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A mismatch of need for change? An exploration of teachers' opinions on educational change

Mustafa TOPRAK

Abstract

Countries have launched various change initiatives to keep their educational systems up-to-date due to increasing internal and external pressure. Despite agreement on the need for change at schools, whether educational policy makers explore stakeholders' opinions about what changes must occur is a matter of discussion. Turkey, a country that has been subjected to various change initiatives in its history, has started 4+4+4 educational change initiative on 2012-2013 educational year and this initiative has received criticisim from different stakeholders (specifically from teachers who are among the most intensely influenced stakeholders) due to its profile of low level of participation in decision-making. The descripancy between what policy makers envisage to change in educational system and teachers' opinions about what need to be changed can be a potential source of resistance. This study is an attempt to explore this discrepancy and analyze its relationship with teachers' resistance to change. This qualitative study was carried out in 2014-2015 educational year with 13 teachers working in Gaziantep province. Data were collected through semi-structured interviews. Results of the study have shown that almost all participant teachers think that there must be some kind of change in the system but the changes they proposed collide with the changes that were initiated widely on the system. It was also found out that when teachers do not see the changes they propose happening in educational system anda re not involved in changes, they tend to find little value in change and develop less ownership of the changes.

Key words: Educational Change, Need for Change, Stakeholders, Teachers, Involvement

An investigation of the effectiveness of written corrective feedback

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Abstract

There has been a clash of opinions over whether Written Corrective Feedback (WCF) is effective or not, especially after Truscot's (1996) paper. Despite a great deal of research done in this sphere of second language education, researchers are back at square one, since the studies done have produced mixed results. This case study shows results of a one-month study of the effectiveness of WCF to 3 low intermediate Iranian EFL students in Shiraz. Each of the students received different feedback types (direct, indirect [un-coded], and a control student who received no feedback). They produced three pieces of writing (pre-test, post-test, and a delayed post-test) that described what was happening in a given picture. Two functional uses of the English article system (a-the) were targeted in the feedback. The study found that the accuracy of students who received WCF in the immediate post-test outperformed the one who received no treatment, and that this level of performance was retained 3 weeeks later.

1. Introduction

Before 1996 when Truscott claimed that written corrective feedback (error correction on L2student writing) is ineffective and harmful, the assumption that corrective feedback helps L2 writersimprove the accuracy of their writing had not been challenged. In fact, as Truscott (1996, 1999) andFerris (1999) explained, research evidence was limited in terms of the range of studies that hadattempted to address the question of efficacy and in terms of the quality of the research design.Although a decade has now passed and considerable debate has been presented in journal articlesand conference papers, limited research has been undertaken on this key issue. In considering thatwhich has been published, it is clear that a conclusive answer to the question will not be possibleunless researchers make an effort to conduct well designed studies that examine over timethe effectiveness of different corrective feedback options on new pieces of writing and bycomparing them with the texts of students who do not receive corrective feedback. An attempt ataddressing these needs lay behind the design and execution of the study reported in this article.The aim of the study was twofold: (1) to investigate whether targeted corrective feedback on 3 Iranian EFL students writing results in improved accuracy in new pieces of writing over a 1-month periodand (2) to investigate whether there is a differential effect on accuracy for different correctivefeedback options (direct and uncoded [indirect] feedback).Thus, the study focuses on one targeted error category (twofunctional uses of the English article system) rather than numerous error categories. Secondly, itexamines, by means of a pre-test/post-test design, the effectiveness of correctivefeedback on new pieces of writing within the same genre rather than single or multiple textrevisions across different genres. Thirdly, it incorporates a control group (one that does not receive corrective feedback.

2. Literature Review

The first part of this section presents a literature review of empirical studies that argue for andagainst the practice of corrective feedback and the relative merits of different types of feedback.The second part reviews the research design issues that need to be addressed so that futureresearch is able to provide clearer answers to the key questions concerning the value of writtencorrective feedback.

Part one: empirical studies

A number of studies have claimed that corrective feedback on student writing is effective.However, the design of very few has included a control group so it has not been possible to make acomparison between those who do and those who do not receive corrective feedback. Studies thatfail to compare the effects of corrective feedback and no corrective feedback do not provideevidence of the effectiveness of corrective feedback (Ferris, 1999, 2004; Truscott, 2004).Of those that have made the comparison (Ashwell, 2000; Fathman&Whalley, 1990; Ferris &Roberts, 2001; Polio, Fleck, &Leder, 1998), three claim that corrective feedbackhad a positive effect on accuracy but, in each case, there were design issues that need to be takeninto account when considering the value of their claims.

Although the findings of Fathman and Whalley (1990) offer positive evidence of the value ofcorrective feedback, it should be noted that their post-test only required a revision of the pre-testrather than the writing of a new text. Like their study, the Ferris and Roberts (2001) investigationfound a positive effect for both types of written corrective feedback, but it also involved only textrevisions. In Ashwell's (2000) study, the improvement in accuracy between drafts one and three were evidentin the text revisions of all three groups that received form-focused feedback but not in thoseredrafted by the control group. Like the previous two

studies (Fathman&Whalley, 1990; Ferris& Roberts, 2001), Ashwell's study did not require students to write new texts. While the findingsof these three studies signal a positive effect for written corrective feedback on error reduction,two further studies (Kepner, 1991; Polio et al., 1998) report the opposite. Polio et al. (1998) claimthat differences in post-test scores for the treatment and control groups were not significant, but itneeds to be realised that different instruments were used in the two tests and that this, therefore,raises the possibility that instrument variability might have had an effect on the findings.Similarly, a number of design and execution shortcomings in the study by Kepner (1991) meanthat its claims also need to be read with this in mind.Other studies (Chandler, 2000; Ferris, 1997; Ferris, Chaney, Komura, Roberts, &McKee, 2000; Lalande, 1982) that have not included a control group have nevertheless claimedthat corrective feedback is beneficial to students who receive it. While the findings from this research are interesting and may well be indicative of theeffectiveness of corrective feedback, they were not compared with the accuracy scores of acontrol group so cannot be read as evidence. Thus, they can really only be regarded as offeringinsights into the relative effectiveness of different types of feedback.

Studies comparing different types of corrective feedback

The major focus of studies that have investigated the effectiveness of different types ofcorrective feedback has been the extent to which direct or indirect feedback facilitates improvedaccuracy. Although these terms have not always been used consistently in the literature, directcorrective feedback may be defined as the provision of the correct linguistic form or structureabove or near the linguistic error (Bitchener, Young, & Cameron, 2005; Ferris, 2003). It mayinclude the crossing out of an unnecessary word/phrase/morpheme, the insertion of a missingword/phrase/morpheme, or the provision of the correct form or structure.

On the other hand, indirect corrective feedback indicates that in some way an error has beenmade. This may be provided in one of four ways: underlining or circling the error; recording inthe margin the number of errors in a given line; or using a code to show where the error hasoccurred and what type of error it is (Ferris & Roberts, 2001).Rather than the teacher providing an explicit correction, students are left to resolve and correctthe problem that has been drawn to their attention.In earlier years, a stronger case had tended to be made for the special value of providingstudents with indirect feedback rather than direct feedback. Lalande (1982) and James (1998)explained that indirect feedback requires learners to engage in guided learning and problemsolving and, therefore, promotes the type of reflection that is more likely to foster long-termacquisition. But as SLA researchers of oral L2 production have found, learners must first‘‘notice’’ (Schmidt, 1990) that an error has been made. Once the error has been noted, indirectfeedback has the potential to push learners to engage in hypothesis testing—a process whichFerris (2002) and others (see Doughty & Williams, 1998) suggest may induce deeper internalprocessing and promote the internalization of correct forms and structures.

While not dismissing the value of indirect feedback, those more in favour of a direct approachhave explained that teachers and students prefer direct feedback (Ferris et al., 2000; Ferris &Roberts, 2001; Komura, 1999). In addition, they suggest that direct feedback reduces the kind ofconfusion that can result when students fail to understand or remember the meaning of error codesused by teachers. Ferris and Roberts (2001) explain how this can easily occur with lowerproficiency learners. Leki (1991) and Roberts (1999) have also pointed out that students sometimesfeel that indirect feedback does not provide them with sufficient information to resolve morecomplex errors such as idiosyncratic and syntactic errors.Chandler (2003)explained that the greater cognitive effort expended when students are required to use indirectfeedback to make their own corrections is offset by the additional delay in knowing

whether theirown hypothesized correction is in fact correct.Weighing up the relativemerits of the various claims is not possible unless the findings of well-designed empirical studies are considered.

A limited number of studies have investigated whether direct or indirect corrective feedback ismore facilitative of improved accuracy in L2 writing. Five studies have comparedthe two approaches while a smaller body of research has compared the effectiveness of differenttypes of indirect feedback and different types of direct feedback.Some studies (Semke, 1984; Sheppard, 1992) have also compared direct and/or indirecttreatments with content/comments feedback. Comparing first the relative effects of direct andindirect feedback, two studies (Ferris &Helt, 2000; Lalande, 1982)report an advantage for indirect feedback. On the other hand, Robb et al. (1986) and Semke(1984) found no significant differences across feedback types. The first of these is particularlycompelling because it was carefully designed and considered multiple drafts of completedcompositions. However, the findings of Semke's study are problematic because of the type ofwriting the students were doing (weekly journal entries) and because the post-test writtenaccuracy measure consisted of only a 10-minute free-write. Another reason for being tentative inmaking firm conclusions from this conflicting and limited body of evidence is the positivefindings for direct feedback reported by Chandler (2003).

Given the conflicting nature of these findings, it is worth noting the findings of oral correctivefeedback in SLA research—a body of research that has tended to be more carefully designed andmore focused on specific linguistic categories. Studies by Carroll and Swain (1993), Ellis (1998),and Ellis, Loewen, and Erlam (2006) have reported a significant advantage in L2 production tasksfor direct feedback over indirect feedback. This said, it

should also be acknowledged that theremay be salient differences between SLA work in oral feedback and written feedback in secondlanguage writing studies.

Another group of studies has investigated the effectiveness of different types of indirect feedback(coded and uncoded). None of these studies (Ferris&Roberts, 2001; Ferris et al., 2000; Robb et al.,1986) found any difference between coded and uncoded options. However, only the study by Robbet al. (1986) examined the effect of corrective feedback on new pieces of writing over time. Theother two studies only measured the effect of corrective feedback on text revisions.Apart from one study (Bitchener et al., 2005), scarcely any attention has been given toan investigation of the effect of different types of direct feedback on accuracy improvement.Bitchener et al. (2005) compared the effect of direct correction only with direct correction andmeta-linguistic explanation (both written and oral) and found that learners who received the threeforms of direct feedback significantly outperformed those who only received direct feedback,indicating that the addition of meta-linguistic explanation makes a difference to the reduction oferror ratios. From this rather limited research base and its conflicting findings on the relativemerits of direct and indirect feedback options, firm conclusions will only become available iffurther research, incorporating both types within the design of a single study, is carried out.

Part two: design issues

This review of the published literature not only reveals a need for an on-going examination ofthe relative merits of (1) providing or not providing student writers with corrective feedbackand (2) providing direct or indirect feedback, but also reveals the need for research thatmanagesto eliminate the design and analytical flaws highlighted above. Followingthose that have already been identified by Ferris (2004), four in particular are critical: (1) acontrol group that does not receive corrective feedback must be compared with treatmentgroups; (2) a

longitudinal measurement of accuracy improvement in new pieces of writing bymeans of pre-test and post-test comparisons; (3) instruments that are valid measures of progress;and (4) an intensive targeting of one or only a few error categories at a time. Each of these issuesis discussed below and each is addressed in the design of the present study.

Researchers are in complete agreement with the need for studies that include a truecontrol group if the efficacy of corrective feedback is to be effectively addressed (Ferris,2004, 2006; Truscott, 2004). As Ferris (2004, 2006) points out, it has been the ethical concernwith not providing some students with corrective feedback while others receive correctivefeedback that has been one of the reasons this crucial design issue has been ignored inmuch of the earlier research. She offers two suggestions about how this issue might beaddressed. The first is to provide one group of students (the ‘‘control’’ group) with ‘‘summaryend notes’’ on their errors while another group (the ‘‘experimental’’ group) receives in-textcorrections. The second suggestion, involving a case study approach where the progressof student volunteers receive different treatments, would to some extent eliminate thisproblem, but the difficulty of convincing sufficient participants to take part in a studyover time and in their own personal time might create another difficulty—an insufficientsample size. In settings where students are studying English over a number of semesters,another approach might be to focus on the targeted error category with one class during onesemester and with another class in another semester after the data collection has beencompleted.

The second and third issues concern the measurement of accuracy in new pieces of writing.In order to measure the effectiveness of corrective feedback, an immediate post-test needs tobe administered so that the effect of other variables between the treatment and a new piece ofwriting can be eliminated. If a post-test is to be a valid measurement of progress, a comparablepre-test needs to be included in the research design. Avoiding the use of different

genres (forexample, journal entries in one test and argumentative essays in another) will enable valid textcomparisons to be made. To measure retention over time, delayed post-tests need to beincorporated into the design. In doing so, it is not possible to eliminate the effect ofintervening variables between an immediate post-test and a delayed post-test (for example,students may access further instruction or undergo further practice outside of class time), but adelayed post-test can be used to measure the level of retention that was observed in animmediate post-test.

The fourth issue to be addressed is the number of error categories that are targeted. Virtuallyall of the published research (except Bitchener et al., 2005; Sheen, 2006) has provided correctivefeedback on 15 or more error categories. Although studies by Ferris and colleagues (referred toabove) have reduced theirs to five broad categories, the effectiveness of this approach isnevertheless questionable. If categories are too broad, it is not possible to determine exactlywhere an error lies. Furthermore, it has been suggested (Schwartz, 1993; Truscott, 1999) thatdifferent domains of linguistic knowledge (and therefore different linguistic error categories) areacquired in different ways. Assuming this is the case, it is even more important that errorcategories not be too broadly constituted. An intensive targeting of one or only a few errorcategories makes further sense when one considers the difficulty that learners experience intrying to cope with information overload. Instead of comparing outcomes across a range ofgrammatical forms and structures, oral corrective feedback studies in SLA research (Han, 2002; Iwashita, 2003; Lyster, 2004;) have reported reliable results from studies that have intensively targeted a singlelinguistic feature. On-going research into written corrective feedback would do well to emulatethese examples. Such was the motivation for the following study.

Research Questions

1.Does accuracy in the use of two functions of the English article system vary over time?

2. Does accuracy in the use of these features vary according to the type of corrective feedbackprovided?

3. If yes, which one of the wto types of WCF, namely direct or indirect feedback, lead to better learning outcomes?

3. Design

Accuracy in the use of two functional uses of the English article system was measured over a month by means of a pre-test, a post-test immediately after the administering of the treatment(corrective feedback), and a delayed post-test after 3 weeks. Three low intermediateIranian students took part in the study: one received direct corrective feedback above eachtargeted error; the second one received indirect feedback (underlining the phrase in which the error has occurred but not supplying the correct form); and the third student, who received no treatment, was the control student. Each 30-minute piece of writing required the participants to describe what washappening in a different picture.

3.1. Participants:

The study was conducted on 3 Iranian EFL learners. They were identified as low-intermediate learners of English, by the institute in which they were studying. They all lived in Shiraz, Iran. Their age ranged from 20 to 22. They were all female.

3.2. Target structures

Two functional uses of the English article system were chosen as the target structures: thereferential indefinite article ‘‘a’’ when referring to something for the first time (first

mention) andthe referential definite article ‘‘the’’ when referring to something that has been mentioned before(subsequent mentions).

These functions were targeted because, as a growing literature reports, learnersacross English language proficiency levels experience difficulty in the use of the Englisharticle system (Bitchener et al., 2005; Butler, 2002; Ferris, 2002, 2006).Difficulties occur when deciding whether the definite or indefinite article should be usedand whether, in fact, either article is required. This study investigated the effect of targeting only twopotentially ‘‘treatable’’ (Ferris, 2002, 2003; Truscott, 1996) error categories.

3.3. Treatment

The treatment that was provided was corrective feedback (error correction) on errors that hadbeen made in two functional uses of the English article system. The type of corrective feedbackprovided varied across the three learners participated in the study. Learners number one and two received corrective feedback on their errors, but learner number three did not receive this feedback because she was the control student.

Students were randomly assigned to one of the two types of error treatment procedures. Direct corrective feedback is when the exact location of error is provided and the correct form has been supplied above the underlined error. Indirect corrective feedback, on the other hand, includes identifying where the error has occurred by underlining the phrase in which the error has occurred but not supplying the correct form. The study was conducted during three sessions. Each session lasted around 30 minutes. The interval between the first and second session was a week, however, the interval between the second and third session was three weeks. During each session students were given a topic to write about. Topics were chosen based on learners’ linguistic competence and language level. The reason why researchers decided to give the students new topics for each session to write about was to measure their

degree of accuracy in new contexts. Students were supposed to write a minimum of 150 word composition in 30 minutes. While correcting students' compositions, only targeted structures were treated. Other errors were ignored until the end of the fourth session. After the completion of the study, students were informed of all their errors. The corrected compositions in which targeted errors were treated implicitly and explicitly depending on which one of the students they belonged to, were delivered to students a week after each writing session.

3.4. Instruments

Each of the three tests required students to describe what was happening in a given picture.Each picture was of a setting where a wide range of people were doing various activities. Pictureone for the pre-test was about a beach scene, picture two for the immediate post-test was about apark picnic, and picture three for the delayed post-test was about a camping site. Picturedescriptions were chosen because the range of people, objects, and activities illustrated wouldpredispose the students to using the English article system. However, it was acknowledged thatstudents would be able to avoid such uses if they were uncertain about which use was appropriateand choose other determiners such as ‘‘one’’, ‘‘two’’, ‘‘this’’, and ‘‘that’’.

Because the students were at a low intermediate level of proficiency, some of the keyvocabulary items (concrete nouns) were provided around the margins of each task with arrowspointing to the relevant person, object, or activity. It was decided that this would lower the anxietylevel for the students if unknown words were provided. Additionally, they were allowed to ask theresearcher for a particular word if necessary. The students were given 30 minutes to completetheir writing on each occasion.

3.5. Procedure

On day 1, the pre-test was administered. A week later, the treatment (corrective feedback)was provided. This involved the researcher visiting each of the students and, for the student number one and two, returning the students writing and asking her to look at the corrections for approximately 5 minutes. Immediately after that, the student was asked to do a second piece ofwriting (immediate post-test). For the student number two, after looking over the corrections that had been made on her text, the student was asked to do her second piece of writing. For the third student, the second writing task took place as soon as the pre-testwriting had been returned.

The second piece of writing for all groups was returned 1 week after it had been written. Directerror corrections were again written above the errors made by the first student. It wasdecided that feedback should be provided as soon as possible after the students had completedthis piece of writing while the task was still relatively fresh in their memories so that they mightbe more motivated to take note of the feedback provided.

The delayed post-test was administered 3 weeks later. The students were not told when theresearcher would be returning to conduct the delayed post-test. The reason for this was toeliminate the possibility of any student studying the feedback that they had been given on the pretest and immediate post-test.

3.6.Analysis

Obligatory uses of the targeted features were identified and corrected for each text written by each student on each of the three testing occasions. Error identification and correction was carried out bythe researcher. Accuracy on each occasion was calculated as a percentage of correct usage for each scriptgiven the range of obligatory occasions arising in each script. For

example, in any one script,three correct uses of the targeted features from 10 obligatory occasions meant a 30% accuracyrate.

4. Results and discussion

To analyze the data, obligatory contexts for articles were determined by an educated native speaker of English. The categorization model of articles was that of (Celce Murcia, & Larsen Freeman, 1983; Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, &Svartvik, 1985; Nassaji& Swain, 2000). In their model, they categorized articles into four types, namely a- an- the- 0(zero). Table one indicates the number of obligatory contexts as well as the number and percent of correct instance of both articles and prepositions used in these contexts by two students in each composition. The design of this study has mainly been taken from Nassaji& Swain's (2000) work. There were marked differences between the three learners' performance across the compositions. Although students had been classified as pre-intermediate EFL learners, they appeared to be different as far as their knowledge of English articles was concerned. The Indirect Feedback student produced comparatively more correct instances of articles in his first composition than the direct Feedback student (articles %73 vs. %40).

Table2: students' performance in using articles

obligatory contexts	correct instances	%correct instances	
Direct feedback student			
Comp 1	20	8	40.0
Comp 2	25	13	62.0
Comp 3	18	14	83.6
Indirect feedback student			
Comp 1	15	11	73.0
Comp 2	31	28	90.3
Comp 3	15	12	80.0
Control student			
Comp 1	12	541.6	
Comp 2	18	738.8	
Comp 3	15	6	40

In the first composition, the Indirect Feedback student remarkably outperformed his Direct Feedback counterpart in using articles (%73 vs. %40). However, in subsequent compositions the superiority of the Indirect Feedback student declined such that, eventually the Direct Feedback student outperformed his Indirect Feedback counterpart, in the third composition (%83.6 vs. 80.0). As you can see above, the control students performance across three test did not change at all.

5.Conclusion

The data analysis of this study suggests that Direct Feedback was more conducive to improvement of learners' accuracy than its Indirect counterpart. The learner who received

Direct Feedback displayed less accuracy in using articles in his first composition than the other participant who received Indirect Feedback. Intriguingly, the so-called superiority of the Indirect Feedback student over the Direct Feedback learner started to wane as they reached their third composition. In their last composition, Indirect and Direct Feedback students had a rather opposite performance compared to that of their first composition. Explicit Feedback learner exhibited more accuracy in the use of articles in the third composition. When researchers asked the Indirect Feedback student to talk about his experience about the type of feedback he received, he stated that he was not able to find what his error was most of the times. That being said, we believe that Direct Feedback is nearly the best tool that can help, at least pre-intermediate learners, to improve the accuracy of their writing. It is suggested that Indirect Feedback can be conducive to accuracy if it is provided for advanced learners of English. The reason is that advanced students are equipped with a repertoire of knowledge about different elements of language. That is why it can be easier for them to diagnose where they have made mistakes and correct them on their own. However, pre-intermediate learners cannot learn much through Indirect Feedback because of their lack of competence.

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ANALYSIS OF ACADEMIC NEEDS OF MICROBIOLOGY STUDENTS AT UNIVERSITY OF KARACHI

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English language used by different users is demanding in different ways. It is believed that academic English used by science majors is distinct and demanding in particular ways. The purpose of this study is to dissect the language used in class discourse to identify the academic needs, of science major students, for studying English language. For the reason first year major classes of Microbiology department at University of Karachi have been recorded and transcribed for analysis. We analyzed dominant grammatical structures in student teacher discourse; identified prominent processes in language used during class lectures and observed the general culture followed in class. Data set was analyzed using Systemic Functional Linguistics. We concluded that ideation and field of the discourse is different from what is covered in the current curriculum being taught therefore a separate curriculum needs to be developed to cater the academic needs per faculty.

