealth so described. The slogan "growth first, justice in the distribution of benefits later" is often promoted.

Other writers have taken the view that development is the effort to modernize or "catch up" with the Western industrial countries one view, for example, considers the process of development to be the total transformation of a traditional or pre modern society into the types of technology and associated organization that characterize the advanced, economically prosperous and relatively politically stable nations of the Western World.

As African countries have prepared and implemented development plans based on the concept of development as economic growth or as modernization, many have become frustrated by their failure to make an anticipated "catch up." Not only has the gulf between the rich and the poor countries widened, the gap between the rich and the poor, and the urban and the rural, in the poor countries has continued to

grow. This experience of African countries would support Matthews' (1984) argument that the sense of inferiority and of subordination of "developing" nations vis a vis "developed" nations is reinforced when development planning is seen as a process of catching up. Yesufu (1973) provides a broader view of the concept by pointing out that the term "development" sums up in one word the challenges posed by the problems of poverty, and of the need for social rebirth, cultural rediscovery and political identity, which confront African countries individually and collectively

The development effort, therefore, should involve much more than economic growth and modernization. As one World Bank study (1988) points out, measuring development in terms of access to basic health services, education and food, is more satisfactory than using most other available yardsticks for national success.

Mathews (1984) points out that development should lead to a decline in poverty, unemployment and inequality at all levels of society. The measurement of the development effort of a nation should, he argues, always be determined in terms of visible improvements in the quality of life of the people, increased desire towards self reliance, increased economically useful skill, increased creativity, self discipline and responsibility.

According to MacPherson (1985) development efforts must be linked to social concerns such as poverty, unemployment, inequality, education and social participation. I subscribe to this view of development because it implies a situation where poverty, unemployment and inequality are less acute; where there is more active and genuine participation of the people in the political process; and where increasing numbers of people have access to education. In short the development effort of a government, community or institution should not simply promote material growth and the modernization of living styles within a selected group or sector; it should, more importantly, ensure individual and collective well being in the economic, social, cultural and political spheres. This is a view that should inspire African universities as they develop programmes to support development efforts in rural communities.

## Rural Development

In the context of the fore-going discussion, rural development can be defined as a strategy to enable the poorest among those who seek a livelihood in the rural areas to demand and control more of the benefits of development (Chambers, 1987,). Harriss (1982) emphasizes that rural development is defined by its concern with equity objectives of various kinds. Among these objectives, he points out, are reduction of inequalities in income and employment, increase in access to public goods and services, and the alleviation of poverty.

Although this conceptualization of rural development implies significant outside intervention, especially that of the state and third parties, nothing in it suggests that initiative for rural development should not start with the people themselves. Lessons of decades of bureaucratic community development work in colonial and post colonial Africa point to the futility of imposing programmes from above on the people and suggest that the improvement of life in the rural community requires genuine collaboration between outsiders and the people themselves. According to Taylor the main concern in doing so, however, must be: "how to create conditions which allow rural peoples to improve their own lot without losing control

of their own initiatives and institutions." In order not to romanticize the view that initiative for rural development action should come from within, one must, he argues, ask whether these initiatives are strategic enough to bring about sustainable development or are merely survival strategies to cope with, rather than change, the oppressive environment (Taylor, p.224).

## **Approaches to Rural Development**

Different approaches can be used by different agents, institutions and individuals to promote development in rural communities. These include the formulation of price policies for both domestic and imported goods to guarantee good prices for rural products, thereby reducing inequalities between rural and urban incomes; and the formulation and enforcement of laws which ensure equal access by all, within the rural community, to the natural resources of land, water, and forest. These two strategies fall mainly within the competence of the state.

In addition to the state there are other agencies which, though less powerful, play an important role in the development process. These include churches, schools and universities, industry and community groups. Such organizations typically intervene in the development effort through specific projects or programs. In the project/program approach, a community in collaboration with an outside agent, institution or group undertakes specific programs or activities for the purpose of ameliorating its quality of life.

Two main methods of the project/program approach can be identified in the literature. One of these is labelled the spread-and-take-up. One can describe this as being center to periphery in nature because, according to (Chambers, 1987,p.149) "the imagery is that of a service being pushed out from the centre and taken up by people further and further into the periphery." In many rural communities, projects such as schools, health centres, roads and libraries have been established following this model. This approach tends to favour people at the center since it is only later, and by pushing hard, that those in the periphery can have adequate access to the service.

A second method of the project/program approach starts from the other end and can be described as periphery-to-center. Such programs are typically targeted at the poorest of the poor or the remotest of the remote areas within a community. They are planned to ensure that the most disadvantaged individuals or groups experience the impact of the project first. The model is based on the strategy of reversals. The strategy requires that the culture and processes which promote and maintains the deprivation of the poor and powerless should be halted and turned back (Chambers, 1987).

As it would be expected, periphery-to-center programs are not common in practice. They represent a bottom-up approach which tends to be resisted by the more powerful and privileged individuals and groups. However, though the approach may be difficult to implement, it points to a direction through which significant change can be effected in rural communities.