Keywords: Ideations, Meta-functions

Boosting Speaking Skills Through Listening Activities

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The idea that listening should take place in the classroom becomes more and more popular in second language classrooms. Today, many researchers claim that through listening activities the students have the opportunity to boost their knowledge of language. Listening used in language teaching refers to a complex process that allows students to understand spoken English and try to communicate.

The current study, conducted in Iran, investigated the effectiveness of using short audio conversations on the general proficiency of second language learners. Short audio conversations were taught over 11 weeks during a semester. The learners listened to the conversation about one hour each week. To conduct the present study 66 beginner students have been chosen. The experimental class (n= 33) who were taught with the use of short audio conversations, performed better than the control group. The same teacher taught the students in the control class (n=33) who were taught based on Grammar Translation Method without any short audio conversation or listening activities. A pre and posttest taken from Interchange quizzes assessed the effect of teaching with short audio conversations on the experimental and control group. Results gathered on the post intervention listening test revealed that teaching with short audio conversations led to a significant improvement on general proficiency of English language compared with the control group. This article can be presented orally in 30 minutes.

Biography

Sadeghi, Maryam

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I am Maryam Sadeghi. I was born in Iran. I have studied English Literature in Arak University in Iran. I have been teaching English since 2000. I have been teaching in Mahshahr University since 2005. I have been teaching general and Pre-university courses at university. And I am expert in teaching and communicating in English.

Brick and Mortar University on the Way to Virtual University

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Abstract

Nowadays existence of every university is based on internet. In educational settings it is used for storing results and students' data, communication inside an organization, between an organization and students, teachers and students, between peers. Even brick and mortar universities are indeed semi-virtual organizations. It is no longer a question of using internet or not, it is a question of what it is used for. It is a profound dilemma especially for universities that have a reputation and long tradition of higher education. Internet lowers the costs of educational practices but how to preserve high outcomes of learning? What are the barriers that are needed to be overcome? How does it effect the academic level of students, faculty members and the institution by itself? Could all of the fields of study be offered as an online course? Presented is a sample of Art Education.

***Key words:* virtual university, blended learning, entrepreneurship in learning communities**

Introduction

The Internet has transformed learning into a different level and has changed the character of a typical student, faculty and factors of universities. Gradually brick and mortar institutions offering higher education have implemented online collection of students' results. In 2000 to 2003 it was still rather a rare practice. Next step was offering online courses that soon has become very popular. "The number of students taking at least one online course has expanded at a rate in excess of the growth of overall higher education enrollments" (Storey and Tebes 2008, p. 3) *Paule Chau* (2004) wrote in *„Online higher education commodity"* that "E-learning has developed and impacted all different fields of studying: business, criminal justice, health administration, psychology, accounting, information technology, pedagogy, art and design etc." Ongoing digitization of education is unquestionable in all levels: associates, bachelors, masters, doctorate degrees. All types of institutions of higher educations: profit and non profit, public and private, traditional brick and mortar are dependent on the internet. Universities have evolved from using internet to store data to offering online courses finally into Virtual Organization as itself. Internet lowers the costs of educational practices but how to preserve high outcomes of learning? It is the main question for brick and mortar universities today. But there are others: What are the barriers that are needed to be overcome? How does it affect the academic level of students, faculty members and the institution by itself? Could all of the fields of study be offered as an online course? It could be presented on example of Art Education. Answers to these questions will allow the command of the main thesis of the article contained in the question: Is a Virtual University able to educate students on the same level as a brick and mortar University?

Blended learning

How do online courses affect universities? To examine the financial effect we will look closely at the University of Phoenix that is the biggest private university in America with a peak enrollment of almost 600,000 students in 2010. Although the numbers have drastically changed since then, mainly due to change in the economical environment, it is still an interesting case to analyze. University of Phoenix has targeted working adults as big potential market. Carnevale and Olsen (2003) claim that there are an ‘‘estimated 70 million working adults [who] have never earned a college degree’’ (as cited in DeFleur and Adams 2004, p. 151 in *„Online higher education commodity", Paule Chau 2004)*

With such a big number of people that are not able to attend regular university lectures, the University of Phoenix developed online courses. Which are much more accessible and cheaper for university. It is worth to look at numbers. In the year 2006 net earning of Phoenix University was 2 millions $ and in the following 3 years has increased almost one million up to 2.9 millions $, what has noticed by *Paule Chau.* This financial success in figures was mainly caused by offering online courses for adult students. The present financial crisis that the University struggles with has not changed that it is still the biggest private for-profit Institution that offers higher diplomas. After closing 115 brick-and-mortar locations they have still a nationwide network of 112 locations in 36 states, the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico and total enrollment of 328 0000 students. According to *New York Times (2012,p.A22):* *“*Enrollments at the University of Phoenix and in the for-profit sector over all have been declining in the last two years, partly because of growing competition from other online providers, including nonprofit and public universities, steady drum roll of negative publicity about the sector’s recruiting abuses, low graduation rates and high default rates.” To conclude three – quarters of their students were studying online and they were offered to move to nearby sites to continue their education in different institutions. This study shows that e-learning is still growing but wrong procedures of recruitment might be a threat for a bad publicity what effects monetary success of the institution.

What are the admission requirements to enter the University of Phoenix ? The University has targeted students that are working adults. Most of them finished their high school years earlier. All of their scores gained in the past might not be representing their ability to perform now and succeed as university students. More adequate is their current working experience as a criteria to enter the University. What has made the boom in number of enrollments of the University of Phoenix. On the other hand it was a threat for the level of academic achievements of graduate students. This easy admission made the room for abuse and further failure in substantive education of University of Phoenix. How ever it is not a risk for the growth of online courses. They are still a very attractive alternative to the traditional face to face learning but it is a threat for their academic level of achievements. Now every institution that offers higher education needs to incorporate online learning.

“Based on a report by the Sloan Consortium, a consortium made up of institutions and organizations with the mission of integrating online education with mainstream higher education, in 2007 there were approximately 3.94 million online students, which marks a 12.9% increase from 2006 (Allen and Seaman 2008, p. 5)

Entrepreneurship in learning communities

Nowadays existence of every institution is based on the internet. In educational settings it is used for storing results and other students' data, communication inside an

organization, between an organization - students, teachers - students, between peers. Even brick and mortar universities are indeed semi- virtual organizations. It is no longer a question of using the internet or not, it is a question of what it is used for. It is a profound dilemma especially for universities that have reputation and long tradition of higher education. Among an abundance that give on -line courses it is a threat that substantive level might drop as shown on example of mentioned before the University of Phoenix.

To give frame for this discussion we will focus on particular elements of functions of organizations that provide higher education. We will skip issues of protection and safety of storing data and the communication within educational settings. Internet lowers the costs of educational practices but how to preserve high outcomes of learning?

S.Hrastinski and J.Jaldemark after analyzing researches that had been conducted before (e.g., Fredericksen et al. 2000; Hiltz et al. 2000; Rovai 2007; Woo and Reeves 2007). are emphasizing that computer based communication between peers and teachers in educational realm has a positive effect. Face to face interaction is no more necessary to stimulate an intellectual growth of students. The easiness of access to information has changed the role of teachers from a person that stores knowledge in their head and has a monopoly on specialist's books to a guide that shows students reliable resources. Although the computer based communication has desired impact on studious growth of students it "is automatically and in most cases unintentionally built into mental functioning" (*S.Hrastinski, J.Jaldemark , 2011)*

How does it affect students psychology and their performance. What are the factors that decide whether the studies will be completed? Do students gain an overall understanding of their realm of study or do they gather unrelated to each other pieces of information. We will investigate this issue further on.

To examine challenges that occur in front of universities offering online courses We need to compare profile of an traditional and an online student. Face to face education offered a physical venue where learning was taking place. Students were gathered together were they could exchanged their ideas get an advice and mental support. Studying was a major task in their life and they could dedicate to it almost completely. They had common goal what made them feel as part of a community. All of these elements create environment for learning in brick and mortar universities. Thus people taking online courses are usually mature in their age. Apart from working often they have families to take care of. Their time is much more limited and they are isolated from other peers. "In fact, it has been argued that individual success or failure can depend on whether students feel like insiders rather than outsiders" (S.Hrastinski, J.Jaldemark, 2011) Therefore success of online seminars offered by semi or fully virtual universities lays significantly in creating and sustaining communities, where students could be able to get an advice, ask content related questions and receive emotional support. The feel of companionship would support their motivation to complete the studies. Crucial role of success of virtual or semi virtual universities is to create learning communities. Collaborative projects done through electronic media promote social communications that support learning outcome. Stefan Hrastinski and Jimmy Jaldemark (2011) have analyzed how online students interact on project group forums in relation to three aspects: social support, information exchange, task management. It varies according to the internet tool being used and size of the team working together. To make it most effective and meaningful here are some suggestions to follow :

- „Encourage information exchange by establishing requirements and by giving students reasons to participate". Asking questions to prove their critical thinking skills.
- „Encourage shared task management among students." To avoid particular students to dominant the whole flow of discussion.
- „Encourage social support by organizing social events and by enabling private means of communication. Some students need more private means" to feel related to a group therefore more engaged in the project. Effectiveness of communication is also related to the comfort of knowing partners of discussion.

Further examining aspects of collaborative work : already Ling and Ku in 2006 found "that whether group members had similar or different backgrounds did not seem to have an impact on the degree of learning in an on - line course." *Chou, Pao-Nan* (2012)

Group projects support individual learning advanced concepts, moreover being exposed to comments of people from different backgrounds deepen the understanding of subject and possibilities of implementation the knowledge. Presence of a mentor on such online group assignment may intimidate some participants but it is a guarantee that substantive outcome will be placed. *Chou, Pao-Nan* (2012) wrote:"Spatariu et al. (2007) reported that a discussion leader's intervention would improve the quality of argumentation in online discussions."

Online tools of communications are mostly text related in order to create a complex learning there is a great need of planned live human interactions through internet during the course of study. Otherwise there is a threat that text might be misunderstood and wrongly interpreted. Another obstacle for online studying is the need of a social community of peers than for sure enhances learning. Chou and Pao -Nan (2012) have analyzed use of 5 different online tools that give variety of different stimulus in order to create motivated and effective learning environment.

They've examined cost effective (for free) online tools for seminars:

1. Blogging that encourages students to reflect on the subject, it could also storage description and requirements of course.
2. Skype conferences that help to avoid misunderstanding of text. Planned verbal life interactions might stimulate participants and minimize gaps in knowledge about the subject.
3. Podcasting the course instructor would need to prepare audio or video supporting aids to implement streaming of information.
4. Facebook in order to facilitate social support and create a learning community.
5. Wiki platform for the project so the course's mentor may observe and stimulate discussions.

All of the above online tools need to be launched by a university and operated by the course's instructors. It requires time to change teaching aids into online materials. So knowledge previously storage in instructor's head needs to be transformed into a online text or audio or video materials. Lack of face to face sessions creates a need of involvement in internet social medias in order to build a sense of community which increases workload for the course's instructor. It involves different process of learning. Rohan Jowallah (2012) wrote: view this change as the "demonopolisation of teaching" which is the shifting from the 'teacher focus approach' to the 'student centered learning approach'. Therefore, it will be imperative for

universities to consider how they will use new technologies to enhance online pedagogy to improve support for research students."

Creating an online course of study requires entrepreneurship and innovations. It is far different from just giving a lecture. The instructor needs to organize from the scratch the whole process of participant's learning. Though there were made different researches on online group projects, dynamic of every group is different and unexpected issues will appear also related to specific for the realm of subject. The course's instructor needs to be not only a lecturer as in the traditional brick and mortar universities but mentor and coordinator. Technology based group projects facilitate a bigger flow of content related exchange of information. It means that the instructor needs to be highly qualified in the field as well as proactive. While the duration of the project instructor's role is to supervise work being done and check if it leads in the right direction. It might need redesigning the the whole project and task management. The coordinator needs to have manager's skills of dealing with people and the whole group. "These proficiencies will require online tutors to be creative teachers who are supportive of the learner, skilled in monitoring the learning environment, able to motivate and stimulate the learner, and able to create critical learning interaction between themselves and their students" (R.Jowallah 2012) Along with the strong learning community there needs to be provided diversity in ways of delivering knowledge by greatly flexible and critically thinking instructors.
And further "highlights this importance by stating that the humanized classroom leads to improved learning experiences, student accomplishment, and student retention. " (*R. Jowallah 2012)*

Online courses on example of Art Education

Art education is the field that needs practice of craftsmanship in variety of techniques. To master these techniques there needs to be time to explore media. It can not be studied just by reading someones experience it requires to be done physically. It is hard to be an expert in ceramics when you have never touched the clay and used the kiln. However it doesn't mean that ceramics can not be offered as an online course. It would required a visit in ceramic art studios to experiment with the real medium. Students from all over the world before entering the course of study would need to researched if they would have access to an equipped art studios like: metal engraving, jewelry making, ceramic studio, photo studio, video studio, tailor studios, etc.. Technicians would be involved in the process of learning. Final result would be sent by post or just shown through video or sent by internet. Reflections done on internet, could be a proof of authentic and authorship of the projects. Part of the whole assignment could be gathering information of specifics of the medium as itself. It would require a variety general frames of the learning procedure but would give freedom of choosing field of study. So the learning would rely much more on participant's than the university. The University and instructor's role would on designing procedures and requirements to be fulfill, as well of method of assessing the project. Many universities that provide art education organize outdoor trips for painting. It could be an opportunity to build life community. All the knowledge based courses like Art History might be enriched by the access to locally find artifacts. Students from Greece might be encourage to study and prepare video about art of ancient Greece. That would be shared with students from different parts of the world. It would make the study very meaningful and involving in their own cultural

heritage. Methodology of teaching might be taught by showing video examples of successfully conducted lessons. Online courses of specific subjects that requires physical activities can be possibly successfully conducted. However the experience and knowledge gathered though the studies is far more specific so it is

more recommended for higher then bachelor diploma. To be an expert of the field university students need to first gain general knowledge.

Conclusion

A Virtual University is an institution that offers higher diplomas however the profile of their students is far different. Success of virtual universities lays significantly in creating and sustaining supportive learning environment. It requires creating a community where students can get emotional support, and opportunity for peer learning. The feel of companionship that will motivate them to complete the studies. Presence of a supervisor for the online projects is a guarantee that substantive outcome will be placed. What means that course's instructor will need to be much more involved in students' process of learning. His role will change from a lecturer to manager . However face to face interaction is no more necessary to stimulate an intellectual growth of students. Online tools of

communications are mostly text related in order to create a complex learning there is a great need of planned life human interactions through internet during the course of study. Otherwise there is a threat that text might be misunderstood and wrongly interpreted. Along with the strong learning community diversity in ways of delivering knowledge and many content base interaction and greatly flexible critically thinking instructors the outcome of studies is highly possible to be highly successful.

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Can Web 2.0 technologies be used to enhance the educational supervision of teachers?

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Abstract

The concept of Educational Supervision has witnessed significant development in recent years, due to the surge in journals and studies being carried out in this field. Many of these studies have come to employ the use of computers in educational supervision. Also, there are many studies that come to employ the Web in the educational supervision. All the studies that the researcher came across relied either on the Internet or Web 1.0 and there were no studies that examined the use of Web 2.0 technology in educational supervision. Thus this study intends to employ Web 2.0 technology in educational supervision.

The main purpose of this study is to examine the possibility of using Web 2.0 technologies in educational supervision in Saudi Arabia and investigate, can Web 2.0 technologies be used to enhance the educational supervision of teachers. In practical terms, how can I systematise and introduce appropriate Web 2.0 tools into the educational supervision process, which might support and enhance activities undertaken by supervisors and teachers? To achieve this, firstly, a comprehensive body of literature on Web 2.0 technologies, educational supervision, connectivism theory and the affordance of Web 2.0 technologies were reviewed as a step to provide a solid foundation for the construction of the model.

The study use mixed methods in four stages. The data source for first stage was interviews with seven supervisors and seven teachers. The main object of this stage was to allow the supervisors, teachers and myself to discover the possibility of application, to build a picture and to enable me to become acquainted with the procedures and techniques of data collection and analysis. Second stage was used to collect data from 23 supervisors, with data collected by focus group and questionnaire. The main

object of this stage was to study the current usage of Web 2.0 technology in educational supervision by supervisors and to understand how Web 2.0 technologies could develop and improve the supervisor's work. Stage three and four was used to collect data from thirty teachers, were involved in Pre-survey, training programme, implementation, communication, post-survey and monitoring. The main objects in these stages were to study the current usage of Web 2.0 technology by teachers, to measure the effect of the training programme, to recognize and use the affordance of Web 2.0 tools for supervision. Blogs, Google +, wiki and WhatsApp are the tools we used in this study.
Through these stages, the aim of the research was achieved by generating a model/system. It includes some Web 2.0 tools with recognising the affordances of them and the approaches of using these tools in educational supervision.

The main findings that the level of knowledge among teachers in general rose in all of the tools (YouTube, Twitter, Blogs, Wiki, and Googledocs), and that the level of awareness increased in the use of these tools. Also, the level of confidence was increased in general among the participants after the training programme. The results indicate that participants' familiarity and confidence was significantly affected by the training programme. These findings strongly support incline to further perceive the positive outcomes through their actual experience.

This study concludes that most teachers showed enthusiasm about employing this technology in education and educational supervision after receiving the training programme. The respondents are inclined to agree that using Web 2.0 technologies in educational supervision is crucial, especially after knowing the affordance of Web 2.0 tools. The affordance of Web
2.0 tools was perceived to be a key tool in facilitating supervisors' work. Finally, there is a positive and significant relationship between knowing the affordances and teachers' attitude towards using Web 2.0 technologies.

Cardtopost.com: Media Social Network for Multicultural Education Application

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Abstrak: Indonesia is a country that has many islands so often called an archipelago. Indonesian society born from several tribes, cultures, languages, and others. This phenomenon causes become multicultural and multiethnic Indonesia. It is also influenced by the location of Indonesia located in the cluster of a cross between the Asian continent and the continent of Australia as well as a cross between Indonesia and the Pacific Ocean. This is where the role of multicultural education as a science concepts required to convey to the students that Indonesia is a country with diverse cultures. Various methods that have been done are festivals, fairs, and carnivals culture. Indonesia's cultural diversity is something that can not be denied its existence. In the context of understanding pluralistic society, in addition to cultural ethnic groups, Indonesian society is also composed of various cultures territorial area which is the meeting of different cultures ethnic groups that exist in the area. Data collection techniques used are collecting data from various sources on the internet articles, journals, books and literature. Processing data using qualitative data analysis. Once the data is processed to make a discussion that eventually produced the conclusion. Humans are social beings are creatures that require the presence of other beings. Therefore, it is necessary to have social interaction or also called social communication. There is one interesting site which is a local product from Indonesia, namely cardtopost.com. This site is a form of cultural preservation send postcards. By becoming a member who has an account, send each other postcards can be done by all people wherever and whenever. Exchanging postcards can be done by sending the goods that contain elements of culture, such as photographs or drawings of musical instruments, tourist spot, typical food, dance area, and so on.

Keywords: multicultural education, cardtopost.com, social

Challenges of Teaching English as a Foreign Language in the Algerian Universities
Case Study : Faculty of Economics and Management, University of Chlef

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Abstract

The present research tries to highlight a very crucial issue which exists at the level of the faculty of Economics and Management at Chlef university. This issue is represented by the challenges and difficulties which face the teaching / learning process in the faculty on the part of the language teachers, the learners, and the administration staff, including mainly the absence of an agreed syllabus, lack of teaching materials, teachers' qualifications and training, timing, coefficient, and lack of motivation and interest amongst students. All these negative factors make teaching and learning EFL rather ambigious, ineffective and unsatisfactory.

The students at the faculty of Economics and Management are looking for acquiring not only GE but also technical English to respond efficiently to the ongoing changes at the various levels most notably economy, business, technology, and sciences. Therefore, there is a need of ESP programmes which would focus on developing the communicative competence of the learners in their specific field of study or work.

The aim of the present research is to explore the ways of improving the actual situation of teaching English in the faculty of Economics and to make the English courses more purposive, fulfilling and satisfactory. The sample population focused on second and third year students of Economics from different specialties mainly Commercial Sciences, Insurance and Banking, Accountancy and Management. This is done through a questionnaire which inquires students about their learning weaknesses, difficulties and challenges they encounter, and their expectations of the subject matter.

Key words : Faculty of Economics and Management, challenges, teaching/ learning process, EFL, GE, ESP, English courses, communicative competence.

Common Writing Mistakes of Native Arabic Speakers on Facebook.

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Abstract: This study aimed to recognize the common spelling mistakes in the writings of Arabs on facebook. Edward Vockell (1989) mentioned that writing in Arabic, an easy skill for native speakers of Arabic, is found to be a hard skill for second-language (L2) learners of Arabic. The studies of Mohammad Abu Al-Rub (2007), Rhab Abdalla (2013), and Sadeq Al-Yaari (2013) reported various writing errors committed by nonnative Arabic speakers and provided possible explanations for them. However, findings of my study indicated that native Arabic speakers made writing mistakes that were different from non-natives' mistakes. Also, findings from a survey were different from observation conducted on the Facebook posts. Finally, in the survey, females indicated different writing mistakes from males and the observation gave additional results.

Key words: Writing mistakes, Arabic native speakers, Facebook.

Cultural competence and intercultural communication in the didactics of foreign languages

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Abstract

For many years European glottodidactics has been postulating for joining the practice of foreign language teaching with the presentation of the realities and culture which resulted in birth of a new glottodidactic sub-discipline called intercultural glottopedagogics, also known by the following terms: *die Landeskunde* (German), *area studies* (English), *la civilisation* (French), *la civilt* (Italian) or *stranovedenie* (Russian). There is a growing conviction that foreign language teaching should be deeply embedded in the cultural context, including introduction of the culture of a given language area and information about intercultural differences, since despite the fact that in currently dominating communicative approach the key didactic objective is the ability of efficient communication, the indisputable fact is the threat of the efficiency of the communication in the given language posed by the lack of so called intercultural competence. It is defined as the ability to communicate with the members of different cultural circles and nations and the ability to build the „bridges of agreement", in other words – complex ability to manage oneself in the complicated reality of multilingual and multi-cultural contemporary world. The objective of my paper is the reflection upon cultural problems on the ground of foreign languages, current issues of intercultural approach in the didactics of foreign languages, place and role of intercultural competence among the goals of language teaching, as well as mutual relationship between cultural and communicative competence, theoretical premises and concepts underlying the basis of practical solutions of intercultural teaching and emphasising the function of glottodidactics consisting in approaching the culture of the target language country and explaining intercultural differences, hence the outline of the problems of intercultural tendencies on the ground of contemporary glottodidactics.

Keywords: glottodidactics, teaching foreign languages, intercultural competence, intercultural communication.

Introduction

The starting point of the discussion on glottodidactic aspects[1] of multiculturalism[2] should be the analysis of the development of methodical views, in which one has to notice a few turning-points concerning the goals of language teaching and their significant influence on perception of the essence of contemporary teaching and learning of a foreign language.

The first of them was establishing that the sub-systems of language are not the primary objective of the foreign language didactics, but language skills. The other was taking notice of the functionality of a language, hence pointing out that through a statement we realise particular language activities, which within the framework of a discussion can occur in various configurations, usually in some subordinate dependencies in relation to dominating language activity, so adopting the communication competence[3] as the leading term. The third one was emphasising the link between language and culture, and including in the communication process the variation of terms, norms and behaviours deriving from the cultural distinctness of the participants of this process allowing to find oneself in the communication situation with a representative of a different culture (Myczko, 2005: 25).

Without any doubt, perceiving interculturalism in foreign language teaching[4] has a specific dimension which results from close relationship between language and culture[5], because it constitutes the system serving the orientation and identification within a given society, which influences perception, thinking, valuation and activities of the representatives of this society. This is why the lack of possibility of acquiring the language without taking into consideration socio-cultural context is emphasised – after all „language communication is often embedded in the situations which are defined by culture" (Myczko, 2005: 28). Aleksander (1982: 5) emphasises that „language as a social creation is an inseparable part of civilisation and culture of a given society. It reflects the differences in the way of seeing the reality beyond the language, as well as patterns and norms of behaviour", Lachowicz (1987: 141) notices that „utterances deprived of social and cultural context can be grammatically correct but inappropriate as far as situation requirements are concerned" while Torenc (2007: 9) rightly states that „learning foreign languages is at the same time learning different cultures, and learning different cultures is inseparably connected with learning languages" hence the emphasis of the role of culture in foreign languages teaching and turning the attention of glottodidactics towards intercultural communication[6].

[1] About glottodidactic see: Dakowska, 1994; Dakowska, 2002; Grucza, 1974; Grucza, 1976; Grucza, 1978; Grucza, 1979; Grucza, 1985.

[2] Problems of multiculturality are discussed in a number of Polish publications such as: Bartz, 1997; Bednarek, 1999; Kempny, Kapciak, Łodziński, 1997; Mamzer, 2002; Torenc, 2007.

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Materials and Method

For many years European glottodidactics has been postulating for joining the practice of foreign language teaching with the presentation of the realities and culture which resulted in birth of a new glottodidactic sub-discipline called intercultural glottopedagogics, also known by the following terms: die Landeskunde (German), area studies (English), la civilisation (French), la civilt (Italian) or stranovedenie (Russian). Lack of a similar term relating to the didactics of oriental languages and aspect of presenting oriental cultures and explanation of intercultural differences does not mean that teaching of all languages as well should not be deeply embedded in cultural context, since despite the fact that in currently dominating communicative approach the basic didactic goal is the ability of efficient communication, the undisputable fact is the threat of the efficiency of communication in a given language by the lack of so called intercultural competence[7]. It is defined as the ability to communicate with the representatives of different cultural circles and nations and the ability to build the „bridges of agreement", in other words - complex ability to manage oneself in the complicated reality of multilingual and multi-cultural contemporary world.[8]

Obtaining such a competence is particularly emphasises by so called intercultural approach to teaching a foreign language with the elements of realities and culture, which is the third – the other two being factographic and communicative – way of approaching the presentation of these issues in the didactics of foreign language teaching (see: Pauldrach, 1992; Gębal, 2006). Each of them had taken the advantage of the achievements of the earlier ones, enriching them with key assumptions of their contemporary psychology, pedagogy, didactics and cultural studies, so they often functioned parallelly and complemented one another.

The oldest of these, the cognitive approach (also known as factographic) was based on conveying the knowledge about the country of a given language with the emphasis on presentation of its history and so called high culture, which in relation to course books meant mixing the cultural and realistic themes in the reading material included in subsequent lessons as the background for the presentation of introduced vocabulary or grammar, but not in the form of special complementary chapters which would not induce grammar or lexical progress.

Communication turn which has been present in foreign language teaching from 1970's has significantly influenced the change of the role of realities and culture in the process of the acquisition of foreign languages. The main goal of a new approach was the formation of the ability of using a foreign language in the same way as native speakers do, so the centre of gravity was transferred onto the development of communicative skills[9], while teaching the realities and culture was – according to this concept – understood as yet another experience of the learners, which widened their mental horizons and helped them to understand the phenomena of daily culture. Course books contained many authentic texts, plain facts had substituted the guidelines on how to react in the situations which the students might encounter in inter-personal contacts. Communicative approach integrated language

[7] The issue of intercultural competence is discussed by: Bandura, 2000; Bandura, 2001; Grucza, 1992; Łyp-Bielecka, 2005; Mackiewicz, 2005; Myczko, 2005; Torenc, 2007; Żylińska, 2003.

[8] Analysis of the place, the role and the measurement of inetercultural competence among the objectives of linguistic education can be referred to in: Myczko, 2005; Komorowska, 1996.

[9] First communicative textbook of Polish is: W. Martyniuk, *Mów do mnie jeszcze!,* Kraków 1986.

teaching with learning about realities and culture, it was directed to the development of socio-linguist competence of the students; its characteristic features include the integration of teaching realities and culture with teaching the language, directing the attention to everyday culture with simultaneous decrease of the role of high culture, matching the subjects to the interests and needs of the students and encouraging them to undertake communication activities within acquired content, various utilisation of factual knowledge.

Intercultural approach which was promoted until the second half of 1980's moved forward the achievement of the above mentioned intercultural competence, which can be defined as „the complex of analytic and strategic skills in relationship with the representatives of other nationalities. Through the knowledge about other cultures and culturally conditioned forms of behaviour, through their unbiased analysis intercultural competence facilitates sensitizing in relation to culturally conditioned difference, as well as change of the existing attitudes and widens the possibility of interpretation and actions of a given individual through such approach" (Zawadzka, 2000: 67). New approach emphasises close connection between the language and culture, combination of language and psychological skills including the awareness of the existence of various activities and communicative behaviours deriving from the membership in various cultural circles; ability to acquire and utilise the strategies of distinguishing the meanings from the contexts and analysis of possible misunderstandings in communication, the ability to identify various communication styles, but most of all – the readiness to empathize with culturally unfamiliar perspectives, in other words – sociological and cultural sensitizing. Characteristic features of intercultural approach to the realities and culture are: culturally conditioned deepening of the ability to communicate, the attempt to liberate oneself from the stereotypes of perception of unfamiliar cultures, turning the attention to the existence of different, culturally conditioned interpretations of words and patterns of behaviour.

Combination of the achievements of all the discussed approaches to the realities and culture is the eclectic grasp which currently dominates in the didactics of foreign language teaching, since „without basic knowledge about the country of the taught language (cognitive approach) it is not possible to try out the social and cultural skills which condition the proper interaction in target language (communicative approach) and aspiration to the understanding of unfamiliar cultures (intercultural approach)" (Gębal, 2004: 130). It is obvious that each of the mentioned ways of presentation of cultural and realistic issues have imprinted their mark on developed concepts and syllabi which transferred the theoretical assumptions to practical grounds.

In contemporary times, in the era of international communication, the issue of intercultural communication and its implication in a foreign language teaching process interested socio-linguists, sociologists and educationalists specialising in foreign languages. It is quite new academic discipline, which was born in the United States of America, the most scientific research is being run in that country, while in Europe the interest in this issue increased after publishing Common European Framework of Reference for Languages by the Council of Europe in 2001. The issues connected with interculturalism are placed on an honourable spot. The document distinguishes general language competence, which is composed of personal conditioning (savoir-ʹtre) – individual traits of a person, their character, attitudes, motivation, system of values; declarative knowledge (savoir) - knowledge deriving from life experiences and school education, knowledge about the world, socio-cultural awareness and sensitivity; procedural knowledge (savoir-faire) - ability to use the possessed declarative knowledge, life, social, professional and intercultural skills; the ability to learn (savoir-apprendre) - communicative and linguistic sensitivity and general sensitivity and phonetic skills, learning techniques and heuristic skills. And linguistic communication competence which is composed of the following components: socio-linguistic element - knowledge and ability to use such social communication conventions as polite regulations, rules of communication depending on age, sex and social status, communication rituals, language style and register, social and regional variations of the

language, and other socio-cultural factors of particular meaning in inner- and cross cultural communication; linguistic element - knowledge and ability to use systemic knowledge about the language such as phonology, morphology, syntax, lexis and semantics independently of socio-linguistic and pragmatic aspects connected with usage of given language forms; pragmatic element - knowledge and ability to use the knowledge about the functionality of language forms (pragmatic functions, acts of speech) cohesion and coherence, functions and determinants of style (irony, parody, etc.), scripts of standard conversations and negotiations.

In Poland[10], the interest in the problems of teaching realities and culture in relation to both foreign language and Polish as a foreign language started as late as in the 1980, when communicative approach appeared, and the discussion on the culture studies in teaching foreign languages[11] started which has been going on until present day, however, the first symposium dedicated to the role and place of culture studies in foreign language teaching took place in 1977 in Zielona Góra. Conveying the information concerning the history, culture and tradition of a given language area to the foreigners has almost always been a the part of the process of teaching this language, however, in the earlier methodological essays and course books, the issues concerning realities and culture were not present in the same degree and way as can be seen from mid 1990's. These problems were discussed in the widest manner on national Polish conference "Didactics of foreign languages versus cultural competence and intercultural communication. Theory – practice – perspectives" which took place in Poznań. The conference resulted in the publication bearing the same title, which was edited by Mackiewicz. As we can read in the introduction: „Conviction of the fundamental meaning of thinking in intercultural categories in the process of foreign language teaching as well as of the role of socio-cultural competence for both teachers and students is common for many papers. (…) Widely accepted demand of intercultural approach in glottodidactics is often confronted with dull reality, where intercultural content is, more often than not, sidetracked or not present at all. (…) Foreign languages courses are just the place for intercultural meetings. Presentation of cultural standards of the countries of given target language or even referring to stereotypes relating to these countries and nations often lead to reflection upon one's own culture, correction of the attitudes and behaviours and readiness to minimize the tensions in contacts with representatives of a different culture, that is to shaping intercultural competence." (Mackiewicz, 2004: 11). The content of all the articles and papers clearly points out the necessity to tie practical teaching of a foreign language with the issues including such subjects as history of the countries of given language area, history of literature and culture of those countries, phenomena of folklore, customs and traditions, as well as socio-cultural and socio-linguistic issues, for – as Mazur (1994: 36) emphasizes - „the bigger the socio-cultural gap between the sender and the receiver, the more often it happens that the communication message – next to some common elements - contains components which are removed from each other and cause misunderstandings. The latter may originate not from the content of the message itself, but rather from its interpretation caused, for example, by the difference in custom and moral norms, hence the necessity to introduce the students to basic elements of the knowledge about Polish culture and society."

[10] Social and cultural aspects of teaching foreign languages in glottodidactics on the example of chosen countries are discussed by Banach, 2003.

[11] The culture studies in teaching foreign languages see: Augustynowicz, 2004; Banach, 2003; Derenowski, 2006; Kwolek, 1995; Polok, 2004; Siatkowski, 1977; Żmijewska, 1983.

Results

The key elements of intercultural competence which has become one of main goals of language educations are thought to be: particular supply of possessed information concerning unfamiliar reality, ability to interpret foreign culture against one's own culture, as well as one's own culture against foreign one, the ability to see and analyse one's own attitude and indications of cultural forms of behaviour, ability to identify misunderstanding and ability to widen the knowledge through conscious approach towards cultural dissimilarity. This knowledge consists of such groups as: daily living; conditions of living; interpersonal relations; systems of values; views and attitudes; body language; social conventions; ritual behaviour, so particular information about culture, history, literature, lifestyle, system of values and mentality of a given social group, which knowledge, understanding and ability to use make up for intercultural sensitivity and translate into particular social, life's or professional skills.

Discussion

Development of already mentioned intercultural competence is closely connected with given stages of teaching a language, since omitting specific cultural norms by a foreigner uttering a communicate containing many language mistakes will be accepted by the native speaker with understanding, whereas the ability of fluent and correct usage of a language is also connected with the expectation of adequately better knowledge of a foreign culture. Choice of the subjects and content of the syllabus at the basic level should enable the students to communicate efficiently in daily situations as well as expressing basic communicative intentions, which is why it is necessary to convey the information about the most important socio-cultural conventions used in communication in a given language. Having finished the course on A level, the students should have no major difficulties in taking part in social conversations and form their utterances in such a way that they are understood for other interlocutors linguistically and socio-culturally in the range of verbal contact and social rites. People starting a language course should also be aware of the basic facts concerning the knowledge about the countries of a given language area which facilitate them functioning in those countries and will make them able to undertake the attempt of understanding the ways of behaviour of the natives.

Level	Language fluency level	Socio-linguistic propriety
A1	Person using the language on this level is able to use and understand colloquial expressions and very simple statements concerning every day needs. They can formulate questions concerning private life, for example about place where people live, people they know and things they possess and is able to answer the	Person using the language on this level is able to enter into basic social relations using polite expressions such as greetings and farewell phrases, introductory phrases and expressions such as please, thank you, I'm sorry.

	questions of such types. They are able to introduce themselves and others. They are able to participate in a simple conversation under the condition that the interlocutor speaks slowly and clearly and is willing to help.	
A2	Person using the language on this level understands utterances and frequently used expressions concerning everyday living. They are able to communicate in routine, simple communication situations requiring only direct exchange of statements on known and typical subjects. They can describe their origin and environment they are living in, and bring up the subjects connected with the most basic needs of everyday life.	Person using the language on this level is able to understand and simply express basic language functions such as obtaining and exchange of information, expressing views and convictions. They are able to participate in social conversations in simple yet efficient way, using the most popular expressions and conversation patterns. They are able to manage themselves in very short social conversations using typical polite greeting and addressative expressions. They are able to formulate invitations, propositions or requests for forgiveness etc. and they are able to react to such expressions.

Table 1: Language fluency level and socio-linguistic propriety – level A. (Europejski system opisu kształcenia językowego: uczenie się, nauczanie, ocenianie, 2003: 33,109)

The content of syllabus which is approved to be realised on the level of language proficiency include general and specific subjects closely connected with own interests of the students. Graduates of B level courses should be able to use the foreign language fluently and spontaneously, in the way allowing them to communicate freely with native speakers. They should be able to differentiate and use the right variation (formal or informal) of the language in accordance to the situation, as well as know the majority of socio-cultural conventions used in communication in a given language including verbal and non-verbal contact and social rituals. Presentation of the knowledge about the countries of a given language area should be complemented with elements comparable with Polish culture.

Level	Language fluency level	Socio-linguistic propriety
B1	Person using the language on this level understands the meaning of the main woof of the message contained in clear, standard utterances which concern known issues and events typical for work, school, leisure, etc. They can manage themselves in most communication situations which can happen when travelling to the region where given language is spoken. They are able to build simple and coherent spoken or written forms on the subjects which are known to them or interest them. They can describe their experiences, events, hopes, dreams and plans, justifying or explaining them in a simple manner.	Person using language on this level is able to express and understand a wide range of language function using the most common forms of their expression in neutral register of the utterance. They are aware of the most important polite conventions and able to act accordingly. They are aware and can look for the signs of the most crucial differences between their own and foreign society as far as customs, traditions, stances, beliefs and values are concerned.

B2	Person using the language on this level understands the meaning of the main woof of the message contained in complex texts about specific and abstract subjects, including the understanding of a discussion on technical terms they specialise in. They are able to use the language so fluently and spontaneously to run a normal conversation with a native speaker. They are able to formulate clear and detailed oral or written utterances and explain their views on issues being the subject of the discussion considering pros and cons of different solutions.	Person using the language on this level can express themselves in convincing, clear and polite way using formal or informal register of the utterance – according to the situation and interlocutor. They are able to participate actively in the group discussion, even if the conversation is quick and colloquial. They are able to run a conversation with native speakers without amusing or irritating them unintentionally. They are able to express themselves adequately to situation and avoid blatant mistakes.

Table 2: Language fluency level and socio-linguistic propriety – level B. (Europejski system opisu kształcenia językowego: uczenie się, nauczanie, ocenianie, 2003: 33,109)

Subject and syllabus on the advanced level include general and specialised language. The graduates of C level courses should be able to use the language fluently and spontaneously in all the communicative situations with native speakers. They should be able to differentiate the shades of meaning and use the variation of language which is appropriate to the situation, what should be facilitated by the knowledge of idioms and slang expressions. During the course on such a level, the students should learn socio-cultural conventions used in a given language including verbal and non-verbal contact, social rituals; they should also possess a substantial knowledge about the countries of a given language area.

Level	Language fluency level	Socio-linguistic propriety
C1	Person using the language on this level understands wide range of difficult, lengthy text and is able to see hidden meanings expressed indirectly. They are able to form fluent, spontaneous utterances quite easily finding the right expressions. They can easily and efficiently use the language in social, public, educational or professional contacts. They are able to form well-built, detailed oral or written forms concerning complex problems, properly and ably using the rules of the organisation of the utterance, and indicators of conjunction of the text.	Person using the language on this level can identify in a wide range idiomatic and colloquial expressions, noticing the changes of the register of the utterance, however, from time to time they need to make sure about some details, especially when they are dealing with unknown accent. They are able to understand the language of the films, including slang and idiomatic expressions. They are able to use the language in social situations in an efficient and flexible way, including allusive, emotional and humorous usage of the language.
C2	Person using the language on this level can easily understand practically everything they hear or read. They can abridge the information originating from different sources (written or spoken) coherently reporting the theses and explanations they contain. They are able to express their thoughts in a fluent, spontaneous and precise manner, subtly differentiating meaning shades even in the most complex	Person using the language on this level shows good command of idiomatic and colloquial expressions and is aware of connoted meanings. They are able to fully notice socio-linguistic and socio-cultural implications accompanying the utterances of native speakers and are able to react properly. They are able to act as a go-between in communication with the representatives of their own and foreign society, considering socio-cultural and socio-

	utterances.	linguistic differences.

Table 3: Language fluency level and socio-linguistic propriety – level C (Europejski system opisu kształcenia językowego: uczenie się, nauczanie, ocenianie, 2003: 33,109)

Thus, the appropriate place of cultural aspects accompanying language behaviour and culturally determined concepts accompanying this behaviour is crucial element of communication competence on every stage of teaching, for language is not only the information channel in the communication process, but each behaviour is a defined communication. Omitting culture and reality elements (or elements conditioned by reality and culture) in the language acquisition process can contribute to the hindrance of communication and adaptation of new cultural codes, or even cause the phenomenon of so called „cultural shock" in the student. Hence the necessity of introducing lexical material marked culturally from the first level of teaching and gradual deepening of the language competence and knowledge of the culture with its specific elements, approaching the world of values, mentality and stereotypes of a given cultural circle or nation. Certainly, intercultural competence is essential supplementation of the goals of language education in general, including Polish taught to foreigners; its development favours fuller realisation of the superior objective of this education which is communication competence.

Conclusions

To sum up, it is worth to cite the theses on the role of culture studies in teaching foreign languages. Firstly, the contribution to peaceful coexistence of people.[12] Culture studies play central role in this aspect, because it presents the reality of the country of a given language and cultural identity of its citizens. Secondly, the sensitization and development of the ability to deal with unfamiliar cultures through the assessment, relativisation and presentation in juxtapose with the reality of those who learn about culturally unfamiliar phenomena and not by conveying information and plain facts, because in such a way only will they be shown and prejudices and stereotypes removed, while tolerance will be supported. Finally – the lecturers should be the ambassadors of the region of a given language through their own experience and proper choice of didactic material, good education and participation in professional development courses. Describing the didactic and methodical assumptions of conveying reality and cultural information, we can point out the necessity of the form of active confrontation/discussion with foreign cultures through the choice of appropriate material and way of conducting the classes including authentic material, various points of view and contradictions existing in a given society, historical subjects and texts informing about the connections between past, present and future; reference to the traces of foreign cultures in the students' country, and finally – encouraging the students to creative work, awakening the curiosity and desire to discover the new and strange. So important is the role of the lecturers in the realisation of the assumptions of cultural studies[13], the necessity of education and

[12] Numerous Polish publications are dedicated to the issue of intercultural education. The most important of them include: Lewowicki, 2000; Lewowicki, 2002; Nasalska, 1999; Nikitorowicz, 1995; Nikitorowicz, 1996; Nikitorowicz, 2000; Nikitorowicz, 2001; Nikitorowicz, 2002; Nikitorowicz, 2005; Torenc, 2007.

[13] The role of the lecturers in the realisation of the assumptions of cultural studies see: Bandura, 2003; Bayer, 1995; Bayer, 1998; Gajda, 1995; Kębłowska, 2003; Kurtyka, 2005; Kwiatkowska, 1997; Mackiewicz, 2009;

professional development, cooperation in preparing the material, exchange of information, preparation of appropriate didactics and methodology of the lessons about realities and culture, which should be fully integrated with practical language teaching.

In the literature discussing the issues of the didactics of foreign languages such terms as cultural studies, socio-cultural studies, linguistic and cultural competence, socio-linguistic competence, linguistic-cultural studies and socio-linguistics, etc. are more and more common. The discussion dedicated to the range of material and ways of teaching culture and realities integrated with language teaching has been going on for years, while glottodidactic syllabi contain more and more cultural texts of different types presenting cultural and realistic issues which proves that widely understood knowledge about the countries of a given language area becomes an integral part of foreign language teaching.

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Distance Education: From Deep Disappointment to New Optimism

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Abstract: The demand for higher education continues to rise. The vast expansion of undergraduate and graduate numbers over the same period indicated that a university diploma is accepted as a good value and a key to better life even at the face of the remorseless rise in the cost of getting it. On the other hand, a university education is a good preparation for working life and citizenship in the 21st century. The knowledge requirements are more pressing as the world gets more complicated and economies are transforming to knowledge economies. Furthermore, it also is in the interests of the societies and nations to invest in their people because returns to them are enormous. . So the economy needs it, people needs it, societies and governments needs it. There is demand from all sides. But unfortunately this demand is not fulfilled. Approximately 40% of total high school graduates do not make it to universities for different reasons. Within this paradigm, introduction of web based distance education opportunities raised great hopes. Indeed, an appropriately constructed system could make miracles by overcoming physical obstructions as well as financial hardships. But the retention rates among the pioneering US Universities distance learning programs created a huge disappointment. Underneath this failure lies the fact that learning is a "social experience". Overlooking this phenomenon is a sure remedy for failure. This paper focuses on this aspect of distance learning, and investigates hybrid approaches, flip-class applications and newest web systems incorporated to existing online applications.

Key words: Education, distance, social, online

Introduction

The demand for higher education continues to rise despite the fact that the cost of higher education is increasing faster than inflation (Barber et al., 2013). National Center for Education statistics (NCES, 2014) points an increase of more than 40% at the prices for undergraduate tuition, room and board after adjustment for inflation, in a decade; from 2000 to 2010, while the percentage of students admitted to universities raised from 40% to 60% of the total high school graduates among OECD countries (OECD, 2012). The vast expansion of undergraduate and graduate numbers over the same period indicated that a university diploma is accepted as a good value and a key to better life even at the face of the remorseless rise in the cost of getting it. By all manner of means, higher levels of education designate more income over the lifetime and possibly better life. Graduation signals a profoundly different life with much better prospects. There is material evidence that those with undergraduate and postgraduate degrees out-earn their un-credentialed peers (Barber at al., 2013). A recent study conducted by Lindley & Machin (2013) from Sutton Trust, found that, *"on average, a master's degree holder in the UK earned £5,500 more per year than someone with a bachelor's degree, and in the US the premium is even higher, at $16,500 per year"*.