## **Development Concerns in African Rural Communities**

The definitions of development and rural development proposed in the fore-

going section identified key areas of concern in rural development. These include: education, health, poverty, unemployment, inequality, environment, culture, and related concerns.

Many studies, among which are those cited in the reference section of this paper, have identified development activities currently going on in each of these areas. Such development activities may be regarded as objectives or goals of rural development which should, be an essential component of university curricula. In the following section, I shall identify some of these activities and then discuss strategies for integrating them into the teaching learning process at the university.

### **Relating University Teaching and Learning to Rural Development Activities**

Relating university teaching and learning to rural development activities requires the putting in place of a curriculum development strategy that can relate rural development activities to the main functions of the university. No one strategy can be recommended as the best, since universities differ from each other in many respects: status, origin, philosophy, resources, relations with their environment or society, student and faculty composition, and so on. The strategy that is proposed in this paper involves five tasks: (1) identifying rural development activities, (2) relating rural development activities to university functions, (3) building university-community partnership, (4) promoting student-faculty participation, (5) evaluating student-faculty participation.

### **Identifying Rural Development Activities**

The process of identifying development activities involves some observation and survey by university faculty and students. Initially, it is important to identify only activities in which the community is actively involved so as to avoid the mistake of imposing projects on the people. Moreover, community people would more readily cooperate if university people are focusing on activities that are already of interest to the community. Later on, when trust has been established, no harm may be done if university people initiate specific projects after consultation with the people.

Rural development concerns such as those mentioned above may serve as a guide to developing the survey and observation instruments. A review of selected literature as the one indicated in the reference section of this paper would, however, reveal that development activities in many African rural communities are likely to revolve around the following concerns:

- Literacy programmes
- Primary health care and family planning
- Recreation and touristic facilities
- Food and nutrition
- Home management
- Small enterprise management
- Group action in areas such as cooperatives, savings and credit, libraries and school buildings.
- Pest/animal control and public hygiene
- Soil conservation
- Water conservation

- Forest conservation and agro forestry
- Conservation of wild life
- Food preservation
- Irrigation
- Animal husbandry
- Crop husbandry
- Local history
- Folklore
- Development of labour saving devices for agriculture and local industries
- Developing sources of energy

### **Relating Rural Development Activities to University Functions**

The Association of African Universities, in their Accra Workshop of 1972, outlined the role of the emerging African University as follows: (1) promotion and dissemination of knowledge, (2) research, (3) provision of intellectual leadership, (4) manpower development, (5) promoting social and economic modernization, (6) promoting inter continental unity and international understanding (AAU, 1973, pp.42-44). For the purpose of this paper, however, I shall compress this role into the three functions generally expected of universities: teaching, research and community service.

To relate these three functions to rural development activities such as those outlined above, the question to be asked by a working group might be: How can university teaching, research and community service in the faculties, departments and disciplines be organized to promote these activities in the rural communities. The following heuristic device would summarize this thinking.

<b>University Function</b>	<b>Rural Development Activity</b>
Teaching Research Community Service	Soil conservation
Primary health care	Adult literacy
Food and nutrition	Small enterprise management
Etc,	Etc

### **Building University-Community Partnership**

One of the lessons that have been learned in the last decades or so about rural development in Africa (as elsewhere) is that projects initiated by outsiders and imposed on rural communities would fail (Harrison, 1987). Harrison (1987) adds to this contention the observation that community participation is the key ingredient in the success of rural development projects. The point to be made here with respect to university participation in rural development is that the university should not get involved unilaterally in a rural community. University involvement should come through partnership in which the parties agree to share responsibilities and support each other.

In a viable partnership, there is a two-way exchange of knowledge and



resources. Partners play different but complementary roles and they believe that each can make an important contribution to the project. Effective partnerships, however, tend to grow through stages. Loucks-Horsley & Harding (1987) report a study by Zacchei & Mirman in which three stages or kinds of partnerships are described: those based on support for each partner, those based on cooperation between partners, and those based on collaboration.

Partnerships based on support for each partner often involve single, short term activities requiring casual commitment by the partners. Those based on cooperation involve broader activities requiring a longer duration to complete and greater degrees of involvement and commitment of the partners. Collaboration marks the highest level of partnership. At this level, the relationship between or among partners is fairly symbiotic: partners operate as equals, they are no longer just representatives of their individual organizations; they create working units or groups that function across their various organizations, thereby blurring the boundaries that define these organizations; and they are committed to long term projects and activities.

Community partners would most likely be individuals, groups or organizations that are already involved in one or more of the development activities that university faculty or students are interested in pursuing. These could be church groups, community associations, clubs, non governmental organizations, schools, researchers, and government agencies. University people can establish different levels of partnership with them through informal and formal contact.

### **Promoting Student and Faculty Participation**

In order to motivate students and faculty members to relate their learning, teaching and research activities to rural development concerns, African universities would need to address a number of issues at the university, faculty/school, and department levels.