On the other hand, a university education is a good preparation for working life and citizenship in the 21st century (Smith, 2010). The need for a university education is more material nowadays than ever. The world is far more arduous ever before. The knowledge requirements are more pressing. As the world gets more complicated, people needed to be more educated. A university education seems critical in today's society. Because the economies are transforming to knowledge economies, to acquire a job, to function correctively, even to make it as adult, one will need higher education. Not only in the sense of reaching higher employment opportunities, but also for entrepreneurship. Even the most rudimentary tasks necessitate considerable accumulation of knowledge and deeper understanding about the workings of the business life.

Furthermore, it also is in the interests of the societies and nations to invest in their people because returns to them are enormous (Barber at al., 2013). Contribution of the educated to the society materialize in the taxes paid, jobs created, and even in the mature and civilized societal relationships and less crime rates. Conversely the social and personal costs of quashing the energies of youth are tremendous. So are the economic

costs (Mourshed et al., 2013). The cost to the economy of not being able to re-engage young people into the labor market calculated as a staggering €153 billion in 2011 annually by The European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions' 2012 report (Mascherini et al., 2012). If young people cannot secure decent jobs and the sense of coherence and respect that comes with them, it will be no surprise to encounter dissent, anger or even violence from them (Mourshed et al., 2013). Brown & Adler (2008) cites [Sir John] Daniel (1996), who warned that more than one-third of the world's population is under 20, amounting to more than 35 million people qualified to enter a university who have no place to go. To be able to furnish the opportunity of a university education to every eager teenager fresh out of high school should be a viable future.

Hence, the need for "a better educated generation", in the broadest and most profound sense of that word, is crucial (Barber et al., 2013). But how can education be made more accessible to the young despite the shortcomings on the supply side and hindrances of costs?

Online education

Internet and connectedness together with globalization made profound transformations everywhere. From media to communication to banking and finance, it disrupted the mediums of businesses, alternated markets and changed every business it's touched. Although higher education seemed to resist those changes, a hurricane is at sight which will cause devastation to structures and operations that require reorientation of purpose and rebuilding (Senoir & Swailes, 2010). Seemingly unshakable posture of the universities are changing, or at the threshold of change. Indeed, entirely new models of universities are emerging to respond and exploit the radically changed circumstances that are the result of globalization and the digital revolution. In fact it is imperative that there needs to be a rethink of the business model and deep, radical and urgent transformation in higher education system.

Concept of the traditional university, conventional lecturing, and even the understanding of why's how's of research are under pressure. Lecturers or a university library no longer have the monopoly (or at least hegemony) over information and knowledge they once had. After all, anyone with an Internet connection can find multi-gigabytes of data, and multiple interpretations of them from multitude of perspectives with a few mouse clicks. The sheer quantity of information has grown exponentially, and it is feely available. This so called '*ubiquity of information and the near-zero cost of storing and transmitting it*' (Barber at al., 2013) contributed to allow the emergence of multiple forms of non-university and non-public providers operating in industries other than the traditionally-conceived education industry (Gallagher, 2013) to conduct research and offer degrees.

In this landscape it is considerably arduous to convince the so called generation Y to stick to accustomed educational patterns. Today's teenagers, if they have an interest in something, they go learn it as fast as they possibly can. They are always connected. Multitasking seems so natural to them. Because they're so demand-oriented, it is quite hard for them to fit classic education system sitting in a classroom for six hours, in a chair, looking straight ahead at a talking head, when they can find that information like that on the Internet (Smith, 2010). Therefore the pressures of disparity are mounting from all of the hubs. Traditional university is ripe for innovation and university leaders need to take control of their own destiny and seize the opportunities open to them through technology to provide broader, deeper and more exciting education to create value for their students.

The pressure to change and the allure of quick and easy money was there even from the very beginning. Quite a bunch of universities tried it. But the early results resurfaced considerable disappointment. We've seen some traditional schools try to develop online programs by providing free access to a wide range of courses and other educational materials to students. It looked like a sound business decision too; recording the lecture of a renowned professor and make it available on line. If 50 people watch it good, 5000 better, and why not 5 million. There happened to be a tendency to turn online education to a cash cow, by putting as much students as possible in a virtual classroom with one instructor online. That's a classic "virtual model". By just re-organizing the educational stuff, uploading them to web and expecting to see students flocking is a huge misconception. There's a lot more to online learning. Creating conditions to engage the "disengaged" youth segment in such dynamic yet bounded contexts requires different kinds of knowledge and understanding (Mourshed et al., 2013). Without actually being in a classroom or even in a campus, the daily proceedings of life cover most of the available attention and motivation to focus becomes extremely difficult. A lot of online students tend to feel lost. That is why retention levels are extremely high and graduation rates are a dismal 14 percent (Laseter, 2012).

The social dimension of classic education

The vast amount of information and knowledge available online in internet greatly enhanced the accessibility of students without guidance. Yet, determining the relevance of them, creation of new understanding and capabilities based on them and elevating the students from training to education resides at the

center of the mission of universities (Laseter, 2012). Universities rely on a complex blend of knowledge, skill, theory, disposition and values in their work to improve student learning by creating and employing *'artifacts'*, such as policies, programs, and procedures where all of them are critical to creating conditions to improve learning for students (Halverson, 2004). Indeed, despite we have all the information in internet, we don't just go and learn to be engineers. There is another crucial kind of ingredient to learning which is being a faculty member.

Part of the whole advantage of going to a campus-based university is the campus environment: having other students that you're actually interacting with, per se; talking to your professors; and taking the right classes needed to be taking in terms of graduating (Smith, 2010). There really is a sense that higher education is an enduring value based on not colleting knowledge but gaining the capacity for intellectual inquiry. And this kind of deeper level of understanding can naturally and efficiently leveraged by interactions within the group. For students, almost always, the learning outside a classroom is as meaningful as that inside.

Thus, the vital part of a university education is the experience: the experience of meeting fellow students in vibrant academic surroundings, the opportunity to socialize with like-minded peers in an educational setting, pursuing stimulating activities (Laseter, 2012) to lead an organization, play sport, engage in drama or politics or other possible commotions, and of course to make friends, being together in 'cool' places with good coffee, wine and music, interacting at the library as well as accommodation facilities and even nightlife (Barber at al., 2013).

This perspective shifts the focus of our attention from 'what' to 'how', from 'content' to 'context'. Indeed focusing to the learning activities and human interactions around which content is situated, helps to explain the effectiveness of study groups. Steady interaction, simultaneous feedback in an emotion intense environment greatly enhances understandings, to clarify areas of uncertainty or confusion, improve their grasp of the material. Moreover, "one of the quickest ways to learn something new, and to practice it, is to teach others how to do it" says Gallo (2012). This practice is at its best in study groups where students take on the role of teacher to help other group members benefit from their understanding (Brown & Adler, 2008).

Does these mean that on-line education is inherently crippled and has no real value for higher education? Of course not. The issue is to create an on-line learning perspective integrated with the necessary social element.

A new online ecosystem which contain the social element

Some of the universities went on-line by recording lectures and expect students to review them at their leisure, some of them went further with experimenting with flipped classrooms, with the professors acting as facilitators and activators rather than lecturers. All these so called 'blended approaches' coupling the virtual and the real as a continuum rather than a contrast, aim to physically touching the students one way or another to ensure real-world interaction. Some universities are organizing immersive summer experiencing camps, while others scheduling monthly gatherings under the supervision of the professors for real interaction in the remote campuses established through partnership with local institutions. Providing 'the experience' elsewhere as meet-ups and conventions of learning communities are designed.

But can the social element be provided on-line also?

University of Phoenix is experimenting what is called asynchronous on-line learning (Smith, 2010). Professor leave all the stuff related to the subject, including recorded lecture if s/he feels necessary, together with PPT presentations, documents, web source addresses whatsoever. Students are expected to go over them and at some point, post responses or thoughts on an online bulletin board and communicate with the classmates, objecting the ideas of others and/or presenting new approaches. They participate in the discussion the entire week. Keeping the discussion in mind students may have 'a-ha' moments anytime anywhere, and connect, challenge and be challenged with a lot time to re-evaluate and re-argue. It's not like you're segmented out two hours today to go to school. It's kind of on your mind the entire day. After the discussions mature, professor assigns a work to each student completed and forwarded individually. Students are not requested to be present on the computer watching a lecture at a given hour. Whenever they have their downtime, they go online, read, reflect, and whenever they feel ripe on the subject they comment and answer. The group is small, interactive and collaborative. It is social and discussion based, loaded with a lot of critical thinking, research and debate. It's not lecture-based. Students do not have the chance loaf around and evade contribution, they have to participate. Contribution is mandatory

Indeed, in a report issued at 2010, US Department of Education finds evidence that "*the quality of teaching and learning online can be better than face-to-face, not least because all the interactions are explicit and can be analyzed and improved upon, rather than taking place behind lecture room doors*" (USDE, 2010). Consequently students are working a lot harder in an online class that in a traditional class, not just because contribution is mandatory, but also because they engage in though discussion and debate with the classmates.

They don't bounded with the theory only, but also how those theories apply to their life and what they're doing at work or what they're doing in their daily practices.

Brown & Adler (2008) cites the comments of David Wiley at Utah State University about an online course as:

> *"The writing students did in the first few weeks was interesting but average. In the fourth week, however, I posted a list of links to all the student blogs and mentioned the list on my own blog. I also encouraged the students to start reading one another's writing. The difference in the writing that next week was startling. Each student wrote significantly more than they had previously. Each piece was more thoughtful. Students commented on each other's writing and interlinked their pieces to show related or contradicting thoughts" (Brown & Adler, 2008)*

When that happens, and you get that kind of engagement, the interest level goes up, and the retention levels improve.

There are other very successful examples in which technology drastically transformed the conventional understanding of education by leveraging the potential of "*social learning that can better serve the needs of twenty-first century students*" (Brown & Adler, 2008) such as; Terra Incognita Project (University of Southern Queensland, 2014), which has built a classroom in Second Life, the online virtual world that has attracted millions of users, CyberOne: Law in the Court of Public Opinion (Harvard Law School and Harvard Extension School, 2014) course, and, Bugscope Project (Beckman Institute for Advanced Science and Technology at the University of Illinois, 2014) which gives students access to a scanning electron microscope located at the university.

These examples indicate the emergence of a new form of technology-enhanced learning which goes beyond providing free access to traditional course materials on line. They offer social learning platforms where groups, even "communities of learners" establish, who interact, debate and actively co-create knowledge. Being online creates innumerable opportunities for students to find and join niche communities where they can benefit from the opportunities for productive inquiry, peer-based learning and distributed cognitive apprenticeship (Brown & Adler, 2008).

Conclusion

Historically, a university diploma has acted as a proxy for qualification (Mourshed et al., 2013), and having a degree implied the possession of a strong theoretical foundation and a keen understanding of its real-life applications (Wong, 2012). However, this firm belief seems to be in peril. The economy and technology now change too quickly and the institutions of higher education fail to meet the needs of employers. While a diploma or degree is still a highly prized asset, ability to build on foundational knowledge and adapt is evidently not granted. The compatibility between the demands of the sophisticated global labor market and yield of university education seem to break off. A survey conducted by McKinsey (Barton, 2012) revealed that "some 40% of employers believed that they struggle to fill entry-level jobs because the candidates have inadequate skills while 70% of them blamed inadequate training for the shortfall in skilled workers". A recent (November 2012) poll for Policy Exchange (Burns, 2012) in the UK found nearly half (47%) of the people questioned across the UK said there was too much focus on academic subjects at school and not enough practical, job-related training for teenagers and only 18% said universities had the right balance between academic and technical subjects. These disclosures reflected on the rising questions about the value of higher education. According to Karin Fisher (2013) "Boeing Company in 2008 began to rank colleges based on how well their graduates perform within the corporation; it plans to conduct the same evaluation again this year". Google has a similar intention; instead of recruiting people with the highest scores from the best colleges, it now hires people who can solve problems and work together. Increasingly the credentials that schools and colleges give out are questioned (Hodges, 2014)

To add to the question, there exist a belief that an online degree can't match an on-campus degree in quality (Smith, 2010). Conducting a literature review about the employer perceptions of online degrees, Columbaro & Monaghan (2009) find that traditional degrees are superior to online degrees in the hiring process (eg: Adams & DeFleur, 2006). There is also strong evidence in favor of the hypothesis that the independent schools inflate grades (Wikström & Wikström, 2005) which further deteriorates the problems of acceptance of online degrees. These perceptions propagate the problem of assuring employers and the wider public about the quality of the degree from an online university. This is a profound matter to be dealt with. In the final analysis universities are relaying on reputation. If their degrees don't produce real results, and if they fail to convince employers about the competencies of their graduates, then employers won't hire them. Their future is the ability to transform a student into something that's more valuable for their employers, and to be able to prove it in practice. Ultimately, universities are relying on reputation.

Ironically, on line learning in these respects contains profound advantages. It has vide variety of much different tools available now. Availability of most advanced simulations and games, expeditious accesibility to

most relevant, most up to date and best content from avast resource base, and unlimited capacity to provide mentoring can make a very strong argument that this is a superior way to do it.

And also there is the cost factor. In fact, cost is the top barrier for enrollment in higher education. In a recent survey conducted by McKinsey & Company (Mourshed et al., 2013) 31 percent of high-school graduates indicating they did not continue their education because it was too expensive. Contrariwise, costs of getting a degree is increasing perpetually as mentioned before. Customarily, classical indicators of quality for an educational institution like low student:teacher ratio, vast research capacity and incentives to ensure it place a heavy burden on the administrators to rise the tutition fees. Here again online education might offer an effecctive and efficient way out from this straigthened contingency. The average instructional costs of a traditional campus based university is about 70 to 75 percent of tuition (Hansen & Weisbrod, 1970). In online this rate drammatically drops down to 15 percent. The difference gives the administration a lot of ability to lower tuition dramatically and still provide more student services and better online tools. Insisting on small groups, interactive and collaborative, promoting discussion based critical thinking, and especially insisting on social dimension might come out as a sure remedy for success. Curriculum, the teaching, the mentorship and the wider experience of online interaction will grow students to the level of synthesis capacity. Indeed, information is everywhere. Raising issues about its control, about transparency and about synthesis is wisdom. In the era of modern technology, when students can individually and collectively create knowledge themselves, outstanding quality without high fixed costs is both plausible and desirable. And here both technology and the faculty will make the difference. Every professor is a program designer, is a curriculum designer, and is a syllabus designer (Smith, 2010). Developing and promoting them, giving them the tools to be scholar-practitioners, to really understand the changing dynamics of students and students' lives will make them great online teachers. That kind of reputation gets out very, very quickly.

Higher education is heading for deep and radical disruption (Christenses & Eyring, 2011). What seemed unbreakable in the past is shattering in pieces. “The models of higher education that marched triumphantly across the globe in the second half of the 20th century are broken” (Barber at al., 2013). But the new prospects seems brighter and more promising. If all the players in the system, from students to governments to universities, seize the initiative and act ambitiously, creation of better societies is a viable future.

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Docimological study of the contribution of virtual labs for teaching Case: Simulation experiments in physics.

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Abstract: The use of computer tools in the field of teaching (even in any professional field) is more and more important. Scientifics knowledge, disclosed on the Internet, are accessible to all. Online courses, interactive exercises, self-assessment tests and especially virtual laboratories are available to the general public. In some of these laboratories we find representations of experimental devices with some simplification sometimes allowing the user to work on this virtual model using simulations. He has the possibility to change settings and make measurements as he would in a real manipulation, and without expert assistance.

The questions that arise on the effectiveness of the integration of such tools in teaching are:

• What is a virtual laboratory (specifically the simulation) could bring more to teaching?

• Could it improve students' understanding of phenomena?

• And above all, how should be the integration of such tools in the classroom and / or personal work to optimize teaching?

These are the questions we try to answer in this research via a docimological study we have done at the University of Bechar (Algeria) on a course of physical with and without physical simulation experiences for students of 1st year science and technology (usually, these experiments are conducted in Practical Work (PW)).

Keywords: Virtual laboratory, simulation, teaching, practical work.

E-Learning Readiness in Medicine: Turkish Family Medicine (FM) Physicians Case

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ABSTRACT

This research investigates e-learning readiness of family medicine physicians in Turkey. The study measures the level of e-learning readiness of Turkish FM physicians. A cross-sectional survey was delivered online. Overall, to implement successful e-learning framework family medicine physicians in Turkey the results show that overall five areas are ready at Turkish FM but need a few improvements: *equipment/infrastructure*, Online learning style readiness, technological skills readiness, cultural readiness, financial readiness. Three areas are not ready and need some work to improve their readiness: *Human resource readiness, attitude readiness, and environmental readiness.* According to outcomes of e-learning readiness survey Turkish Family Medicine Physicians' e-learning readiness indicate that the physicians are for adopting e-learning . The results show that the level readiness at Turkish FM was ready at 68,28 %, and ready but needs a few improvements for readiness.

Keywords:E-learning readiness, medical education, family medicine phyisicans.

INTRODUCTION

For family medicine (FM) physicians in Turkey, working conditions and office hours are intense. The Minister of Health of Turkey announced by March 2014 that there are 21,300 family medicine physicians in Turkey, with more than 3,500 patients per physician, a very large number. How can training effectively occur when physicians leave their medical center or facility? Heavy workloads mean that family medicine physicians may not be able to find opportunities to take traditional continuing education courses but e-learning provides them with an opportunity to learn anytime and anywhere. Since much knowledge acquisition occurs outside of working hours, e-learning is a supportive tool in continuing medical education.

The research aims to investigate e-learning readiness for proposing a successful e-learning design for family medicine (FM) physicians in Turkey. Subsequently, it intends to determine factors that need to be addressed in order to implement successful e-learning in this context. The proposed research focused on: reviewing and adapting a survey instrument from previous studies; executing a comprehensive e-learning readiness instrument for the research context; assessing family medicine (FM) physicians e-learning readiness; and identifying factors that need to propose a successful e-learning design.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Health professionals need to regularly update their knowledge of changes and advances in medical sciences, technologies and techniques. This activity is often called continuing professional education (CPE) or continuing medical education (CME). CME is usually acknowledged as an indispensable part of the working life of physicians and health professionals (Fordis, King,&Ballantyne, 2005).

The use of e-learning enables medical students to engage with high quality teachers and doctors around the world in both real time and at asynchronous learning events (Edward et al.,2006). In medical education, content can be delivered either synchronously or asynchronously. Synchronous delivery refers to real-time, instructor-led e-learning, where all learners receive information simultaneously and communicate directly with other learners. With asynchronous delivery, the transmission and receipt of information do not occur simultaneously. The learners are responsible for pacing their own self- instruction and learning. The instructor and learners communicate using e-mail or feedback technologies, but not in real time. Synchronous content delivery is hard to achieve in medical education without some preconditions needed such as high speed Internet connections, free access to computers and high computer skills of students and teachers (Masic, 2008).

The e-learning readiness dimensions

A number of instruments have been developed to assess e-learning readiness. Aydin and Tasci (2005) developed an E-Learning Readiness Survey (ELRS) to assess how managers perceive their institution's readiness for e-learning in Turkey and to investigate whether managers' demographic characteristics (gender, age, education, and computer experience) differentiate their perception of institutional readiness for e-learning. The study revealed that although the companies surveyed were ready for e-learning overall, to successfully implement e-learning they needed to improve their human resources. The results confirmed that gender, age, education level, and computer experience had no effect on participants' overall perception of institutional readiness.

An E-Learning Readiness (ELR) instrument was developed by Abas, Kaur, and Harun (2004) to assess e-learning readiness in Malaysia. The study revealed that enablers and receivers were less ready than policy makers and providers. The study confirmed that although there was a large amount of resources for management and technical facilities, more financial assistance was still needed to improve the infrastructure in Malaysia. Enablers and receivers also needed to improve their readiness in three areas: content, technical, and environmental.

An instrument to examine Tertiary Students' Readiness For Online Learning (TSROL) was developed by Pillay, Irving, and Tones (2007). Three key points were identified: (1) the *learner preferences* subscale required revision as it had poor reliability and validity; (2) older students had lower *technical skills* and *computer self-efficacy* than younger students; and (3) TSROL can be improved by adopting a more multidimensional interpretation of the *learning preferences* and *attitudes towards computers.*

Sadik (2007) developed an instrument to measure individual readiness to develop and implement e-learning (IRDI-EL). The study aimed to determine the state of readiness of academic staff at South Valley University in Egypt to implement e-learning strategies in their teaching; and how support systems and procedures for staff could be further developed, enabling the most effective and appropriate use of learning technologies and enhancing the student and staff experience. The study revealed that competencies, experience and attitudes affect faculty's individual readiness to successfully develop and implement e-learning approaches.

The E-Learning Readiness Self-Assessment (ELRSA) was developed by Watkins, Leigh, and Triner (2004) to assess the readiness of individual learners who have no previous e-learning

experience in an online learning environment. The instrument had six self-assessment categories: *technology access*; *online skills and relationships*; *motivation*; *online audio/video*; *Internet discussions*; and *importance to your success*. The researchers claimed that the six scales were reliable; however they only measure readiness from the perspective of learners.

The instruments for assessing e-learning readiness were mainly formulated for institutions that were already familiar with e-learning. Furthermore, this study identified eight main dimensions to measure e-learning readiness that had been found in previous researches. This study regroups these dimensions into a more concise set of dimensions to assess e-learning readiness. After assessing e-learning readiness, it proposes an e-learning framework based on e-learning readiness survey and educators interview results.

In our study, the e-learning readiness dimensions were grouped into eight dimensions based on previous researches. The dimensions are defined as follows:
Technological skills readiness: Technological skills readiness refers to the observable and measurable technical competencies involving users' capabilities with computers and the Internet
Online learning style readiness: Users' online learning style readiness defined as the readiness of the learner or trainee in terms of time commitment to e-learning, discipline and interest in e-learning and the perception of the status of qualifications obtained via e-learning.
Equipment/infrastructure readiness: This dimension is defined as the right equipment/infrastructure readiness, provision of technical support, e-learning content delivery, broadband facilities, and a Learning Management System(LMS) by the organizations which adopt the systems.
Attitude readiness: User attitudes are factors that influence the use of technology. Attitude readiness in this study involves confidence, enjoyment, importance, motivation, self-development, and anxiety.
Human resources readiness: Human resources readiness is the availability and design of the human support system.
Environmental readiness: Environmental readiness involves the readiness of the institution as a whole in terms of government policy, the role of mass media, and intellectual property regulations.
Cultural readiness: Cultural readiness is the enculturation of e-learning in terms of Internet use and networked Technologies to disseminate information, communication, interaction and teaching.
Financial readiness: This concept refers to whether a learner/trainee or an institution is financially ready for e-learning programs.

METHODOLOGY

The research employed a quantitative method based on survey. Data was collected through an e-learning readiness survey. To measure e-learning readiness, the study proposes eight dimensions of readiness drawn from the literature review: (1) *technological skills*; (2) *online learning style*; (3) *equipment /infrastructure*; (4) *attitude*; (5) *human resource*; (6) *environmental*;(7) *cultural*; and (8) *financial*. The questionnaire was divided into three sections: A, B, and C. Section A: Demographic –contains five questions to collect demographic characteristics from the individuals including age, gender, education level, the institution they belong to, and their position in the institution. Section B: Communication issues – contains four questions to collect individuals' communication and internet access information. Section C: E-learning readiness dimensions – contains eight variables of e-learning readiness dimensions. A five-point *Likert* scale was used to ask about opinions.

The results from the regression analysis will indicate the level of e-learning readiness of family medicine physicians. The results will be compared with assessment model of Aydin and Tasci's (2005), which was used to determine the expected level of e-learning readiness.

RESULTS

Online survey was administered to the physicians of Turkish FM. Online survey was administered to the physicians of Turkish FM and a total of 1172 family physicians,71.8% of the men and 28,2% women, attended to survey 87.8% physicians are married

This section presents the quantitative data analysis. It evaluates each dimension of readiness for Family Medicine Physicians in Turkey. This section also addresses the level of readiness for Family Medicine Physicians in Turkey in each dimension, and identifies critical factors that need to be considered in order to implement successful e-learning framework.

The assessment of readiness in this study was developed based on an process used by Aydin and Tasci (2005). A five-point Likert scale in which each answer was coded into 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 therefore the critical level was 0.8 (4 intervals divided by 5 categories). Aydin and Tasci (2005, p. 250) added this critical level iteratively from the lowest category "1" until reaching the highest point"5"; accordingly five intervals of readiness were obtained and they considered 68,28 (3.4) as the expected level of readiness.

Table1 presents the percentages of e-learning readiness for implementing Family Medicine Physicians in Turkey. The level of readiness in each dimension was assessed individually. Each percentage of readiness was calculated by using this formula as presented in Table 1,
Three areas are not ready and need some work to improve their readiness: *Human resource readiness, attitude readiness, and environmental readiness.*

Table1.Overall readiness of Turkish FM Physicians

Equipment/infrastructure readiness	77,64
Online learning style readiness	75,13
Technological skills readiness	74,47
Cultural readiness	73,81
Financial readiness	73,26
Human resource readiness	65,86
Attitude readiness	64,22
Environmental readiness	52,6

Overall Readiness	**68,28**

Technological skills readiness

The results show that the level of *technological skills readiness* at Turkish FM was ready at 74,47%, and ready but needs a few improvements for readiness. Figure x presents the summary of *technological skills readiness*

Online learning style readiness

The results show that the level of *online learning style readiness* at Turkish FM was ready at 75,13%, and ready but needs a few improvements for readiness. Figure x presents the summary of *online learning style readiness*.

Infrastructure/equipment readiness

The results show that the level of *infrastructure/equipment readiness* at Turkish FM was ready at 77,64%, and ready but needs a few improvements for readiness. Figure x presents the summary of *infrastructure/equipment readiness*.

Attitude readiness

Attitude readiness ranked at 64,22%, indicating that it is not ready but needs some work and improvements.

Human resource readiness

The results show that the level of *human resources readiness* at Turkish FM was ready at 65,86%, and not ready needs some work for readiness.

Environmental readiness

Environmental readiness refers to the level of readiness of a society/nation for e-learning as perceived by stakeholders (policy makers, providers, enablers, and learners/trainees) from within and outside the institution, and involves the readiness of the institution as a whole in terms of government policy, the role of mass media, and intellectual property regulations. The results show that the level of *environmental readiness* at Turkish FM was ready at 52,6%, and not ready and needs some work for readiness. This dimension is vital for Turkish family medicine and urgently must be improved.

Cultural readiness

The results show that the level of *cultural readiness* at Turkish FM was ready at 73,81%, and ready but needs a few improvements for readiness.

Financial readiness

The level of readiness on *financial readiness* was a low 73,26% indicating that it was moderately ready and people can afford and ready but needs a few improvements for readiness**.**

CONCLUSION

As a result the e-Learning context, advancement in network technologies, e-learning technologies, and content development has facilitated multiple content presentations, personalization and e-learning. According to results five areas have been seen that are ready but need a few improvements. These areas are Equipment/infrastructure readiness, Online learning style readiness, Technological skills readiness, cultural readiness, and Financial readiness. Three areas are not ready and need some work to improve. These areas are Human resource readiness, Attitude readiness, and Environmental readiness. The results show that the level readiness at Turkish FM was ready at 68,28 %, and ready but needs a few improvements for e-learning readiness.

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Engaging Students an Integrated Ecology, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics Curriculum: A Florida Summer Program for Gifted Secondary Students

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Abstract

For over five years, faculty from the University of North Florida (UNF) and regional school districts have collaborated to create unique learning opportunities related to science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM) topics for gifted and high-achieving secondary students. Within these summer learning experiences, through either residential or day camps, campers worked with science, technology, engineering, and mathematics faculty in university labs and settings. The design and implementation of these experiences involved post-secondary and secondary personnel and engineering, science, education, and mathematics faculty across several colleges. The purpose of this paper is to describe the critical components related to building partnerships between and within post-secondary and secondary school systems.

Introduction

This paper a description of the critical components related to building partnerships between and within post-secondary and secondary school systems. An important part of this discussion is our design priorities of this program and how they connect to these partnerships. After having conducted this program for several years, we felt it important to step back and take stock through a multi-faceted examination of the camp: looking at it's priorities and goals, functions and operations, and lessons we learned. In our experiences, conducting the camp has been a matter of pragmatism and expediency. To this point, our activities have been focused on planning and implementing, but not reflecting. This examination will lead to more intentional curriculum design that to address our missions, goals, and objectives. This examination will lead to important implications for the future of the program.

To begin, we will discuss the rationale for conducting this program of this nature. Next, we will connect our program design to the national curriculum priorities outlined by important reform-oriented documents including *Science for All Americans*, the *National Science Education Standards,* the *Common Core State Standards,* and the *Next Generation Science Standards.* In making this connection, we will make clearer the rationale behind the goals for the program and our approach to the design of the curriculum. Next, we will share some of the key collaborative components that make meeting these design commitments possible at a

university setting. These include addressing the issues of working across colleges and departments within the university, and with local and regional education agencies. Finally, we will discuss some of the lessons we have learned from our experiences and ideas for future program development. We believe this paper will be of interest to a higher education audience because it outlines necessary elements to insure successful collaborations, both within universities and those between universities and local schools, and key STEM education reform efforts.

Background

The camp team has evolved through time, but what has stayed consistent has been a relationship between post-secondary personnel at the university and those in the secondary schools in the surrounding counties. The most current iteration has been lead by one member of the Foundations and Secondary Education Department and one from the Mathematics Department. The education faculty member's area of specialty was secondary science education and was a high school science teacher for five years. The mathematics faculty member has been involved in secondary education through teachers' workshops, student enrichment programs, and mathematics curriculum work for 30 years.

The summer camp is a cooperative effort among three colleges and the public schools from the four surrounding counties. Most recently, we have worked with a consortium of school districts in the northeast Florida region. This consortium serves rural and suburban students.

Past and present staff members of the camp have included mathematicians, engineers, chemists, biologists, science/technology educators, gifted education specialists, and senior undergraduate and graduate students from multiple disciplines. They have met and planned with the gifted coordinators for the four counties and with faculty members from the School of Engineering, and the Departments of Mathematics, Chemistry, Biology, Leadership, Counseling and Instructional Technology, and Foundations and Secondary Education at UNF. These meetings and communications resulted in the construction of the major content components of this camp.

Another critical component of the summer camp staff has been undergrad and graduate students. In the recruitment of graduate and undergraduate students special attempts have been made to hire students with education majors or strong content backgrounds. The duties of these students have varied from serving as counselors, working through logistics and camper oversight, to running teaching sessions. These sessions have included modules on robotics and discussions about engineering clubs on campus.

Historically, the summer camp staff has judged students applications for the summer camp. A minimum of four of the following criteria have been used in the evaluation of applicants:

- Verification of meeting criteria for gifted student status
- Scores in science and/or mathematics on nationally norm referenced achievement tests
- Self-nomination essay
- Academic criteria of grade point average
- Letters of recommendation

Special consideration has been given to include students from *underrepresented groups* in the gifted programs in the surrounding counties. The selection effort also specifically targeted schools and teachers in underrepresented areas in these counties in order to recruit gifted and high achieving minority students. The campers we have worked with have been from rural, suburban, and urban schools.

The university campus has robust collaboration, together with expert instructors, state-of-the-art Mathematics, Chemistry, Biology, and Engineering labs. The design and coordination experience of the camp staff has provided these gifted/high achieving campers with a wide variety of challenging and fun activities in both classroom and lab settings. The unique exploration and learning experiences that have been provided by the camp would not otherwise available during the academic year in a regular or gifted classroom setting in the typical secondary classroom. Because of the highly specialized nature of the university labs and the intensive personalized attention given to each camper, the camp size has been limited to 30-40 students.

Rationale and Need

Gifted students have been traditionally underserved by the educational system. In their report, "Preparing the Next Generation of STEM Innovators," the National Science Board (NSB) of the National Science Foundation identified a pressing issue in STEM education today when it said that

> far too many of our most able students are neither discovered nor developed, particularly those who have not had adequate access to educational resources, have not been inspired to pursue STEM, or who have faced numerous other barriers to achievement. (NSB, 2010, pp. 5-6)

Even more at-risk are high-achieving students of lower socio-economic status. These students often slip academically from elementary to high school and are more likely to drop out of school than their higher income counterparts (Wyner, et al., 2007).

Gifted young students in the county school districts surrounding the university have a continuous need for a well-designed programs in science, technology, engineering and mathematics The higher education institutes in this region, including the university, have provided, independently and collaboratively, several camps for underachieving and average performing middle and high school students in the past. Many of these camps were designed without addressing the needs for gifted/high-achieving students of the region in the areas of science, technology, engineering, and mathematics. Because of the lack of such programs, a small number of these gifted young future scientists have found summer refuge and perhaps a future home in out-of-state institutions. This project is innovative in that it immerses these gifted students in situations encountered by professionals in the field and it utilizes the college-level laboratories, challenging activities, and instruction.

Florida standardized test scores provide evidence for the need for programs to aid local students in integrating math and science. While the scores have been variable, there has been an identified focus on improving student learning opportunities in the STEM areas.

Program Goals and Design Commitments

Informed by the national STEM reform efforts in education, the major program goals are to provide students with the opportunity to (1) participate in scientific hands-on experiences in the STEM areas, (2) engage in activities that help them understand the nature of science, and (3) see connections between the STEM content areas. This comprehensive and integrated approach seeks to achieve the following objectives:

- Increase students' depth of content knowledge;
- Provide students with university-level scientific research experiences and skills;
- Foster an awareness of leadership characteristics;
- Enhance problem solving skills;
- Build career awareness in mathematics, science, and engineering;

- Increase mathematics and science academic achievement;
- Foster interpersonal skills;
- Increase awareness of the relevance of mathematics, science, and engineering to everyday problems; and
- Foster the understanding and use of technology in learning mathematics, science, and engineering.

To accomplish these goals, our design commitments include:

- A multi-disciplinary approach to math, science, and engineering content
- A focus on problem solving
- The examination socio-scientific issues
- Providing opportunities for under-served populations

There are multiple commitments that influenced the design of the summer camp. First, we were committed to a multi-disciplinary approach to curricular design. There are many national calls for subject matter integration within K-12 instructional contexts (American Association for the Advancement of Science, 1990; National Research Council, 1996; National Governors Association Center for Best Practices & Council of Chief State School Officers, 2010; NGSS Lead States, 2013).

Berlin and White (1994) clarified the meaning of curricular integration in their *Integrated Science and Mathematics Model*. In this model they identify six requirements that broadly define integration: ways of learning, ways of knowing, process and critical thinking skills, content knowledge, attitudes and perceptions, and teaching strategies. A key purpose of science education is to give students a means of understanding and acting on important issues by developing strong decision-making skills when they encounter real-world problems. Bring these skills and perspectives will give students a foundation to base decisions as citizens (National Research Council, 1996). The camp team members have built curricular

connections to create a cohesive integration and meaningful links between activities. A reflection period at the end of each day has helped students create mindful connections and extensions about the activities they experiences.

Second, as part of this curriculum design, we focused on moving beyond just factual information toward application of knowledge and skills toward problem solving. Students were provided challenging hands-on scientific and educational opportunities not available in their schools and originally designed for college level courses. As a result, students have had the opportunity to (1) develop problem solving skills, (2) stretch their thinking, (3) work in a team format and as individual with advanced scientific principles in realistic contexts, (4) make choices while solving open-ended problems, (5) develop independence as learners and (6) enhance leadership skills. The focus of many of the projects will be to integrate different aspects from science, technology, engineering and mathematics thus providing students with powerful cross-disciplinary perspectives.

Reform efforts have emphasized the use dialogical processes within science instruction; however, science is often understood to be a set of routinized practices that lead to single, correct answers that rarely lead to or are connected to real-world issues and concerns (Garii & Rule, 2009). Additionally, many teachers rely on the assigned textbook for curricular development and instruction, as the complexity and amount of knowledge embedded within science curricula can be overwhelming (Herbel-Eisenmann, 2007). While science offers myriad implications within real-world situations and problem and can foster introductions into the gray areas and uneasy possibilities, these are not typically found in typical secondary classrooms (Bishop, et al., 2006; Garii & Rule, 2009). Unfortunately, the literature also indicates that science teachers still follow more traditional approaches to their instruction (Aikenhead, 2006; Davis, 2003; Jenkins 1992), and we hope to counter these experiences by providing campers with real-world problem solving activities. Because we value the inclusion of socio-scientific issues the curriculum, and see its value to students, the summer camp is designed to allow students to see the usefulness of science and engineering to solve broader societal issues.

Finally, we were committed to an underserved school population — gifted and talented students. The university camp team members are experienced faculty that has worked with gifted students in the past. In addition, the gifted specialist has conducted in-service training for participating faculty on implementing *Florida's K-12 Framework for Gifted Learners* (Weber, et al, 2007).

To summarize, the summer summer camp is innovative in that it immerses students in situations encountered by professionals in the field and it utilizes the university's state-of-the-art laboratories. The focus of the camp activities has been to engage students in real-world problems by integrating different aspects from science, technology, and mathematics through inquiry-based projects and activities. These activities, designed to meet the ambitious and

influential vision set by the American Association for the Advancement of Science (*Science for Americans*, 1990, and the *Benchmarks for Science Literacy*, 1993), National Council for Teachers of Mathematics (*Principles and Standards for School Mathematics*, 2000), and the National Research Council (*National Science Education Standards*, 1996), the Common Core State Standards (National Governors Association Center for Best Practices & Council of Chief

State School Officers, 2010), the Next Generation Science Standards (NGSS Lead States, 2013), and state-level documents like the Next Generation Sunshine State Standards (e.g. the Nature of Science and physical science standards). They have provided gifted secondary students with challenging, hands-on scientific and educational opportunities not always available in their schools, as they focus not only on college level scientific content, but also often-overlooked "science as process" components. These activities will provide students with powerful cross-disciplinary perspectives.

Curriculum and Teaching Strategies

The summer camp teaching strategies have been based on introducing campers to a variety of challenging, yet fun and interesting, projects that relate to their daily lives in the areas of mathematics, chemistry, biology and engineering. The modeling, discovery, and hands-on approaches were the cornerstones of all teaching strategies. In these approaches, campers conducted their own independent research as well as work together in their group projects. To enhance campers' communication skills, students presented their findings to class during and after each project as an individual or as representatives of their teams. The activities in this camp were designed to (1) promote inquiry, (2) enhance personal reflection and metacognition, and (3) increase student awareness of the role that collaboration plays in scientific activities. For example, campers were engaged in a continuous format of planning, developing and reflecting on their findings and discoveries. Also, campers reflected on their roles as future scientists and leaders in the area of mathematics, physics, and engineering during their writing, research, and reading experiences and discoveries.

Projects for the summer camp have been specifically selected to help campers make connections and see the interrelation of these disciplines and how they relate to their daily lives. Campers have also been instructed to maintain and provide a scholarly portfolio for their daily activities in the camp. Each portfolio included lab reports, findings, summary, and conclusions for every project as well as pre- and post-test assessments. The aims of the wide variety of teaching strategies and assessment types were to help students:

- Build the skills and knowledge in mathematics, science, and engineering and leadership that expand beyond the secondary curriculum;

- Enhance career awareness in mathematics, science, and engineering;

- Become an effective team player capable of working and researching independently or with minimal supervision;
- Become a successful communicator of ideas and knowledge;
- Expand their understanding of the role of a leader and the skills that leaders possess;
- Explore the relevance of their mathematics, science, and engineering experiences to their everyday lives;
- Understand and use technology in learning mathematics, science, and engineering effectively;
- Use the skills of mathematicians, science, and engineers in the field solving real world problems; and
- Enhance leadership characteristics, vocabulary, inquiry techniques, and understanding of the content.

As an example of the types of activities we used to accomplish these objectives, we will describe a recent summer camp in 2013. Water ecology (integrated biology and chemistry) was the theme, with the specific problem of assessing the health of bodies of water. The engineering modules were connected to general issue of watershed health (especially anthropogenic factors related to engineering) through personal and societal water use and waste generation. Both engineering and water ecology modules involved fieldwork and data collection. The overview of the daily schedule for a four-day, residential camp is listed below.

Group A	9:00-12:20	12:30-1:30	1:40-5:00	5:10-6:45	7:00-8:15	8:30-9:30
Monday	Water Ecology Module	Lunch	Engineering Module	Engineering Enrichment	Dinner	Movie
Tuesday	Water Ecology Module	Lunch	Engineering Module	Engineering Enrichment	Dinner	Pool
Wednesday	Water Ecology Module	Lunch	Engineering Module	Engineering Enrichment	Dinner	Movie
Thursday	Water Ecology Module	Lunch	Engineering Module	Departure		

On days one and two, campers were put into research teams and learned about methods of assessing the health of bodies of water. Teams visited lakes on campus to take water samples to analyze. In the engineering modules, they focused on water use and were assigned the task of keep track of their personal water consumption.

Campers focused on waste production and its effect on aquatic ecology, on days three and four. In the biology module, campers completed their data analysis and drew upon their engineering knowledge to create a plan meant to improve the health of campus water bodies. As part of this activity, campers worked in their research groups to create watershed remediation plans designed to improve the health of the water bodies (with data analysis to justify this plan). They presented these plans, for evaluation and peer critique during the last session of the camp. This activity was meant to give campers experience communicating their ideas in science and modifying conceptions based on new information and data shared during presentations.

During time outside the ecology and engineering modules, campers completed engineering, math, and science enrichment activities. These activities were hands-on and problem-based and centered on robotics using LEGOs. Other activities included visits to the labs used by college engineering clubs. These were of high-interest to the campers as reflected on evaluation surveys. Additionally, students used civil and environmental engineering content to develop remediation plans for the local watershed.

In summary, the approach made our objectives achievable because of the strength of the university built on:

- The university's successful history with outreach educational programs and summer camps which extends over 40 years of collaboration with local public schools;
- The extensive experience of the university team in conducting the research with and monitoring/coaching of gifted students in a team/camp format and as well as working with students individuals;
- The university's previously designed mechanisms to integrate students' and faculty members' daily reflections and feedback into our assessment procedures; and
- The university's modern and state-of-the-art laboratories and technologies that provide a hands-on scientific environment for these future scientists to go beyond the traditional gifted school setting and activities.

Key components the camp structure and resources have included a depth and the breadth of faculty members experience with, authentic interest in, and commitment to public school students who are underrepresented, economically disadvantaged, and gifted. Additionally, the physical facilities and equipment, in particular the labs and technologically enhanced classrooms, have provided a rich and accommodating environment to challenge and motivate students in their discoveries, particularly in the engineering, chemistry, biology, mathematics and simulation projects. Finally, the outstanding commitment and willingness of the university faculty and staff, particularly the engineering faculty to provide in kind donation of their time and services in order to alleviate costs associated with the camp has been important in meeting the goals of the camp.

Curriculum and Teaching Design Lessons Learned

Through the time we have conducted the summer camp, some key design elements have emerged to help our program be (and remain) successful. The first has been gathering input from campers and staff. This goes beyond just the typical after-event evaluations. We used input as formative assessment to make adjustments during the camp session. The second element relates to resources and our commitment to keep costs to campers low. We have been fortunate to find outside funding and have camp staff willing to provide their expertise and facilities at discounted rates. The third element was a developing a sense of team among the camp staff. There was a shared mission and responsibility to camp operations and curriculum. The final component was the intrinsic appeal of campus life. Allowing campers to experience living in a dorm, eating in the dining hall, and working with undergrads and university faculty in impressive facilities had a lot of appeal to the campers.

The first important design element has centered-on gathering input from participants and team members. We asked for daily student input using multiple communication modes and instruments. A key instrument in this data gathering has been the Plus-Minus-Interesting (PMI) chart. The chart allowed students to share things they liked about the camp, things they didn't, and what they found interesting. We've been able to use this chart as a formative assessment tool to make adjustments to camp activities and operations. We also met with the teachers daily to gather information. Faculty met daily to discuss curriculum implementation and adjustments during the camp.

As an example of input gathering and adjustments made after the camp, faculty met with key district personnel to share evaluation findings. As part of this reflection and discussion, the team identified a student desire for an applied biomedical component. As a result of this discussion, this component was added to the newest iteration of the camp. Campers had the option of completing applied biomedical modules that included DNA analysis and large

mammal dissection. Similar to the water ecology modules, at the end of the camp session, research teams presented their findings to their peers for discussion and critique.

Another key aspect relates to resources. With our commitment to working with under-served populations, keeping student costs down has been a priority. We have consistently sought internal and external grants to cover expenses. We have also worked with departments and faculty team members who are willing to donate rooms and equipment at little or no cost. Faculty team members have also under-valued their contributions to the program to keep budgets low.

A third critical part of the program is a notion of teamwork. As faculty developed the curriculum, there is a sense of shared responsibility. Planning and development of content coverage and activities has been a common endeavor. As all team members brought different expertise, they have had input in materials.

One surprising finding was the appeal of campus life to students. We often take our work setting for granted and since the excitement of being an undergrad is a distant memory, teachers and faculty may overlook this appeal. Living a university life, for example using the recreation facilities, having access to cutting edge facilities and faculty, and meeting science, engineering and mathematics undergrads were popular aspects of our residential camp. We believe these experiences opened students eyes to what college was like.

Conclusion: Steps in the Future

There are several ideas the team has focused on to further develop the approach to future camps. These include

- Continuing the seeking government funding to maintain access for student of low socio-economic status,
- To better understand the effectiveness of the camp, conducting more systematic data collection to better assess student understanding of both content and process understanding of science and mathematics,
- Further developing a focus on “soft skills,” like collaboration, within the curriculum,

- Providing greater time for students to work together in college-level, non-academic activities to help with their socialization.