At the university level, clear statements of policy requiring the university to support development activities in the rural areas of the country need to be formulated and adopted by the university governing body. In many cases this body would be the university senate or council. Such policy statements should be reproduced in brochures, catalogues and other official publications of the university.

The highest authorities of the university should give these policy statements active support by emphasizing them in formal and informal gatherings within the university community. Administrative support for university participation in rural development must not end at the verbal level; it should be made concrete through provision of resources to facilitate the work of faculty and students, and incentives to sustain their effort. For example, faculty members who go to the rural areas for their sabbatical should be adequately recognized and given the same financial resources as those who go to other universities and institutions.

At the faculty or school level, logistics and infrastructure should be developed and put in place to ensure implementation of university policy regarding rural development. Issues such as degree programmes, administrative structures, and staffing should be addressed. It would seem for, example, that setting up a separate department for rural development may not be as attractive to students and faculty

members as integrating rural development objectives in their various programmes, or establishing a centre for rural development. The point here is that a department of rural development could easily be perceived by some academics as inferior to, say, a department of engineering and would not attract the best faculty and students; whereas many rural development activities (for example, soil, forest and water conservation) could be integrated in the learning, teaching and research activities of the students and faculty of a department of engineering.

At the department level, specific objectives and projects for student and faculty members should be developed. It is at the departmental level of the various faculties and schools of the university that concrete action and activities in support of rural development can be developed and implemented. This may involve the identification of specific research topics for students and faculty members, decisions about rural development related subject matter to be included in classroom lectures; field trip and laboratory work; formalities, procedures and structures for partnership with rural communities; and certification, diploma or degree requirements.

### **Evaluating Student and Faculty Participation**

Universities, like many knowledge production institutions, have developed elaborate systems for evaluating students and faculty members. For the students, evaluation focuses on classroom tests, semester and end of course examinations, and grading of projects, theses and dissertations. These processes lead to the award or non award of certificates, diplomas and degrees. For faculty members, evaluation focuses most often on their teaching, and research activities. Those who receive positive evaluations are promoted to higher ranks or appointed to higher positions within the academy or elsewhere. Those receiving negative evaluations are denied these privileges.

It would seem clear, therefore, that unless student and faculty work related to rural improvement is integrated into their respective evaluation systems, the university should not expect students and faculty to take this work seriously. For example, cases have been cited in many African universities in which faculty members were not promoted because they carried out research in the local community and published it in a local, rather than in an international, journal. Integrating the rural development activities of students and faculty into the evaluation system, of course, would require the development of more flexible and responsive evaluation systems.

### **Implications for Teacher Education and Future Teachers**

The point has been made that the university should not get involved unilaterally in a rural community and that university involvement in rural development should come through the forging of partnership in which the parties agree to share responsibilities and support each other. The university's partners, it was pointed out, would most likely be individuals, groups or organizations that are already involved in one or more of the development activities that university faculty or students are interested in pursuing. One of the most viable partners in this respect is the school.

In almost every village in Africa today one would find either a primary school, a secondary school or both. These schools are run by teachers, some of them having been prepared in universities. Also, many of the teachers need to upgrade

their knowledge for different purposes. Universities could therefore begin to promote partnership with schools by ensuring that their teacher education programmes recognize community development activities as a key curricular concern. Teachers graduating from such programmes are likely to be more disposed to supporting university work in rural communities than those who graduate from traditional programmes. Apart from designing their initial teacher education programs in this way, universities could also become more involved in providing educational opportunities for teachers living in rural areas through the establishment of distance education networks, research and consultancies.

## Summary and Conclusion

This paper addressed the problem of relating university curricula in Sub Saharan African countries to development concerns in rural communities. This issue is important because, although African leaders have continued to emphasize the need for universities to become directly involved in rural development efforts, curricular strategies for enabling universities to respond to that need have hardly been developed in many of these institutions. I began the paper with a discussion of development, a term which has been much misused and even abused within the context of the search for ways and means to improve the economic and social well being of formerly colonized peoples in different parts of the World. On the basis of this discussion, I introduced a view of rural development and identified the project/program model as a convenient approach for university participation in rural development. Then, I proposed a strategy for relating university teaching, learning and research to rural development concerns. This strategy suggests the achievement by African universities of at least five tasks: (a) identification of rural development activities; (b) relating rural development activities to the major university functions of teaching, research and community service; (c) building university community partnerships; (d) promoting student and faculty participation; and (e) ensuring effective evaluation of student and faculty participation in rural development activities. With respect to implications for teacher education, the need for universities to promote viable partnerships with schools through the development of responsive teacher education programs and the participation of university faculty in the inservice education of teachers in rural areas was emphasized.