While we feel it is a strength that we have been able to keep costs low (the last several camps were at no cost to campers), we believe that it is important to charge a nominal fee. We feel that may have the effect of giving greater buy-in and commitment on the students' and guardians' part as they might have more "skin in the game" if they have to contribute some financial resources to the program.

As a second step, we believe we need to conduct more systematic data collection. Most states focus on standards and standardized assessment, we need to collect longer-term data about how our program affects student performance. Working with school districts, we plan to gather student achievement data, course selection, and college attendance as indicators of our impact.

As another component students need more instruction and practice working in teams. This is a more accurate representation of how scientists often work. While we had students in teams, we did little to build team skills (the "soft skills" employers often look for in high school graduates). As part of these skills, students have a difficult time actively judging work from others. Proposed activities might include instruction on how to discuss data, critique data models and explanations, and create effective presentations to share with other working groups.

Our final modification relates to the overall student experience in our camps. We often forgot that we were working with high school students (though they met and exceeded our expectations for work ethic and quality). While academics are important, students wanted more time to step away from their work and explore the campus. In the future, we hope to provide students more experience with these aspects. In the future, we plan to add more time devoted to campus tours and using recreation facilities.

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English language teaching situation in scientific departments in Algeria
Case study of Chlef university

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Abstract

This paper tends to determine the actual situation of teaching English in scientific departments with special reference to faculties of Agronomy, Civil engineering and Electronics at Chlef University. The main purposes of this study are to find out the students' attitudes towards learning English, their perceptions about the offered English courses and to shed light on the main issues teachers encounter in the teaching/learning process. The study involves the use of two (2) questionnaires administered to a sample of seventy (70) third year students who were taking English as a compulsory course during their university studies and (4) English language teachers who were teaching English to the subjects. The results were interpreted and presented in tables, figures and graphs.

The findings revealed that the majority of the students consider learning English as being very important for practical reasons mainly for the wide range of scientific documentation available in their field. They also showed the students' dissatisfaction and negative attitudes towards the offered English courses since their specific needs and expectations were not met. In addition, the teachers blamed the policy makers for the little importance addressed to English module since there is no teacher training and pedagogical implications. Thus, it is time to deal with English for specific courses and there should be a match between individual 's skills and suitable occupation in which syllabus designers and language programmers should design courses that really meet the students' needs and provide a supportive atmosphere to enhance their motivation.

Key words: English for specific purposes, Attitudes, Needs analysis

Enhancing Learning through Technology

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The promotion of ICT use in the Algerian Secondary Schools as well as Universities started in 2004. It is required that equipment with data-logging equipment must be available in the classrooms so as to contribute, to enhance learning and teaching English as a foreign language. The use of ICT helps teachers to facilitate their job in the classroom as well as participates in making lessons more objective, attractive and efficient. In this paper, on the basis of the data we have collected from the majority of EFL teachers through questionnaire, we might deduce that using ICTs impel and motivate both teachers and learners to get access to success in their autonomy and willing when doing duties and activities in terms of getting a wide range of instructions and language forms to be in contact with society. It becomes very useful and beneficial by individuals everywhere because it helps them engage in various social, cultural and scientific activities and then prepare them for the professional life.

Key words: ICT, Teachers, Learners, autonomy, knowledge

Errors Correction in Foreign Language Teaching

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Abstract:

Error correction and its importance in the foreign language classroom have received considerable attention during the past decades. According to Corder (1967), correcting learners' errors is substantial in three different ways: First, they tell the teacher about the progress of the learner, and therefore what remains to be learnt. Second, they supply evidence of how a language is acquired and what strategies the learner employs in learning a language. Thirdly, they are indisputable to the learning process because making errors is regarded as a device the learner uses in order to learn. The present paper aims at highlighting fundamental background studies done in the field of Error Analysis. It also tries to help EFL teachers and educators to become familiar with the most frequent errors committed by EFL learners and lead language practicioners to consider some very imporatant issues about understanding the significance of Error Correction in the process of second language acquisition such as: how much correction should be made, at what phases the teacher should correct the error and how the teacher can correct the learner without de-motivating him/her.

Key words: contrastive analysis (CA), error analysis (EA), interlingual errors, intralingual errors.

I. Introduction:

Error correction is seen as a form of feedback given to learners on their language use. No teacher can deny the fact that correcting the errors made by students when they speak or write is one of the most difficult tasks in language acquisition.Thus, every language practicioner or teachr should consider some the following issues about error correction: the difference between a mistake and an error, how much correction should be made, at what phases the teacher should correct the error and how the teacher can correct the learner without de-motivating him/her. One crucial point in the field of Error Correction is to know the nature of learning a foreign or second language, i.e, how do we learn a second language? We have to investigate what happens in the mind of human beings through mental process to learn a language. In this respect, two phenomena have been distinguished by the American linguist Krashen (1987) when he clearly distinguished between: first language acquisition and second language learning. Different schools appeared in linguistics and psycholinguistics whose aim was to analyse learners' errors and to decipher their sources.Among those schools, we find the structural behaviouristic school and the transformational generative grammarians. Contrastive analysis (CA) and error analysis (EA) have been regarded as the two main pillars in the domain of second and foreign language learning. Generally, as Keshavarz (1999, p. 11) stated, "*…there have been two major approaches to the study of learners' errors, namely Contrastive Analysis and Error Analysis*." He further discussed that*, "Error Analysis emerged on account of the shortcomings of Contrastive Analysis which was the favored way of describing learners' language in the 1950s and 1960s*" (p. 42). The process involved in CA is the comparison of learners' mother tongue and the target language. Based on the similarities or differences between two languages, predictions were made on errors that learners would be likely or disposed to make as a result (Kim, 2001). Unlike CA which tries to describe

differences and similarities of L1 and L2, James (1998 cited in Kim, 2001) stated that, EA attempts to describe learners' interlanguage (i.e. learners' version of the target language) independently and objectively. He believed that the most distinct feature of EA is that the mother tongue is not supposed to be mentioned for comparison. The purpose of Error Analysis is, in fact, to find " *what the learner knows and does not know*" and to " *ultimately enable the teacher to supply him not just with the information that his hypothesis is wrong, but also, importantly, with the right sort of information or data for him to form a more adequate concept of a rule in the target language*" (Corder, 1974, p. 170). The primary concern of this study is to explore the kinds of errors made by a group of Algerian EFL learners at university level in their written and oral expressions. More specifically, the study seeks to answer the following question: What are the most common errors that Algerian students commit in their written and oral expressions?

2. Lietrature Review:

2.1. First Language Acquisition versus Second Language Learning:

Applied linguistics is the attempt to put the insights resulting from lingusic reseach to practical uses. These include first and second language teaching (Such as: lexicography, translation….etc). Our focus of linguistic application is the field of language teaching which focuses in turn on the learner and the language learning process. How is this language which is the object of study of the linguist being learnt? We have to investigate what happens in the mind of human beings through mental processes to learn a language. In this respect, two phenomena have been distinguished Krashen (1987) when he talked about: first language acquisition and second language learning

First language acquisition: The term acquistion is ued to reffer to subconscious learning which is not influenced by explicit instruction about the L2 system or about errors against the L2 rule system. It takes place in a natural environment. Language data is not arranged as in a language teaching situation. The infant is exposd to an unlimited data. The child is acquiring many things at the same time. Hence, first language acquisition is a mental psychological process which is natural, spontaneous and unconcious.

Second language learning: The term learning on the other hand is a conscious process which results from an explicit instruction about errors against the L2 rule system. A second language is learnt later on in life. The individual already functions with a language system. S/he already possesses a verbal behaviour. Learning in this case is conscious. The data is arranged by syllabus designers. The learner is not exposed to unlimited data like the infant. It takes place under formal instruction. Th learner is not necessarily young.

In other words, for first langauge acquisiton the child has biological capacities which enable him/her to acquire language. This was called by Noam Chomsky LAD. i.e. *Language Acquisition Device.* The latter is a predisposition of language acquisition of the environment in which children are born (Arabic in an Arabic environment.English in an English environment…etc). To sum up, infants are innately endowed with the ability to acquire a natural language and all they need to set the process of language acquisition going are natural language data. First language acquisition is easy and second language learning is difficult.

2.2. The Definition of Errors:

Before the 1960's, during the dominance of the behaviouristic view upon language there existed a dominated view of language to consider learners' errors as something undesirable. Making errors was seen as a sign of mislearning and regarded as undesirable to proper processes of language learning. According to the behaviouristic point of view, the reason behind making errors lies in inadequate teaching methods which if had been "perfect" they would never be committed. This way of thinking was considered to be naive as there is

nothing to be called "perfect" methodology especially with the appearance of the Universal Grammar concept proposed by Chomsky in 1965. The latter claimed that each human being has an innate capacity that can guide him through a vast number of sentence generation possibilities. Since then, a shift by language teachers towards the cognitive approach has started. Chomsky's theory contributes in raising researcher's interests about learners' errors as a source of hypotheses formation.

The importance of errors in language learning was first advocated by Corder (1967). He proved that strategies of L2 learners could be inferred through the analysis of their errors and that could be helpful for researchers of L2 learning process. Selinker (1992) highlighted two fundamental contributions of Corder's study in L2 learning. The first one is that the learner's errors are systematic and the second is that they are not "negative" or "interfering" but a positive factor, indicative of testing hypothesis.

There are a lot of definitions developed for the concept of "error". According to Lennon (cited in Brown, 2000), an error is "*a linguistic form or combination of forms which, in the same context and under the same context and under similar conditions of production, would, in all likelihood, not be produced by the speakers' native speaker counterparts*." Corder (1967), on the other hand, differentiates between the mistake which is a performance error due to a random guess or slip and the error that refers to idiosyncrasies in the interlanguage of the learner manifesting the learner's system of operation while learning. The later can be seen as L2 a deviation from the adult's grammar of a native speaker which reflects the interlanguage of the learner.

Errors are systematic and may give valuable insight into language acquisition because they are goofs in the learner's underlying competence. When native speakers make mistakes, they can identify and correct them immediately because they have almost full knowledge of the linguistic structure of their mother tongue (Scovel 2001). Non-native speakers, L2 learners not only make mistakes, they also commit errors and as they have only an incomplete knowledge of the target language, they are not always able to correct the errors that they make. Thus the learners' errors reflect a lack of underlying competence in the language that they are learning.

2.3. Types of Errors and Theirs Sources:

Errors are indesponsible to the learning process but why learners make errors and why they find it so difficult to correct their errors. Researchers dealing with second language acquisition (Corder, 1974, Scovel, 2001) agree that one of the major causes of errors is language transfer. Yet, we can mention other related errors' sources as follow:

1. *Language transfer or interlingual interference*. In this type, errors are caused by mother tongue interference.

Eg1. I followed him yesterday slowly in the street. (Arabic thinking: negative transfer from Arabic to English)

E.g2: I received confidential ***informations*** from the police. (Negative transfer from French to English)

5. *Intralingual interference*: this kind of errors occurs during the learning process of the second language at a stage when the learners have not really acquired the knowledge. In addition, errors are also caused by the difficulty or the problem of language itself. According to Richards (1971), intralingual errors are also subdivided to the following categories:

a) *Over-generalisation*:

E.g: He can swims. Instead of saying : He can swim or He swims.

b) *Simplification*: (Redundancy/ reduction)

E.g. I studied English for two *year*. (Instead of *years*)

c) *Communication base*:

E.g: Using “airball” instead of balloon (coinage)
d) *Induced errors*: Due to the teacher’s presentation of the material:
E.g: as if= like. The learner will wite the following sentence:
E.g: She cries *as if* the baby cries instead of writing: She cries *like* a baby.
d) *Analogial errors*: (started, goed)
E.g: He *goed* to school on foot.(Instead of saying went)
e) Ignorance of rule restrictions: the learner applies rules to context where they are not applicable (e.g. He made me to go rest" through extension of the pattern "He asked/wanted me to go").
f) Incomplete application of rules: the learner fails to use a fully developed structure (e.g. "You like to sing?" in place of "Do you like to sing?")
g) False hypothesis: the learners do not fully understand a distinction in the target language (e.g. the use of "was" as a marker of past tense in "One day I was travelled.").

2.4. Error Analysis:

Errors are seen as a systematic deviation made by learners who have not yet mastered the rules of L2. A learner can not self-correct his/her errors because they are a reflective product of his/her current satge of L2 development. Whereas, mistakes are defined as a random confirmation slip caused by tiredness, excitement or other sources, and the learner can readily self-correct his/her mistakes. Error Analysis is one of the most influential theories of second language acquisition. It is concerned with the analysis of the errors committed by L2 learners by comparing the learners’ acquired norms with the target language norms and explaining the identified errors. For Crystal (1999, p. 108) Error Analysis in language teaching and learning is the study of the unacceptable forms produced by someone learning a language, especially a foreign language. According to James (1998), EA refers to “*the study of linguistic ignorance, the investigation of what people do not know and how they attempt to cope with their ignorance*”.

Another definition of error analysis is given by Brown (2000). He defined error analysis as "*the process to observe, analyze, and classify the deviations of the rules of the second languages and then to reveal the systems operated by learner*". As stated by AbiSamara (2003), Error Analysis can be viewed as " *a type of linguistic analysis that focuses on errors committed by learners*". Corder (1967) views errors as valuable information for three beneficiaries: for teachers, it clues them on the progress of the students; for researchers, it provides evidence as to how language is acquired or learned; for learners themselves, it gives them resources in order to learn.

Brown (2000, p. 224) states that there are two main sources of errors, namely, interlingual errors and intralingual errors. Interlingual (Interference) Errors are those errors that are traceable to first language interference. These errors are attributable to negative interlingual transfer. The term "interlingua” was first introduced by Selinker (1972). He used this term to refer to the systematic knowledge of an L2 which is independent of both the learner's L1 and the target language (AbiSamra, 2003, p. 5). According to Kavaliauskiene (2009, p. 4), transfer of errors may occur because the learners lack the necessary information in the second language or the attentional capacity to activate the appropriate second language routine.
Transfer is of two kinds: positive and negative. The transfer may prove to be justified because the structure of the two languages is similar – this case is called 'positive transfer' or 'facilitation', or it may prove unjustified because the structure of the two languages are different – that case is called 'negative transfer' or 'interference' (Wilkins, 1972, p. 199).
As far as the intralingual errors are concerned, they result from faulty or partial learning of the target language rather than language transfer (Keshavarz, 2003, p. 62). Richards (1972) cites four main types of intralingual errors, namely: (1) overgeneralization, (2) ignorance of rule

restrictions, (3) incomplete application of rules, and (4) false concepts hypothesized. Later he identifies six sources of errors: (1) interference, (2) overgeneralization, (3) performance errors, (4) markers of transitional competence, (5) strategies of communication and assimilation, and (6) teacher-induced errors.
Stenson (1974) states three main reasons for errors, namely, (1) incomplete acquisition of the target grammar, (2) exigencies of the learning/teaching situation, and (3) errors due to normal problems of language performance.

Committing errors is one of the most unavoidable things in the world. Students, in the process of learning language**,** profit from the errors that they make by obtaining feedback to make new attempts that successively approximate their desired objectives.Vahdatinejad (2008) maintains that error analyses can be used to determine what a learner still needs to be taught. It provides the necessary information about what is lacking in the learner's competence. He also makes a distinction between errors and lapses (simple mistakes). According to him, lapses are produced even by native speakers, and can be corrected by themselves. They call for on the spot correction rather than remediation, which is needed for errors. Mitchell and Myles (as cited in Keshavarz, 2003) claims that errors**,** if studied**,** could reveal a developing system of the student**'**s L2 language and this system is dynamic and open to changes and resetting of parameters.

In the past few years, there has been a large and growing amount of literature on error analysis. In a recent study conducted by Sarfraz (2011) to examine the errors made by 50 undergraduate Pakistani students in written essays, he found that the overwhelming majority of errors the students made resulted from learners' interlanguage process and some errors resulted from mother tongue interference. Darus and Subramaniam (2009), using Corder's (1967) model on error analysis, examined errors in a corpus of 72 essays written by 72 Malay students. They found that students' errors were of six types, viz., in singular/plural form, verb tense, word choice, preposition, subject-verb agreement and word order. In addition, Ridha (2012) examined English writing samples of 80 EFL college students and then categorized the errors according to the following taxonomy: grammatical, lexical/ semantic, mechanics, and word order types of errors. The results showed that most of the students' errors can be due to L1 transfer. Furthermore, she found that most of the learners rely on their mother tongue in expressing their ideas. She added that although the rating processes showed that the participants' essays included different types of errors, the grammatical errors and the mechanical errors were the most serious and frequent ones.

As Shaffer (2008) mentioned, one of the questions facing every ESL/EFL teacher is how to correct oral errors and how much to correct. Researcher opinions vary widely on this: from no correction to extensive correction, from immediate to delayed correction, and from implicit to explicit correction. Language learners also have their own opinions on how and whether they wish to have their oral errors corrected by their teacher in the classroom setting. These opinions may be at odds with those of the experts, leaving the classroom instructor with more questions about error correction than answers. In his article, Moss (2000) supported this position and claimed that, when deciding how to respond to students' oral errors there are a number of questions we need to ask ourselves. First of all, '*Should learners' errors be corrected?*' In this regard, there are wide differences of opinion, but perhaps one of the most forceful reasons for carrying out correction is that many learners expect their errors to be corrected and can feel disappointed or resentful if they are ignored. The second reason is that, there is the danger that by leaving errors untreated, the defective language might serve as an input model and be acquired by other students in the class. Thirdly, the provision of corrective feedback can speed up the process of language learning by providing information about rules and the limits of language use, which would otherwise take students a long time to deduce on their own.

2.5. Teachers' Attitude to Errors:

Teachers are often afraid of their students' making errors. They feel that students might learn their mistakes and so they must make sure that everything they say is correct. This attitude goes back to the earlier belief, influenced by the behaviourist model of learning, which maintains that the language can be learnt by repeating correct forms until they become automatic, that is why repeating incorrect forms is harmful. It is now widely agreed that language is not learnt this way: it is a system of rules that the learner has to acquire, that trying out language and making errors are natural and unavoidable parts of this process. Doff (1993) explains that learners are applying rules from their own first languages and they are applying rules which they have internalised but they are in some way intermediate between their native languages (L1) and the target language (L2).

2.6. Error treatment:

Error treatment is a very complicated and weighty problem. Language teachers need to be armed with some theoretical foundations and be aware of what they are doing in the classroom. Henrickson (1978) lists the "five fundamental questions" and reviews the literature that addresses them:

1. Should errors be corrected?
2. If so, when should errors be corrected?
3. Which learner errors should be corrected?
4. How should learner errors be corrected?
5. Who should correct learner errors?

Second language acquisition theory has "answers" to four of these questions, answers that are, themselves hypotheses. Hendrickson (1978) predicts that if error correction is done according to the principles described below, it will be effective.

1. Should errors be corrected?

According to the second language acquisition theory presented here, when error correction "works", it does so by helping the learner change his or her conscious mental representation of a rule. In other words, it affects learned competence by informing the learner that his or her current version of a conscious rule is wrong. Thus, second language acquisition theory implies that when the goal is learning, errors should indeed be corrected (but not at all times; see below; and not all rules, even if the goal is learning). The theory maintains however, that error correction is not of use for acquisition. Acquisition occurs, according to the input hypothesis, when acquirers understand input for its meaning, not when they produce output and focus on form.

2. When should errors be corrected?

Concerning this problem, the most controversial issue is to treat them immediately or to delay. First, we are confronted with a dilemma—fluency versus accuracy. For communicative purpose, delayed correction is usually preferred. Some advanced students believe that when to correct errors is determined by the type of errors committed. For instance, if they are pronunciation or grammatical errors, immediate correction is preferable, for post-correction cannot make learners remember anything. Furthermore, the overall situation in the classroom is also important. When the whole class is familiar with a word, but only one of them is singled out for being corrected, he or she would feel awkward. So, we can see that when to correct is very complicated. Both the teachers' intuition and the feedback from the students are equally important.

3. Which errors should be corrected?

Learners' errors are usually classified in different categories. Burt (1975) made a distinction between "global" and "local" errors. Global errors hinder communication and they prevent the learner from comprehending some aspects of the message. Local errors only affect a single

element of a sentence, but do not prevent a message from being heard. According to Hendrickson (1980), global errors need not be corrected and they are generally held true. But the expressions such as "a news", or "an advice" are systematic errors, and they need to be corrected. As for pre-systematic errors, teachers can simply provide the correct one. For systematic errors, since learners have already had the linguistic competence, they can explain this kind of errors and correct them themselves. So teachers just remind them when they commit such errors. As to what kind of errors should be corrected, it needs teachers' intuition and understanding of errors. At the same time, the teacher should consider the purpose of the analysis and analyze them in a systematic way.

4. How should errors be corrected?

According to James (1998), it is sensible to follow the three principles in error correction. Firstly, the
techniques involved in error correction would be able to enhance the students' accuracy in expression. Secondly, the students' affective factors should be taken into consideration and the correction should not be face-threatening to the students.

Some scholars believed that teachers' indirect correction is highly appreciated. They either encourage
students to do self-correction in heuristic method or present the correct form, so students couldn't feel
embarrassed. Compare the two situations:

(1) Student: "What means this word?"
Teacher: "No, listen, what does this word mean?"

(2) Student: "What means this word?"
Teacher: "What does it mean? Well, it is difficult to explain, but it means…

It is obvious that teacher's remodeling in (2) is more natural and sensible than the direct interruption in (1).

Up till now, both the theory and the application have been illustrated, in the next section we are going to deal with both the significance and limitations of error analysis in language teaching and learning.

2.7. Ways of Correction:

There are several ways of correction that can be employed in the classroom.

Self-correction:

After the student recognizes what is incorrect in his/her response, s/he should be able to correct him/herself. Self-correction is the best technique, because the student will remember it better.

Peer correction:

If the student cannot correct him/herself the teacher can encourage other students to supply correction. This technique is to be applied tactfully, so that the student who originally made the mistake will not feel humiliated. In the case of errors, it is useful if after peer correction the teacher goes back to the student who made the error and gets him/her to say it correctly. Edge (1990) mentions the following advantages of peer correction:

- It encourages cooperation, students get used to the idea that they can learn from each other
- Both learners (who made the error and who corrects) are involved in listening to and thinking about the language
- The teacher gets a lot of important information about the learners' ability - if students learn to practice peer correction without hurting each other's feelings, they will do the same in pair-work activities. However, it may happen that whenever the teacher asks for peer correction from the whole class, it is always the same students who answer. In this case the teacher has to make sure that other students are involved as well.

Teacher correction:

If no one can correct, the teacher must realise that the point has not yet been learnt properly. In that case the teacher can re-explain the problematic item of language, especially if the teacher sees that the majority of the class has the same problem. There might be more repetition and practice necessary. We must not forget that the main aim of correction is to facilitate the students to learn the new language item correctly. That is why it is important that after correction the teacher has to ask the student who originally made the error or mistake to give the correct response.

3. Methodology

3.1. Introduction

This section presents the research methodology used in this study and gives information about the population and the sample. It also describes the data collection instruments and procedures. It finally describes the validity and reliability of the instruments and gives information about the data analysis.

3.2. The Study Population and Sample:

Burns and Grove (1993, p, 779) states that a population is defined as all elements (individuals, objects and events) that meet the sample criteria for inclusion in a study. The study population consisted of 36 first year LMD students studying English as a Forugn language in Hassiba Ben-Bouali University. Mouton (1996, p. 132) defines a sample as elements selected with the intention of finding out something about the total population from which they are taken. The sample included in this study consists of 35 undergraduate students during the first semester of the academic year 2013/2014. To select the participants of the present study, a simple random sampling method was used in both experiments because it is regarded as one of the most reliable methods to obtain a representative sample. The participants, selected for the purpose of this study, are between 18 and 20 years of age. All of them were native speakers of Arabic, who also had a working knowledge of modern standard Arabic. They live in an exclusively Arabic-speaking community. Like most Algerian students, the ones who participated in this study had experienced approximately the same number of 7 years of education through the middle and the secondary education system. All the participants are homogeneous in terms of their linguistic, educational, and socioeconomic background. They speak Arabic dialect at home. All the participants did not receive any English language instruction in English speaking countries nor they had been to any English speaking countries to have any kind of English exposure.

3.3. Data Collection:

3.3.1. Data Collection Instruments:

Two major sources of data were used to find answers to the research questions:

1. First research tool: The written essays of 35 participants of the chosen university. The topics given in the essays were general but argumentative in nature.
2. Second research tool: The short talk of one student among the 35 students who participated in the written test.

3.3.2. Data Collection Procedure:

The first research instrument: All the 35 participants were required to write on one of the five following different topics: *politics*, *university life, sports, my favourite job or family problems.* They were asked to write approximately 150 to 300 words within a period of one hour. The participants were informed that they had to start with an outline, then a first draft and a final draft. The students did not know that their writings are going to be under investigation.

The second research experiment: One student was randomly shosen from the entire population to produce a short talk. Its purpose was to obtain oral data. The subject was asked to talk for five minutes about himself, his daily routine and about life in Algeria or in the local area where he lived. Ten minutes before the talk he was given some guidelines to help him organize his oral presentation and to avoid silent periods.
It consisted of the following points:
a) Place where he lived.
b) Knowledge of languages.
c) Things he liked.
d) Habits he had.
e) What Algerian people do on holidays.
f) What Algerian people like.
For the data analysis, the talk was divided into examples which in most cases correspond to the different sentences he produced.

3.4. Reliability and Validity:

3.4.1. Reliability:

Polit and Hungler (1993, p. 445) refer to reliability as the degree of consistency with which an instrument measures the attribute it is designed to evaluate. The researcher used a test-retest device to measure the reliability of the instrument. A pilot study was conducted through selecting 30 students from the target population randomly. These students did not take part in the actual study. The students were asked to write on one of the essays. Accordingly, the students' results showed consistency in the answers.

3.4.2. Validity:

The validity of an instrument is the degree to which an instrument measures what it is intended to measure (Polit & Hungler 1993, p. 448). To ensure the face and content of the study instrument, the method of trustee's validity was employed. A panel of judges consisting of two academic college instructors were asked to evaluate the given topics (for witing and speaking). They approved that topics were taken from materials appropriate to students' standard and suit their ages, and that the rubric set was very clear.

3.5. Data Analysis:

The analysis of written essays will be derived from Corder's (1967) method on error analysis. This method has three steps: (1) collection of sample errors, (2) identification of errors and (3) description of errors.

For the short talk, the type of data analysis applied was interlanguage analysis because for the purpose of the study, his IL had to be analysed not only as an independent system but also related to his native language and the target language the learner was aiming at; this way, in the examples produced four aspects were considered: the IL form, the literal translation of the IL form, the hypothesized target language form and the hypothesized native language form. The language topic selected to analyse the nature of transfer was adverbial placement since it has been a long debated issue in English, whereas few studies deal with Spanish-English interlanguage word order in this issue.

3.6. Conclusion

The researcher used a simple random sampling method to select the participants of the present study which consist of 36 male and female undergraduates at Chlef University. In the first experiment, 35participants were asked to write a well-developed essay from 150 to 200 words within one hour during one of their English classes. In the second experiment, one student was asked to talk for 5 minutes about a given topic. This section described the research methodology used in this study, including the population, sample, data collection instruments as well as strategies used to ensure the reliability and validity of the study.

4. Results and discussion:

4.1. First experiment result:

In the second experiment the subject produced the following talk:

Well I live in Chlef. . Chlef is in the centre of my country, Algeria. I speak a... two languages very well and also I speak a little French. And I like very much the football and also other sports. And often go to the stadium because I like very much the sports' world and also the internet very much. Everday when I have breakfast I... drink milk with cofee and some bread or cakes .And the Algereians, the people of Algerians go on holiday normally to the beach in summeror and also to the countryside... Also the people Algerian, especially old people, go in winter to natural baths like; Bouhnifia, Chiger….etc . At the Feasts where the people are in their homes with their family they enjoy eating delicious and traditional meals such as: coscous, mesfouf…..etc. Algerians like to visit each other in feasts and exchange some food and cakes, they help poor people with clothes, money and food like meat in Aid El-Adha. Most Algerians on weekends prefer to stay at home with family because they don't have nice public places or gardans to go. And finally I like very much the sport, and I like the Internet especially the facebook because I can chat with people from other foreign countries.

It can be noticed that the subject tends to follow the native-like placement relying on his own perception of similarity between both languages, resorting to the process and applying the strategy of similarity to the Ll, such as:

1. *and also I speak little French.*

The same applies to the following example where the occurrence of an intensifier adjunct between the verb and the object shows that the learner perceives that the Mother Tangue choice between Subject-Object-Adjunct (SOA) and Subject-Adjunct-Object (SOA) is the same as the Target Language one, creating an interlingual identification which leads him to apply the process of transfer:

2. *I like very much the football and also other sports.*

The use of interlingual identifications can also be observed in this example:

3. *And often go to the stadium*

In this example the subject also produces an empty category, omiting the subject which seems to be performance-related because in the rest of the sentences he does not produce this empty category; moreover, the subject's perception of the similarity between both languages, ie., his psychotypology leads him to the production of parallel structures in both languages. The common reference he uses is also present in:

4. *..the people of Algerians go on holiday normally to the beach in summer…*

This structure is the result of applying the abstract organizing principle that adverbials can take the same position as in the Mother Tangue; furthermore, the overuse of the adjective in a context where it does not apply also shows that he is following the IL principles.

5. *Most Algerians on weekends prefer to stay at home…*

Another example of a wrong placement of time- adjunct shows that the learner recognises that the MT choice between SOA and SAO is the same as the TL one, creating an interlingual identification which leads him to apply the process of transfer.

6. And I like very much the football.

The use of "the" with most words is another evidence of the language transfer from Arabic (MT) to English (TL).

7. *And finally I like very much the sport, and I like the Internet.*

The overuse of "and" in the whole passage or the short talk is clear due to the language transfer. Most Arab speakers frequently use "and" in their speech in initial and mid-positions.

The similarity the learner establishes between both languages is clearly noticed if we observe the talk he produced .As can be seen, the combination SAO and SOA is used in the MT as it is in the IL. More time adjuncts are produced in initial placement, the same tendency that can be observed in the IL; as for place adjuncts they tend to occur in final position. It is quite obvious that the subject creates interlingual identifications which enable him to apply the process of transfer resorting to the strategy of creating parallel structures.

4.2. Second experiment result:

In this section, the researcher presents and discusses the findings of the study in light of its objectives. First, the errors made by the students are classified; second, the common errors are identified with illustrative examples; and finally, these errors made by the leaners are corrected by examples. Table 1 shows the types, numbers and percentages of errors committed by the participants in their written work.

Type of error	Frequency of errors	Perecentages (%)
1.Verb tense	83	11.6%
2.Word order	57	8%
3.Subject/verb agreement	78	10.9%
4.pronoun	52	7.3%
5.spelling	88	12.3%
6.capitalization	44	6.1%
7.preposition	60	8.4%
8.article	83	11.6%
9.Double negative	49	6.8%
10.Sentence fragment	117	16.4%
total	711	100%

Table1: analysis of errors produced by Algerian EFL learners.

Now the researcher will present the ten types of errors the students made in their essays.

1. Verb tense:

Errors of wrong tense or wrong verb occur when a learner uses the wrong verb tense in a certain sentence. The results of this study reveal that the participants were not aware of applying the correct tense to the verb in the sentences.

Error identification:

1. People don't likes politicians.
2. A lot of families has problems.

Error correction

1. People don't like politicians.
2. A lot of families have problems

2. Double negative:

A double negative occurs when two forms of negation are used in the same sentence.

Error identification:

1. Most students don't have no idea about the LMD system .
2. Students don't have nothing to practice in the campus.

Error correction:

1. Most students have no any idea about the LMD system.
2. Students don't have anything to practice in the campus.

3. Sentence fragment:

A sentence fragment is a group of words that is only part of a sentence and does not express a complete thought. Usually sentence fragments are pieces of sentences that have become

disconnected from the main clauses. Some fragments are incomplete because they lack either a subject or a verb.

Error identification:

1. Teachers who teach us very qualified.
2. Sometimes practise football or handball on weekends..

Error correction:

1. Teachers who teach us are very qualified.
2. Sometimes I practise football or handball on weekends.

4. Subject /verb agreement:

Subjects and verbs must agree with one another in number (singular or plural). Thus, if a subject (the person or thing doing the action) is singular, its verb (the word representing the action) must also be singular; if a subject is plural, its verb must also be plural.

Error identification:

1. A lot of people in Algeria is not happy about the services.
2. Each of the groups have 32 students.

Error correction:

1. A lot of people in Algeria are not happy about the services.
2. Each of the groups has 30 students.

5. Capitalisation:

Capitalization means writing a word with its first letter as a capital letter (upper-case letter) and the remaining letters in small letters (lower-case letters).

Error identification:

1. algerians like football so much.
2. My friend ahmed and i practise sport in our free time.

Error correction:

1. Algerians like football so much.
2. My friend Ahmed and I practise spoet in our free time.

6. Word order:

Word order is the syntactic arrangement of words in a sentence, clause, or phrase.

Error identification:

1. I like also to go to the internet.
2. What they are doing for young people?

Error correction:

1. I also like to go to the internet.
2. What are they doing for young people?

7. Spelling:

Spelling means the act or process of writing words by using the letters conventionally accepted for their formation.

Error identification:

1. My favourite ***hoby*** is reading history books
2. ***Gramar*** is one of the difficult modules we study.

Error correction:

1. My favourite ***hobby*** is reading history book
2. ***Grammar*** is one of the difficult modules we study.

8. Prepositions:

A preposition is a word that shows the relationship between a noun or pronoun and other words in a sentence. It links nouns, pronouns and phrases to other words in a sentence. The word or phrase that the preposition introduces is called the object of the preposition. A preposition usually indicates the temporal, spatial or logical relationship of its object to the rest of the sentence. The great majority of the participants in this study demonstrated confusion for the right usage of prepositions as shown in the examples below.

Error identification:

1. I am interested ***on*** educating myself.
2. Authorities must take care ***about*** jobless people.

Error correction:

1. I am interested ***in*** educating myself.
2. Authorities must take care ***for*** jobless people.

9. Articles:

An article is a word that is used with a noun to indicate the type of reference being made by the noun. English has two articles: "**the"** and "**a/an**". "**The"** is used to refer to specific or particular nouns; **a/an** is used to modify non-specific or non-particular nouns. We call "**the"** the *definite* article and "**a/an"** the *indefinite* articles.

Error identification:

1. Algeria is very rich country.
2. Normally we are ***richest*** people in the region.

Error correction:

1. Algeria is ***a*** very rich country.
2. Normally we are **the *richest*** people in the region.

10. Pronouns:

A pronoun is a word that takes the place of a noun. We use pronouns to make sentences less weighty and less repetitive. They are classified into several types, i.e., the personal pronoun, the demonstrative pronoun, the interrogative pronoun, the indefinite pronoun, the relative pronoun, the reflexive pronoun, and the intensive pronoun.

Error identification:

1. The subjects ***who*** I study at university are very difficult.
2. My Friends and ***myself*** practise a lot of sports.

Error correction:

1. The subjects ***which/that*** I study at university are evry difficult.
2. My friends and ***I*** practise a lot of sports.

5. Conclusion:

This study has given an account of the main errors made by a group of Algerian EFL learners at university level in their written and spoken work**.** Based on the discussion of the findings and the examples given, it could be concluded that the Arabic speakers in this study committed a great number of errors due to L1 transfer. The overt influences of Arabic on the students' writing and speaking of English indicate that language teachers need to take careful stock of the transfer and interference of the students' mother tongue in their spoken or written production. Therefore, one way to highlight the influences of the mother tongues on the students' learning of English is to collect these errors and ask the students to analyze them and if they could to correct them.

Some errors need to be handled; otherwise, they will become fossilized. EFL teachers should be aware of what is going on in the field of Error Analysis and keep a keen eye on the related theories. In addition, while placing an emphasis on error correction in the classroom,

as language teachers, we should take the teaching objectives, students' linguistic competence, their affective factors and the effectiveness of the error correction into consideration. Consequently, we can employ more flexible strategies in error correction and make more contributions to the EFL classroom teaching and learning

Error analysis is significant, but it also has its limitations. First, there is a danger in too much attention to learners' errors and in the classroom teacher tends to become so preoccupied with noticing errors that the correct utterance in the second language will go unnoticed. While the diminishing of errors is an important criterion for increasing language proficiency, the ultimate goal of second language learning is the attainment of communicative fluency in a language. Another shortcoming in error analysis is the overstressing of production data. Factually language comprehension is as important as production. It also happens that production lends itself to analysis and thus becomes the prey of researchers, but comprehension data is equally important in developing an understanding of the process of language acquisition. Thirdly, it fails to account for the strategy of avoidance. A learner who for one reason or another avoids a particular sound, word, structure or discourse category may be assumed incorrectly to have no difficulty therewith. The absence of error therefore does not necessarily reflect native like competence since learners may be avoiding the very structure that poses difficulty for them. Finally, error analysis can keep us too closely focused on specific languages rather than viewing universal aspects of language.

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Freeware and Open Source Software Tools for Distance Learning in Mathematics

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Abstract:

With the contemporary growth of modern technology a number of free and open source software tools have been emerged to support online or distance education for basic level Mathematics. Technological aids for example; digital learning material, videos, recorded lectures, open tools to solve mathematical problems, online discussion boards, and online classrooms enhance the ability of students to solve mathematical problems. This research paper enlists the freeware and open source software tools for teaching and learning in mathematics and describes the role of technology for improved delivery of mathematical concepts. It also shows that how freeware and open source software tools are useful for distance education to achieve learning outcomes in a better flexibility and dynamism than ever before.

Key words: Freeware, Open Source Software Tools, Distance Learning, Basic Level Mathematics

Introduction

Advancement in technological developments has opened up the new ways in teaching and learning basic level mathematics. State of the art computers, user friendly software and interactive communication technologies have introduced the new methods of teaching and learning. Availability of a range of free and open source software tools for basic level mathematics can play a vital role in mathematics teaching and learning particularly in distance learning environment.

Free software also known as 'software libre' or 'libre software' is software that can be used, modified, copied and redistributed either without any restriction or with restrictions allowed by the manufacture and are generally available without any charge (Subramanyam and Xia 2008). Open source software (OSS) is software that is available in source code under a software license that permits users to study, modify, improve and distribute information to other users (Hauge, Ayala et al. 2010). Open source software is available within the public domain and individuals who have expertise in software development and an interest in its free distribution very often develop it collaboratively. OSS is not generally subject to copyright restrictions and access to the source code means that software developers can modify it for their own particular purposes. Free and open source software does not necessarily mean inferior or substandard software. There are some very significant open source software products that have revolutionized many areas of activity. Probably the most famous open source software is the operating system UNIX, now by far the mainstay of large computer installations and even PC operating systems such as Linux and Mac OSX. Using open source software can provide some advantages, the most significant being usually a cost advantage (Ven, et al. 2008).

One of the problems faced by educators who are interested in using free and open source software as alternatives to commercial software for basic level mathematics education is first identifying what alternative free and open source software is available, what the software does, and where it can be accessed from. Currently there is no one place with information on free and open source software for basic level mathematics education. In undertaking the research for this paper, to identify appropriate free and open source software, different categories of software are identified and enlisted that can be used for teaching and learning for basic level

mathematics.

Freeware and Open Source Tools for Distance Learning in Mathematics

Freeware and open source software tools like calculators, interactive geometry softwares, computational softwares, visual Maths applications and equation solver have given new direction in basic level mathematics teaching and learning. IPods, iPAD, iPhone and Android apps are playing a pivotal role for teaching mathematics at primary to secondary and even higher levels of education. Use of such tools is supporting student's learning in terms of problem solving and computational fluency.

Distance learning has become an increasingly important part of educational programs. Computers, video phones, interactive graphics, discussion boards and interactive whiteboards are being used as an integral component of distance learning. Electronic learning (e-learning) as a form of distance learning is being promoted as the educational medium of the future (O'Malley, 1999). Educational institutes are extending their digitally linked resources and providing a flexible delivery of content material. Means and Haertel, (2004) argue that technology supports learning process when appropriately integrated with teaching pedagogy, curriculum, and assessments.

Technology aids and facilitates the distance learning process by enhancing communication and collaboration and building strong education communities. Communication software is enabling better discourse among students, collaborative learning, and discussion forums and out of class learning. In this perspective communication software enable teachers to have better awareness of their students and assist student to learn from their peers.

Growing number of technology have caused a shift from a focus on local resources to global resources. With the help of technology better websites, portals and various electronic resources can be created and developed which can be used for lesson planning and better transmissive of knowledge. In the context of distance education communication technologies has provided a favorable space and environment to share knowledge and beliefs about mathematics. Table 1, 2 & 3 provides some online free resources for maths teachers that can be used in distance education for improved delivery of mathematics teaching.

LibreOffice math is a tool used for mathematics documents creation provides feature of a full office suite e.g. Word processor, Presentation, Spreadsheets and Database). This interactive and easy to use tool has the possibility to create worksheets and exam for mathematics.

Xournal in combination with a tablet computer and a projector serves as a cost effective interactive whiteboard. The main advantage of Xournal is that hand written lecture notes can be saved digitally and are accessible for later use.

Online mathematics resources Classroom Aid, http://classroom-aid.com/educational-resources/mathematics/#respond combine free math lessons, videos and activities. These resources covers a variety of Maths topics; Algebra, Plane Geometry, Trigonometry, Calculus, Coordinate and Solid Geometry.

Use of software in Mathematics teaching and learning provides a number of benefits in cognitive process; first, memory load of students is reduced and problem solving process is clearer. Second, cognitive load is shared by reducing computation time. Third, provide a clear display of problem that contributes to have a better insight into a problem which leads to better student engagement towards problem solving. Fourth, software support logical reasoning and help students to test hypothesis (Lajoie, 1993).

Technology in maths teaching can be used either as a constructional toolkit or its role can be only to do maths more efficiently and quickly (Olive and Makar, 2010). Keeping same concept in view mathematics software has been classified in two categories. First, emphasize on visualization and enable students to understand maths concepts easily and more clearly (Table 2) and second, are more focused on calculation and computation of complex problem (Table 3). This classification should not create the misconception that computational software doesn't have visualization ability or visualization softwares are not capable of fast computation instead classification is based upon the stronger aspect of the software.

Table 1: Online mathematical resources and tools for mathematics teaching and learning

Online Mathematics Resources	Tools for Mathematics Documentation Creation	Videos
• Math Open Reference, http://www.mathopenref.com/ • RealWorldMath, http://www.realworldmath.org/ • HelpingwithMath (http://www.helpingwithmath.com/ • A+ Click Maths, http://www.aplusclick.com/ • Free Math Help, http://www.freemathhelp.com/	• LibreOffice Math, http://www.libreoffice.org/discover/math/ • Xournal Digital Notebook- Math Worksheet Generator http://www.pil-network.com/Resources/Tools/Details/852875ce-b376-4b49-8f79-41c5cd75b067# • Math Editor , http://www.openmath.org/software/	• Karl Fisch's algebra movies, http://karlfisch.wikispaces.com/algebra+videos • Khan Academy , http://www.khanacademy.org/

Software for Visual Representation of Mathematical Concepts

Visualization is the ability to draw mental images, visualization software helps to conceptual understanding of complex mathematics topics. Mathematical visualization software (Table 2) offers multiple visual representations of mathematical concepts into real form with the aid of special computer graphics, diagrams, geometric figures and moving images helps students to understand complex mathematical phenomena. In this way software facilitate the process of mathematical learning by enhancing critical and higher order thinking and logical reasoning in a dynamic environment. These characteristics make them a 'construction toolkit for mathematical learning'.

Geogebra is a free, open source, multiplatform, dynamic mathematics software. Integration of dynamic geometry, algebra, calculus, and spreadsheet features into a single interactive package make it different from other mathematical software packages. Strong connection of algebra and geometry offers the multiple representations of mathematical concepts.

Sage was developed with the goal to promote open, collaborative and cooperative tools for math learners that can be used an alternative to high cost licensed software such as Maple, Mathematica, Magma, and MATLAB.

GeoEnzo is specially build for mathematics teaching with main feature, easy to draw various types of geometrical shapes such as triangle, circle, cube, line, cones and many more allow teachers to teach geometry more confidently and easily. GeoEnzo is a windows application that offers the option of instruction languages to English, German, French, Spanish and Dutch.

Graph is an open source application which helps to draw mathematical graphs in a user friendly environment. This application can be used to draw mathematical graphs in a coordinate system. There is possibility to visualize a function and past it into other mathematical programs. Graph provides the possibility to insert point series, trend lines, relations and labels, as well as create custom functions and constants.

PTC Mathcad Express can be used to solve, analyze, document and share calculations. This is free engineering math software which has functions to work with symbolic algebra and 3D plots. It helps to visualize complex datasets qualitatively and quantitatively. Works as an extension of Microsoft Excel and have a leverage data in existing spreadsheets.

Table 2: Software for Visual Representation of Mathematical Concepts

Software	Brief Description	Operating System	Website
GeoGebra	GeoGebra provides a sound platform to math students to learn math and solve mathematical problems of various topics such as linear programming, complex numbers, vectors, probability, discrete mathematics, calculus, statistics, algebra, functions and graphs, geometry etc.	Windows	http://www.geogebra.org/cms
Sage	Sage supports research and teaching in algebra, geometry, number theory, cryptography, numerical computation, and related areas.	Linux, Mac OSX, Windows	http://www.sagemath.org/index.html
GeoEnzo	With the help of this freeware mathematics teacher can teach geometry to math students. This freeware lets you easily draw various types of geometrical shapes such as cone, triangle, circle, cube, line and many more. This freeware is very useful for teaching geometry to math students.	Windows	http://geoenzo.com/geoenzo/geoenzo.htm
Graph	Graph is an open source program which helps to draw mathematical graphs in a user friendly environment. Graph provides the possibility to insert point series, trend lines, relations and labels, as well as create custom functions and constants.	Windows	http://graph.software.informer.com/4.3/
PTC Mathcad Express	This is free engineering math software which has functions to work with symbolic algebra and 3D plots. It helps to visualize complex datasets qualitatively and quantitatively.	Windows	http://www.ptc.com/product/mathcad/download-free-trial

Computational Software Tools

Computational software helps to solve algebra problem quite easily. Table 3 gives a brief description of a range of computational software tools. Here we have briefly describes the most useful computational tools. For example, Microsoft mathematics software helps this free ware have feature of drawing two dimensional and three dimension images which is a value addition to its computational capabilities. CompliCalc includes algebraic calculators and allow calculating square root, factorial, discount and distance. Other good examples of computational software are; SpeQ Mathematics, Euler Math Toolbox, Xfunc, Tibi's Mathematics and MathforChild.