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## BEGINNING TEACHERS IN A CHANGING EDUCATIONAL ENVIRONMENT

Bob O'Brien

*The potential for the enhancement of the status of pre-service secondary school teacher education that was offered in 1987 has not been realised. New Zealand teacher educators have had to respond to the priorities and consequences of the considerable administrative reforms of the 1989 Education Act and its Amendments. The creation of the New Zealand Qualifications Authority in 1989 to devise and implement a new and coherent national framework of qualifications added to the demands being put upon many educators in all sectors of the service. After a brief period when the reforms of education administration dominated attention and resource allocation, the on-going changes to the school curriculum once again have impacted upon the annual workload of teachers and school administrators. Principals and teachers report an increase in the need for the pastoral care of their students, particularly in schools which serve a catchment area characterised by low socio-economic status, high rates of youth and adult unemployment and other agents contributing to community dysfunction.*

*Teacher educators have to monitor what is happening in schools and are expected to anticipate future developments in an increasingly stressful educational environment. The need for effective collaboration between teachers and teacher educators is as strong as ever.*

Secondary School teacher training was not a prerequisite for entry into the profession in New Zealand before 1987 (Department of Education 1981) so the current international thrust away from the need for effective teacher education programmes finds ready support among some sections of the country's political leadership. The major reforms of national, regional and local educational administration that began after the enactment of legislation in 1989 (Education Act 1989) diverted attention away from any serious investigation into the consequences of the impact of the 1987 requirement about entry standards into secondary school teaching.

The Labour Party Government that saw through the first wave of reforming legislation retained the concept that all teachers should be both qualified and trained. The National Party Government that assumed power after an election victory in 1990 amended the Education Act to allow the then autonomous individual school Boards of Trustees to appoint whomsoever they chose to be their teachers. Teacher union lobbying and some well-publicised teacher-pupil child abuse criminal trials have made most school boards adopt a "trained and qualified" teacher employment policy thus far (Secondary Principals' Association of New Zealand 1995) but as a growing shortage of such people impacts upon teacher supply and demand then there is a strong likelihood that these policies will be unsustainable (Ministry of Education 1995 a and b). Such is the setting that New Zealand teacher educators presently find themselves in. They know that there is going to be a steadily growing need for more teachers. But they also know that the current drive for curriculum revision and the unification and rationalisation of secondary and tertiary educational qualifications (i.e. "seamlessness") means that competent, informed and skilled teachers will be required in ever increasing numbers if the next set of reforms are to be implemented. If the declared

goals for education are to be pursued with some prospect of success then the matter of teacher supply and quality needs to be addressed.

Many of the challenges facing teacher educators in the six New Zealand centres which prepare graduates for secondary school teaching are those which concern colleagues in most parts of the world. In this paper, though, the matter of the changing social and educational climate in the schools which trainees are placed in for three periods of teaching practice is the issue which will be reported on.

## The School Scene

The 1989 reforms of administration arose from public debate and widespread consultation encouraged by an ideologically driven Labour Government (Department of Education 1987). Tomorrow's Schools (Minister of Education 1989) was generally well received by secondary school teachers who saw that many of the proposed reforms would impact less on their part of the education service (New Zealand Post-Primary Teachers Association 1990-92). They also readily accepted that if the reforms made more resources available for the improvement of student learning then that made the innovations even more supportable. The community in general welcomed the promised extension of the devolution of responsibility to individual school boards, provided that the central government continued to discharge its duty by making available sufficient funds from its coffers to service the education of its citizens.

Six years on teachers have, of necessity, adjusted to the new order. They have noted with varying degrees of concern the almost continuous restructuring of the new bureaucracies and point to a decline in the buying power of their school operations funding (Secondary Principals' Association of New Zealand 1994). Teachers are very aware of the diminishing value of their salaries (New Zealand Post-Primary Teachers Association 1993-1995). Successive governments had made never more than modest provision for the maintenance of plant so in the new era school boards have found themselves often confronted by major refurbishment needs (Ministry of Education 1995 e).

School trustees, managers and administrators soon found that devolution and accountability meant higher workloads and more stress. Principals found that they had to compromise their role as professional leaders of teams of colleagues as the demands of their other duties grew (Secondary Principals' Association of New Zealand 1995). "Choice" was another key word in the reformers' lexicon (Ministry of Education 1993 c). For schools this has often meant a reduction in collegiality among principals and in some regions a diversion of energy and funding into the marketing of a school so that new intakes of pupils/students can be kept to previous levels. The publication of reports on schools after a visit from reviewers from the Education Review Office has added a new dimension to the troublesome and long-standing problem of how parents become informed and make judgements about their local schools.

By 1993 the initial uncertainties caused by the reforms were established by the publication of National Educational Guidelines (NEGs) and National Administrative Guidelines (NAGs) by the Ministry of Education. These appeared at a time when strategic planning was being promoted as a management tool that would lead to greater efficiency in the market-driven economic environment that education had to service and be part of (Ministry of Education 1993 c). Tensions generated by

the range of funding challenges and occasional interpersonal conflicts between board members and principals have not made the self-management of schools as comfortable as some of the early protagonists of the reforms predicted (Ministry of Education 1994 a, Secondary Principals' Association of New Zealand 1995, New Zealand Post-Primary Teachers Association 1993-1995).

The teacher educator is aware of these issues and recognises that boards and principals cannot be expected to have the capacity to give priority to matters pertaining to the partnership between the school and the College of Education in the pre-service training of teachers (Ministry of Education 1991).

## Curriculum Changes

Because of the small population and the viewpoint of the writers of the 1877 Education Act the New Zealand curriculum has always been a national one, previously developed and supervised by the Department of Education. A Curriculum Division oversaw the production of syllabus statements, an Examinations Division issued examination prescriptions and conducted annual, national examinations while Inspectors did the field work among principals and teachers (Department of Education 1987).

After 1989 the Ministry of Education (MoE) had responsibility for Curriculum matters but chose to contract out further development work once it had published the final draft of a revised National Curriculum (Ministry of Education 1993 b) that had slowly evolved through much of the nineteen-eighties. Examinations and other assessment matters became the business of an autonomous New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA) while the Education Review Office (ERO) was created to monitor many dimensions of the restructured education system.

While teachers have been well used to involvement in the often lengthy business of the revision of the syllabi that they were currently teaching to, many have reported recently that the nature of the present activity is putting demands on them that have not been experienced previously (New Zealand Post-Primary Teachers Association 1994-95). The 1993 Curriculum Statement parcelled future school learning programmes into seven aspects, which for secondary school teachers sometimes meant the amalgamation of their "subject(s)" into a new configuration and, in time, a possible reduction in employment opportunities. A time frame for the implementation of the revision was promulgated but was of much shorter duration than previous practice had modelled (Ministry of Education 1994).

Not unexpectedly, several of the National Education Guidelines had Curriculum implications too, and these, in particular, had implications for teacher educators (Ministry of Education 1993 a). They often became significant figures among the groups contracted to develop new syllabus statements and assist in the necessary re-training of teachers to prepare for the introduction of the new aspect of the Curriculum by the scheduled date. In such instances the teacher educators were conveniently positioned to influence the pre-service teacher training programmes as well.

The MoE was funded to meet the costs of the retraining of appropriate groups of teachers and so, in general, this part of the reformation of the Curriculum

has been widely supported by most of the teachers who became involved in the process (Kerslake 1992, Donn 1994). The shortness of consultation phases of development were not always appreciated and it may be that in some quarters teachers will not accept "ownership" of the revised syllabus and thus not readily adopt the aims and strategies specified (New Zealand Post-Primary Teachers Association 1992, 1993, 1994).

Teacher educators are often in receipt of reports from trainees that "out there" (i.e. the Teaching Practice Schools) they don't observe nor get the chance to practise the pedagogies required by the revised syllabus. At a mid-point in the time frame it seems that these problems are likely to intensify as the remaining aspects of the National Curriculum are developed and approach implementation date.

### **The Qualifications Framework**

At the same time as the New Zealand Curriculum was being debated and rewritten those in power pointed out the desirability of reshaping the qualifications that had become part of the state system of education at secondary and tertiary levels. Assessment of student progress had become an increasingly prominent issue with the ideologues as they campaigned for greater accountability and efficiency from the suppliers of social services, particularly those mainly funded by the State. The existing qualifications available through schools, polytechnics, universities and vocational training authorities had evolved over a century and were ready targets for review and reconstruction.

In 1989 the New Zealand Qualifications Authority was created and empowered to devise a Qualifications Framework which would provide a unified, progressive and universal set of measures of educational achievement. "Seamlessness" became a fashionable word to describe the system and its qualification structure. In the early nineteen-nineties the initial impetus of NZQA was to clarify and promote the nature of the Qualifications Framework, which would have Unit Standards assessed by achievement at its core (New Zealand Qualifications Authority 1991). As with the proposed Curriculum Amendments, the Qualifications Framework concept found favour among teachers. Some teachers and most university faculty reported doubts about the merits of the proposals. University administrators later showed an unwillingness to commit their institutions to the pursuit of the Level Seven (Initial Degree) and Eight (Postgraduate) elements of the framework. (Ministry of Education 1992, 1994, New Zealand Qualifications Authority 1991-95). The initial aim of the National Party Government was to have the Qualifications Framework in place within three years. It soon became evident that while this may have been attainable within the Tertiary Sector (with or without the university) the Curriculum and subsequent syllabus revision for the school sector could not be managed in such a short time frame. The slightly slower pace of the reform has delayed the involvement of most secondary school teachers in the process.

This has been significant for the teacher educators. Since 1989 they have been aware themselves, and have been regularly called upon by NZQA, school trustees and principals to prepare tomorrow's teachers for tomorrow's schools in matters of the assessment of students (Ministry of Education 1995 f and g). Unfortunately today's trainees gain their immediate teaching practice in schools which are still preparing and sometimes internally assessing Fifth Form students (Year 10) for a national



examination, Sixth Form students for the award of a national Sixth Form Certificate (Year 11) and some Year 12 students for a national University Bursary/Scholarship examination. As there has been an increase in the pace of Unit Standards development in the range of traditional subjects studied by secondary school students so more teachers have had to find time and energy to understand and acquire or adapt the pedagogical skills needed by the innovations (New Zealand Qualifications Authority 1995).

Where trainees spend time in schools and are associated with teachers who have had been given some opportunity to clarify their initial responses to the new assessment environment there is a match between what is offered by way of pre-service training and what is observed in schools. If trainees are learning to teach in subject disciplines which have not yet reached even a consultation phase in the time frame then their in-school experience is often puzzling, sometimes embarrassing and occasionally unproductive.

New Zealand schools are in a transition phase in respect of student assessment and this adds to the stress that is felt among teachers and school administrators. When competition and choice are promoted as desirable in education and examination results and ERO school reviews are regularly published the importance of student assessment is heightened still further. Teachers at present see themselves being pressured to achieve improving "outputs" (student achievement) within the existing system while concurrently having time and energy to contribute to the development of Unit Standards for their subjects and refine their teaching practices in readiness for the implementation of their segment of the National Certificate or National Diploma (oral comment from teachers).

Coupled with the work that the same teachers and administrators are being required to put in as part of the Curriculum reform it is to their credit that they are still willing to make themselves and their classes accessible to trainees in search of in-school experience. That some teachers should now ration themselves to working with one trainee each year is an understandable action but one which adds to the difficulties of the teacher educator who is keen to assign trainees to work with the top quality role models. This problem is exacerbated when trainees are being prepared to teach in curriculum aspects which have been traditionally difficult to recruit for.

## **Secondary School Students**

Prior to 1989 admission to secondary school had been compulsory for all young people who had not reached their fifteenth birthday (Education Act 1944). The Department of Education had managed enrolments to schools through "Zoning Schemes" negotiated among groups of schools that were located in the same student catchment area. While there was annual publicity given to parent dissatisfaction with specific outcomes for their children most schools accepted the system. Such a centrally managed set of arrangements allowed for an ordered programme of school building and maintenance and provided useful demographic data when the percentage of adolescents in the population began to decline and thus influenced school staffing entitlements.

In the consultations before and after the publication of Tomorrow's Schools, the critics of zoning schemes and the protagonists of choice and competition to

heighten efficiency argued successfully. Zoning was abandoned in the Education Act 1989. School overcrowding was legislated against but possible school decline and closure was accepted as an inevitable consequence of the introduction of market forces to the education sector. The competition among schools for enrolments spread to many areas previously used to and accepting of the orderliness of the old scheme.

Not unexpectedly, the classroom climate in many schools appears to have been influenced by these administrative amendments. Researchers have now had time to monitor and report their findings about some aspects of these matters and are beginning to confirm the impressions conveyed to teacher educators by experienced teachers and school administrators (Whitehead & Ryba 1994).

In the schools that are perceived to be successful and therefore in demand overcrowding is an issue and many teachers are being required to accept responsibility for larger classes, sometimes in less than favorable learning environments. Such schools, however, have some ability to select their students and so teachers rarely have to cope with the challenges that almost daily are faced by their colleagues in other, less well-regarded schools.

To prepare teachers for work in the circumstances that now prevail in many New Zealand secondary schools ( and by inference primary schools too) attention needs to be drawn to:

- the expectation that teachers will have knowledge of the personal affairs of their students
- the roles of teachers and others in a school's welfare and guidance ("pastoral care") network
- the increasing frequency of having to attempt to communicate with caregiver(s) or parent(s) with little command of English
- the prevalence of dysfunctional family arrangements
- the difficulties of managing teaching resources for students living in a variety of households
- the inter-personal skills needed to teach in classrooms in collaboration with aides assigned to support the learning of individual students with special needs
- the fact that attempting to maintain school standards (dress codes, homework, attendance, etc.) is often time-consuming, confrontational and stressful and can lead to a lowering of staff room morale if some teachers choose to "give up"
- the requirements of the cross-curriculum Health syllabus
- the rise in the death-rate among adolescents (O'Brien, Resume of meetings of two groups of teachers from six schools 1994)

No wonder a teacher vehemently reported that her energy was diverted away from unit and lesson planning and preparation. "What may look good on paper, and often voluminous amounts of it, may not be what is actually delivered in the classroom."

Given the seemingly growing prevalence of the dimensions listed above, and

others omitted to conserve space, the teacher educator must be cautious in her/his response to the negative descriptions of some classrooms and teaching practices brought back by trainees after their in-school assignments. The Privacy Act (1994) has made it more difficult for trainees to gain practical experience of and insights into the workings of a school's pastoral care network. Schools, too, have become much more conscious of the need to manage better their record keeping about students and allied issues of access. As the Qualification Framework is implemented the gathering, storage and retrieval of data about individuals will become an even greater matter for current and future teachers to be informed about.

## Conclusion

Teacher educators have to monitor what is happening in schools and are expected to anticipate future developments in an increasingly stressful educational environment. The need for effective collaboration between teachers and teacher educators is as strong as ever.

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# STUDENTS' LEVELS OF SATISFACTION WITH THE VOCATIONAL PROGRAM AND ITS RELATION TO THEIR SCHOLASTIC ACHIEVEMENT

*Lalah Habib Taresh  
Ahmand Al-Busan*

## Introduction

This study focused upon the degree of satisfaction that Educational Qualifying students found with their academic programs. The purpose was to safeguard future educators as valuable human resources in conjunction with their perceptions of the teaching profession, based upon experience in their academic course of study. All subsequent studies involving the evaluation of human resources preparation programs have focused upon the opinions of those people in charge of implementing the programs rather than those students pursuing the degree. It is essential that these students have a say-so in their academic program since self-satisfaction fosters stability and security, manifesting higher performance and greater success.

## Previous Studies

Studies examining students' degrees of satisfaction with their academic programs are abundant in the Arab world; similar studies have begun in the West as well. Both oriental and occidental studies have been concerned with measuring extents of professional satisfaction and the development of personal attitudes towards the teaching profession and other professions.

One occidental study (Crunkilton et al. 1987), concerned with the issue of satisfaction that international students found with the international training program of the American Farm School, revealed the presence of high levels of satisfaction with the program and its objectives. Another study (Pick, 1990) involved the effects of economic and social background and course work on students' grades and satisfaction, and how satisfaction influences their academic performance. This study found that satisfaction is positively correlated with academic success and exemplary grade achievement. A third study (Clagett, Craig, & Maconochie 1991), which looked at attitudes of non-credit students toward continuing education programs, revealed a positive relationship between students' satisfaction and their academic achievement.

Among oriental research is one study (Ibadah & Badr 1990) which focused on students' satisfaction with the education program at the University of Bahrain. This study concluded that there is an indicative, positive relationship between the students' satisfaction with their academic advisors and their academic achievements. Another study (Tahseen 1979), which looked at satisfaction and students' study problems, found that study problems were associated with learning and achievement, the student-teacher relationship, and a lack of language command, all of which resulted in dissatisfaction and academic failure. A third oriental study (Al-Zarred 1978) revealed a statistically indicative relationship between the quantity and the quality of school problems and the students' emotional balance. Hannourah (1988), addressed problems of Kuwaiti youth in the past, present, and future, and concluded that academic program problems faced by Kuwaiti youth include understanding and

achievement, and a lack of creativity and cognitive competition. Shaaban (1989), examined problems of university youth in Egypt, and found a discrepancy between what students learned in academic realms and what they encountered in daily life experiences.

There are also oriental studies that concentrate on examining the relationship between the attitudes towards the teaching profession and the feeling of satisfaction with their profession, and consequently how this reflects upon one's performance and achievement. Among these is a study (Al-Jamal 1983) which attempted to identify the difference in students' attitudes between college entrance and exit. One of the outstanding findings of this study was the positive change of students' attitude towards the teaching profession after completing their teaching qualification program. Another study (Al-Nasser & Mahmoud 1984) was administered to evaluate the level of teachers' satisfaction with their profession. The findings of the study indicate that there are statistically significant differences between male and female teachers, where the findings were pro-female, in addition to differences due to professional experience.

This brief review of occidental and oriental studies indicates that little direct attention has been given to the study of students' levels of satisfaction with their academic program. This is where the current study fits into the picture. This study has attempted to identify factors which influence students' level of satisfaction with their academic program, focusing primarily upon Educational Diploma students in the College of Education at Kuwait University.

### **Psychology of Satisfaction**

A review of the concept of 'satisfaction' indicated that satisfaction is a feeling of joy, pleasure, happiness, acceptance, and contentment, derived from the completion of a specific job where goals are attained and realized.

The importance of self-satisfaction arises from the notion that it is a fundamental factor in educational, professional, and psychological guidance, as well as psychological hygiene (Al-Hanbali 1978). The most outstanding personal factors related to satisfaction include the relationship between satisfaction and tendency, attitude, adaptation, and morale. Upon review of the factors closely related to the concept of satisfaction it was concluded that an individual's initial response is a result of 'tendency.'

This tendency yields the 'attitude,' which in turn leads to satisfaction. Satisfaction reacts with the environment and consequently, the individual feels secure, and begins to adapt. Once this adaptation prevails, the outcome is a high morale within the group and within society as a whole. This study introduces these personal factors as the four domains, used as the foundation of the methodology for data collection.

### **Objective**

The current study strives to analyze the academic performance of Educational Qualifying Diploma students' in the College of Education at Kuwait University, in relation to degrees of satisfaction with their academic programs.

## Procedure

The students sampled for this study were randomly chosen from 130 Educational Qualifying Diploma students in the College of Education at Kuwait University. Thirty two students, representing both genders took part in the study.

An individual questionnaire was designed to address the four domains of personal satisfaction, which include tendency towards the academic program, developed attitudes about the program, resulting adaptations, and subsequent morales. The questionnaire was based upon a Likert scale, in which students responded with answers of: 'strongly agree,' 'agree,' 'disagree,' 'strongly disagree,' or 'don't know.' The data collection tool, in its preliminary form, was reviewed by a committee of faculty members in the College of Education at Kuwait University. The committee members approved the scope, appropriateness, and validity of the survey questions, concluding that the questionnaire, as presented in its preliminary form, was capable of achieving the intended objectives of the study. Consequently, the questionnaire was administered in this form.

The invariability of each question in the four domains was determined through an application of individual and binary methods of analysis, using the Pearson correlation factor, amended by Spearman. The invariability factors range between .84 and .86 which was deemed acceptable. A statistical system (SPSS) was used to calculate percentages of the samples' responses.

## Data Analysis

The following tables summarize the finding for the four domains; tendency towards the academic program, attitude toward the academic program, adaptation to the academic program, high spirits acquired from academic program.

**TABLE 1 - First Domain  
Tendency Towards the Academic Program**

Question	Response				
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Don't Know
Agreement of program with student tendency	50%	37.5%			
Self-awareness through the academic program	50%	15.6%	18.8%		15.6%
Love of the academic program		12.5%			50%
Feeling of satisfaction with the academic program	34.4%	59.4%			

**TABLE 2 - Second Domain  
Attitude Towards the Academic Program**

Question	Response				
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Don't Know
Frustrations with the academic program				50%	40.6%
Ignorance of the objective of the academic program		53.1%	40.6%	8.3%	
Feelings of compulsion to join the program				50%	31.3%
Contribution of the program to changing student attitudes		28.1%	59.4%		
Worries resulting from professors in the program		12.5%	37.5%	31.3%	

**TABLE 3 - Third Domain  
Adaption to the Academic Program**

Question	Response				
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Don't Know
Difficulties in adaptation			50%	40.6%	
Dropping the academic program or a job opportunity	34.4%	9.4%	15.8%	18.8%	
The degree to which studies have not enhanced student knowledge	34.4%	18.8%	9.4%	21.9%	
Positive attitude towards job promotion	12.5%	18.8%	31.3%	21.9%	
Feelings of professor objectivity and fair treatment	12.5%	51.1%	9.4%		25%
Viewpoints of academic program		34.4%	34.4%	18.8%	
Viewpoints that the study is time and effort consuming			50%	40.6%	
Perception that the academic program is too difficult			40.6%	40.6%	

**TABLE 4 - Fourth Domain  
High Spirits Acquired From Academic Program**

Question	Response				
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Don't Know
Satisfaction with program content	18.8%	62.5%	9.4%	9.4%	
Interest in program	40.6%	56.3%			
Feeling of comfort in classes	43.8%	53.1%			
Feelings of pride in degree pursuit	43.8%	28.1%			
A desire to pursue higher education	71.9%	25%			



## **Findings**

First, there is a consensus that the academic program agrees with the students' tendencies, and gives them a chance to identify themselves through it. Half of the sampled students agree that they are satisfied with the academic program, and half do not.

Attitudes toward the academic program indicate that, in general, students do not feel annoyed, worried, frustrated, or experience sleeplessness. Students do not feel compelled to join the program, although half of the sampled students do not know the main objective of the program. They do agree that the program positively changes their attitudes towards the teaching profession.

Students agree that there are no difficulties involved in adapting to the academic program, although many would discontinue the program in order to take advantage of job opportunities. Students concede that the program does enhance their professional knowledge. There is also agreement among sampled students that persons implementing the program are fair and objective in their evaluations of student performances. They do, however, feel that the program embodies too many requirements, although study is not too time consuming.

Students exhibit enthusiasm about the program, and express that they are proud to be a part of it. They are also interested in the pursuit of higher education in this area. The researchers conclude that the sampled students indicated positive responses related to the personal factors of 'satisfaction' (i.e. tendency, attitude, adaptation, and high morale). The findings, however, do render points of strength and weakness in the Educational Qualifying Diploma students' academic program, as well as demonstrate the importance of students' satisfaction with their program.

## **Recommendations**

In light of the findings of this study, the researchers suggest the following recommendations to achieve the ideal levels of student satisfaction with the Educational Qualifying Diploma program in the College of Education at Kuwait University:

1. Stressing the importance of the educational guidance role. This can be facilitated by measuring the tendencies and individual differences of the candidates applying to the program.
2. Stressing the role played by the continuing academic advisor through the course of the program.
3. Stressing the importance of professional guidance in the teaching profession, and providing incentives by offering job opportunities to graduates.
4. Stressing the necessity of student awareness of academic program objectives.
5. Stressing faculty awareness of student diversity, in relation to age and experience.

6. Reconsidering requirements of academic courses.
7. Encouraging and motivating students by offering opportunities for the pursuit of higher education.
8. Administering similar studies to continue to identify students' levels of satisfaction with the Educational Qualifying Diploma program.

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