SpeQ Mathematics provides in built support to solve equation and working with variables. General function calculations can be cried out easily. Trigonometric problems can also be solved using SpeQ mathematics. Euler Math Toolbox also offers the functionality to solve simple to complex equations.

Using Xfunc various types of equations in mathematics can be written and solved.You can utilize various functions to make different mathematical expressions with the help of Xfunc.

Tibi's Mathematics Suite is useful for to solve mathematical problems of graphs, matrices, permutation and combinations. Online digital calculators offer a range of functionality form very basic level of mathematics to very advanced mathematics level. Calculators for kids are used to carry out simple mathematical operations such as addition, subtraction, multiplication and division.

MathforChild, is free software basically developed for young kids to teach Maths in a friendly and fun way. This is interactive software that support audio mode that enables kids to learn and explore mathematics easily and quickly.

Table 3: Computational Software

Computer Algebra System			
Software	**Brief Description**	**Operating System**	**Website**
Microsoft Mathematics	Microsoft Mathematics is a free math software for your computer. With the help of this freeware math students can solve complex math problems easily. It basically helps math students to solve problems in algebra. Apart from that you can also draw 3D and 2D images with the help of this utility. The main objective of this freeware is to teach students the basic of math, physics and chemistry.	Windows	http://download.cnet.com/Microsoft-Mathematics-32-bit/3000-20417_4-75450134.html
Maxima	Maxima is simply a command line interface (CLI) that provides access to different command s that can be used to solve symbolic and numerical expressions including differentiation, integration, Taylor series, Laplace transforms, ordinary differential equations, systems of linear equations, polynomials, and sets, lists, vectors, matrices, and tensors	Linux, OSX, Windows	http://andrejv.github.io/wxmaxima/
XCAS	Xcas is an interface to perform computer algebra, function graphs, interactive geometry (2-d and 3-d), spreadsheet and statistics, programmation.	Linux, OSX, Windows	http://www-fourier.ujf-grenoble.fr/~parisse/giac.html
CompliCalc	This freeware also includes various functional and algebraic calculators. CompliCalc lets you perform a wide variety of operations such as calculate square root, factorial, discount and distance. To use this freeware you need to specify the task you want to perform on the main interface of this freeware.	Windows	http://sourceforge.net/projects/complicalc/
General Calculation Software			
SpeQ Mathematics	SpeQ Mathematics helps to learn math and solve complex problems in mathematics. It has inbuilt support for a wide variety of variables, constants and mathematical functions.	Windows	http://download.cnet.com/SpeQ-Mathematics/3000-2053_4-10634760.html
Euler Math Toolbox	With the help of this software you can carry out various calculations in mathematics such as subtraction, addition, calculus problems, algebra, matrices, functions and complex equations. This freeware is very useful for math students as they can solve nearly all types of mathematics problems by using this freeware.	Windows	http://sourceforge.net/projects/eumat/
Xfunc	By using this software you can write various types of equations in mathematics solve them and also see their solutions. You can utilize various functions to make different mathematical expressions with the help of Xfunc.	Windows	http://www.softpedia.com/get/Science-CAD/xFunc.shtml
Tibi's Mathematics Suite	Tibi's Mathematics Suite lets you solve mathematical problems in various topics such as graphs, matrices, permutation and combinations etc. Tibi's Mathematics Suite also includes a scientific calculator.	Windows	http://sourceforge.net/projects/tibimathematics/
MathForChild	With the help of this freeware your kids can learn mathematics easily. MathForChild will	Windows	http://mathforchild.en.soft

	teach various math operations such as multiplication, subtraction and addition to your kids. This software is very useful for kids as they can learn and explore mathematics easily and develop problem solving skills.		onic.com/

We have already indicated one of the main adventures in using open source software that is they are generally free. However, the cost of operating and using software is not always just to do with the purchase of that software, but may also include maintenance and support of the software installation, and indeed, may require the purchase of additional hardware. Any teacher or institution considering implementing an open source solution will need to weigh up all of the advantages and disadvantages of doing so. In any case, a full evaluation of an installation should be undertaken before opening up software to staff and students.

A further advantage of using open source software is that it ensures that users are compliant with copyright law. Copyright is an important consideration in the application of any software within education institutions. However, quite often in institutions in developing countries, administrators and teachers are less concerned about copyright issues and there have been instances where pirated copyrighted software have been used illegally. The use of open source and free software clearly makes issues of copyright less a problem.

In addition to the software useful for teaching and learning in mathematics that is listed in the table from, there are other useful and often quite sophisticated open source software available for education purposes. For example, Moodle is an open source Learning Management System used by many universities throughout the world including some of the world's largest universities (for example, UK Open University). Also, the open source office suite of programs provided by OpenOffice.org is an excellent free substitute to the Microsoft Office suite.

Conclusion

Our review shows that free and or open source software tools are available for most of the areas where computer software is used for mathematics teaching and learning. A more detailed examination also reveals that several free and open source software tools are as good as proprietary software, particularly for conceptual construction and mathematic efficiency. However, if an institute chooses to use free and open source tools for mathematics teaching and learning then the appropriateness of the particular software tools needs to be assessed. The licenses used by free and open source tools typically ensure that there is no cost for the software itself and low or no cost for its acquisition and installation. However, there may be cost implications for management, support and maintenance of the software. Much open source software is customizable and adaptable to different teaching and learning context. In short, we believe that the use of free and open source mathematics software can provide a viable alternative to proprietary software – and we hope that this brief review helps to increase access and use of free and open source mathematic software for basic level teaching and learning.

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Impact of demographic variables on the attitude of pre-service teachers toward teaching

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to analyze pre-service teachers' attitudes toward teaching as a profession, and examine the impact of a number of demographic variables including gender, teaching program, grade level, grade point average, and type of high school graduated on their attitudes. During the fall semester of 2013-2014 academic year, data were collected from 1321 pre-service teachers (446 male, 875 female), attending to four different grade levels as grade 1 (N=353, f=26.7), grade 2 (N=395, f=29.9), grade 3 (N=313, f=23.7), and grade 4 (N=260, f=19.7). Participants were enrolled into the following teaching programs; Computer and Teaching Technologies (N=109), Music Education (N=73), Arts Education (N=55), Science Education (N=173), Elementary Mathematics Education (N=137), Early Childhood Education (N=121), Elementary Education (N=332), Turkish Language Teaching (N=169), and Foreign Language Teaching (N=152), in a middle sized public university located in the Mediterranean region of Turkey. As data collection instruments, Attitude Scale towards the Profession of Teaching (Ustuner, 2006) was administered to the participants. It is a self-report questionnaire, having a single dimension with 34 items (10 negative attitudes, 24 positive attitudes). One-way between-groups analyses of variance (ANOVA) were conducted to explore the impact of demographic variables on pre-service teachers' attitudes toward teaching profession. Results revealed that pre-service teachers had positive and high attitudes (Mean=4.00, SD=.69, min=1.35, max=5.00) towards teaching profession. They indicated their most agreement to the items "The idea of teaching people something that they do not know makes me happy" (Mean=4.41) and "I believe that I will succeed in teaching" (Mean=4.37). On the other hand, they indicated their most disagreement to the items "The operating conditions of teaching attracts me" (Mean=3.65) and "If I could choose an occupation again, I would choose teaching" (Mean=3.45). Regarding the impact of demographic variables, results revelaed that there were statistically significant differences at the $p<.05$ level in attitude scores considering pre-service teachers' gender ($F(1,1241)=62.87$, $p=.000$), teaching program ($F(8,1234)=2.10$, $p=.033$), grade level ($F(3,1239)=7.11$, $p=.000$), grade point average ($F(4,1238)=7.97$, $p=.000$), and type of high school graduated ($F(5,1237)=4.05$, $p=.001$). However, despite reaching statistical significance, the actual differences in the mean scores were all small, resulting in small effect sizes with eta squared less than 0.06.

Keywords: Pre-service teachers, attitude, teaching profession, gender, teaching program, grade level, grade point average, high school

Improving medical student knowledge of serous membrane anatomy by animal dissection
Running title: Anatomy knowledge and animal dissection

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Abstract

Objective: The objective of this study was the effect of animal dissection on improving medical student knowledge and view related viscera and serous membrane anatomy.

Study design: Six mature animals from each species including boat, sheep and rat were chosen for anatomy practical course including; thorax, abdomen and pelvis (two from each species for each part). Sixty eight medical students were randomized to the animal dissection and usual teaching (group I) vs usual teaching alone (Group II) in thoracic part. In abdominal part the position changed for both groups and in pelvis anatomy all student access to the both usual teaching and animal dissection. Post intervention knowledge and attitude questionnaires were completed. paired t test was used to analysis the data and to evaluate the animal dissection on scores and attitudes.

Results: The animal dissection group had significant increase knowledge in thoracic (15.8±1.2 vs 14.1±0.1) and abdominal anatomy (16.1±1.5 vs 15.1±0.8) compare to the traditional teaching group. both group in pelvis anatomy that had animal dissection got the high and the nearly same marks. The result of the questionnaire demonstrated , 82% of students belief this methods could covers enough of serous anatomy knowledge and 96%

understanding the anatomy of the serous membrane and viscera. Also, 90%, perception this method created the better situation for relationship and help to the other medical students.

conclusion: It seems that the dissection of animal are very important in the education of anatomy practical course and could improve medical student knowledge and attitudes.

Key words: Anatomy, animal, attitude, dissection, education, serous membrane

Learning and teaching in the European strategic network

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Abstract The purpose of this study is to describe the educational development of the European strategic network of higher education institutions. The Consortium on Applied Research and Professional Education was established to promote the collaboration of five universities of applied sciences. The study analyses the learning and teaching modes using blended learning and innovation pedagogy and describes their usability in the strategic network of higher education institutions. The strategic network promotes student and staff exchange, conferences and joint research and development projects. There are also emerging joint educational programmes and ideas to expand the educational programmes to achieve joint degrees. The findings of this study are useful to those who aim to improve collaboration in international networks and strengthen institutional performance.

Key words: Learning and teaching, higher education, strategic network, pedagogical development.

Introduction

Online learning, distance learning and the expectations on higher education institutions confront learning and teaching in higher education institutions. Among other things, information and communication technology, part-time study and internationalization are transforming the modes of delivering education. Distance education is changing the traditional face-to-face teaching modes. There are demands for higher education institutions to accelerate economic growth, employment and welfare in their external environment, provide opportunities for lifelong learning and include technology-based practices in the curriculum.

Regional development is an important responsibility of the universities of applied sciences. There must be institution-wide commitment to address and emphasize the external impact of the institution in the strategic plan. Outreach can be defined as an activity in which academic staff engages with external environment and communicates in reciprocal learning and teaching that increases both the capacity of external partners and the academic staff to produce scholarship that reflects realities outside the institution (Church, 2002). The outreach and engagement in international activities underscore the importance for the social and virtual networks and distance learning.

The international perspective is integrated into all the activities, including teaching, research and development and service to society. The purpose of this integration is for graduates to have the international skills that they will need in the workplace. This integration will also ensure the high international quality in education and applied research and development. Learning and teaching in international networks require traditional face-to-face instruction but also distance learning using information and communication technology. New pedagogical outlines and careful planning of course-delivery modalities are essential in international networks.

This study analyses learning and teaching in the strategic partnerships of higher education institutions. The study analyses the blended learning and innovation pedagogy and presents the Consortium on Applied Research and Professional Education (CARPE), consisting of five European universities of applied sciences to promote student and staff exchange, research and development and joint educational programmes. By establishing a strong European reputation, the strategic alliance increases the amount of external funding to its member universities.

The Turku University of Applied Sciences and the HU University of Applied Sciences began planning its strategic partnerships in 2008. After many meetings and negotiations the Hamburg University of Applied

Sciences and the Polytechnic University Valencia joined the collaboration and signed an agreement with the other institutions in 2011. Shortly thereafter, in 2012, Manchester Metropolitan University joined the network. The promotion of international activities in the strategic network is important for the European economic and social cohesion in the Common Market. The network improves the international skills that students will need in their working life.

This study is organised as follows. Section 2 describes blended learning and innovation pedagogy, both of which offer valuable pedagogical outlines for the learning and teaching in international strategic networks. Section 3 presents the European strategic network, which provides an environment for distance learning. Section 4 describes many tools and practices of distance learning in international networks. Finally, the results of the study are summarized in the concluding section.

Literature review

Blended learning

Blended learning combines traditional face-to-face and technology-mediated instruction encouraging the adoption of platforms such as online learning, mobile technologies and resources that exist in the cloud (Moskal, Dziuban and Hartman, 2013). Blended learning can also be adopted in distance learning and with new information and communication technology its will come 'the new normal model' (Norberg, Dziuban and Moskal, 2011). Blended learning has emerged from advances in information and communication technology but very few studies provide educational guidance for institutions (Halverson, Graham, Spring and Drysdale, 2012).

Littlejohn and Pegler (2007) expanded the types of blends to include the 'space blend' (face-to-face or online), 'time blend' (geography and availability), 'media blend' (tools, technologies and resources), and 'activity blend' (learning and teaching activities, individual or group). It is essential that a higher education institution defines and supports policies and course design processes that ensure all students access to learning regardless their time of study and geographical location. Many higher education institutions teach in multiple modes which includes on campus, at a distance, online or a blend of several modes (Taylor and Newton, 2013).

During the development of blended learning, a spectrum has appeared on course-delivery modalities, ranging from traditional face-to-face instruction to comprehensive online teaching. The first step is technology-enhanced education. Thereafter, blended learning is followed by learning mostly and finally completely online instruction (Graham, Woodfield and Harrison, 2013). The latter phases of the spectrum are useful in distance learning. There are virtually unlimited combinations of face-to-face and technology-mediated education, none of which is more or less valid than the others.

Higher education institutions began by blended learning in part-time adult education, where students are also employed, but the new techniques have also become more common for full-time students. Blended learning has become more popular among young full-time students in Finland, most of whom divide their time between their jobs and their studies. The experience has shown that many students find fully online courses very demanding. Institutions need to solve the technical and pedagogical obstacles in face-to-face education. The development has led to technology-enhanced education, blended learning and mostly online learning. Blended learning presumes the increased capacity of tutoring and electronic libraries (Kettunen, 2007).

According to the research evidence, there is no single best one-size-fits-all model for blended learning. The mode of delivery has a very weak statistical correlation with student success or persistence (Dziuban and Moskal, 2011). Each institution has to select the success factors for the mode of delivery to fit for the purpose and improve them continuously over a span of several years to achieve high quality. It is typical that at the beginning of a course there is face-to-face class to meet and build community, but discussing a complex matter

that requires reflection may be better accomplished through an asynchronous Internet discussion forum (Garrison and Kanuka, 2004).

The key issue in the literature on blended learning is the combination of face-to-face and technology-mediated instruction. Even though it has been expanded to geographical, technological and activity dimensions there is still room to add new perspectives to blended learning. Blended learning has a decades-long tradition in Finland. It has evolved to include, among other things, distance learning, which includes essays from literature with practical applications and criticism, service to society, practical training, student exchange, entrepreneurship and development tasks. The integration of research and development into education is a new innovation in higher education and creates capabilities for students to participate in development work after graduation.

Innovation pedagogy

Innovation pedagogy was developed to improve the external impact of the universities of applied sciences and support regional development (Kettunen, 2011). The institutions respond to the development needs of the enterprises and other organisations in the region. These development needs are typically multidisciplinary. The universities of applied sciences apply for project funding and integrate the projects into education. Students are offered project studies and they are able to learn innovation competencies in the research and development projects (Kettunen, Penttilä and Kairisto-Mertanen, 2013). Innovation competencies are gained in international collaboration and they are valuable to promote entrepreneurship and the export of education (Kantola and Kettunen, 2013).

The positive external impact of the universities of applied sciences is created with incremental or radical innovations (Tidd, Bessant and Pavitt, 2001). Incremental innovations are created by continuous improvement of products, services or processes. Radical innovations create new products, services or processes. Successful innovation pedagogy promotes the economic growth, employment and welfare in the regions of the universities of applied sciences. The curriculum is designed to reach out to and engage with regional development activities.

Individual learning is extended to collaborative and networked learning, which are the modes of delivering education in projects and distance education. The students are offered project studies where learning emerges as learners interact (Vygotsky, 1978). Students work together and improve their problem-solving skills to achieve practical learning goals (Puntambekar, 2006). Advanced learning takes place in professional education when learners are well-connected to their environment. The networks raise the ability of students and staff to participate and interact when they resolve their shared problems (Cross and Parker, 2014). Networked learning can be supported not only by information and communication technology but also by social and international networks.

International strategic network

Consortium on Applied Research and Professional Education

The CARPE network was established to support the economic and social cohesion in the European Common Market and create benefits for the universities of applied sciences in member countries. The following higher education institutions signed an agreement on the strategic network:

- **HU University of Applied Sciences Utrecht (Hogeschool Utrecht)**
- **Turku University of Applied Sciences (Turun ammattikorkeakoulu)**
- **Polytechnic University of Valencia (Universitat Politècnica de València)**
- **Hamburg University of Applied Sciences (Hochschule für Angewandte Wissenschaften Hamburg)**
- **Manchester Metropolitan University**

Trust is an essential element in social networks (Anderson, Steinerte and Russell, 2010). The purpose of the network is to benefit from the trustworthy and close collaboration of the higher education institutions. A formidable challenge is to know the knowledge areas of each institution, research groups and individuals in a changing environment. Therefore CARPE wants to keep the network relatively small to maximize its benefits. The European network is eligible for funding from the European Union. From the viewpoint of economic development, the purpose is to support the enterprises and other organisations, because for many European countries the continent is the most important export area.

The key activities of the CARPE network include student and staff exchanges and research and development projects. These activities are financed by Erasmus and project funding. There are also joint study programmes which support the exchange. The objectives of the CARPE network are as follows:

- **Exchange and collaboration in European research programmes**
- **Development of joint study programmes**
- **Exchange of students and staff (also non-academic staff)**
- **Establishment of a strong European reputation**

All institutions in the network are universities of applied sciences, which have professional education and applied research. There are no traditional research universities in the network, but the Polytechnic University of Valencia and Manchester Metropolitan University offer degree programs from the undergraduate to the doctoral level. Another criterion is that the members of the network are in similar fields of education, which enable student and staff exchange and joint degree programmes. The institutions aim to increase their external impact on the region by innovations, which means the creation of new or the improvement of existing products and services (Bessant, Lamming, Noke and Phillips, 2005). New or improved products and services require improved or reengineered processes (Hammer and Champy, 1993). All the member institutions are regionally oriented in order to support the economic growth, employment and welfare in the region.

Figure 1 depicts the CARPE network on the European map. One of the key ideas was the geographical coverage in Europe. At the first phase, the network is located in Western Europe. The network has planned to call partners from Eastern Europe to extend the geographical spread to better cover European markets. The Steering Committee accepted the University of Debrecen in Hungary as an associate member in November 2014 and it can be considered for full membership in the future.

CARPE is an open network, meaning that other higher education institutions and partners can join its activities. They can start the student and staff exchange, joint educational programmes or research and development projects whenever it suits both the parties. The active collaboration opens possibilities for associate membership. After a trial period, associate members can be accepted as full members if they fulfil the convergence criteria. It is necessary to avoid unnecessary bureaucracy and accept only those partners which are ready to pursue the common interests of network members.

The highest decision-making body is the Steering Committee, which meets twice a year. The plans and decisions are prepared by the support group. The communication group prepares the webpages and other communication. There are also working groups and theme groups responsible for the themes of the CARPE Conferences. Student associations also participate in the conferences and meet each other.

Figure 1. The CARPE network on the European map

Results of collaboration in the CARPE network

Erasmus funding of student and staff exchanges has increased possibilities to plan research and development projects and to apply for funding from the European Union and other sources. The network has also arranged biennale conferences. The first CARPE Conference was in Utrecht in 2011 and the second in Manchester in 2013. The purpose of the conferences is not only the presentation of papers; experts attend to collaborate on joint projects. The number of student and staff exchange was 38 in November 2014, but many of the exchanges included several people.

There have been many project meetings and five larger workshops where researchers and teachers have shared their knowledge and presented new ideas for collaboration. A new idea is that the institutions offer joint degrees which lead to one or more degree certificates. International Semesters and student exchanges provide opportunities for internationally oriented students to study for at least one year at a host university. The number of educational and research projects has increased. In November, 22 project plans or projects were listed.

The network has also been useful from the viewpoint of other stakeholders. Enterprises and other organisations participated in research and development projects and benefited from the latest knowledge of the projects. Employers also benefit from the skilled graduates who have participated in international collaboration. The experience gained from practical training has become the most important reason for hiring graduates for enterprises and other organisations. The student associations have met at the conferences and planned future collaboration.

Distance learning in international networks

This section of the study describes the international collaboration of the Turku University of Applied Sciences (TUAS). It is one of the largest universities of applied sciences in Finland. It has four fields of education and 32 degree programmes leading to the bachelor's degree. Three of them are taught in English. TUAS has 14 master's degree programmes, two of which are taught in English. TUAS has four faculties: the Faculty of Arts Academy, the Faculty of Health and Wellbeing, the Faculty of Technology, Environment and Business and the Faculty of Business, ICT and Life Sciences.

International Semesters

TUAS has arranged International Semesters in nearly every Finnish degree programme. International Semesters are taught in English and they are at least three months and 30 European Credit Transfer System (ECTS) credits. Most of them are at the bachelor's level but some programmes are at the master's level. Several of the International Semesters have been developed with international partners; they combine contact and distance learning. An individual study plan is prepared for an international exchange student based on the discussions between the teacher tutors and students.

International degree programmes taught in English

TUAS offers three bachelor's and two master's degree programme taught in English to students who are interested in conducting studying in an international atmosphere:

- Degree Programme in International Business (Bachelor of Business Administration)
- Degree Programme in Information Technology (Bachelor of Engineering)
- Degree Programme in Nursing (Bachelor of Health Care)
- Degree Programme in International Business Management (Master of Business Administration)
- Degree Programme in Leadership and Service Design (Master of Culture and Arts)

The Degree Programme of International Business leading to the Bachelor of Business Administration is targeted to students who are interested in working in international small and medium-sized enterprises or for a global corporation. The Degree Programme in Information Technology leading to the degree of Bachelor of Engineering emphasizes the technologies, methods and tools for the computerized analysis and exchange of data. The Degree Programme in Nursing leads to the degree of Bachelor of Health Care. The mission of the degree programme is to educate students to work in international and multicultural nursing environments.

The Degree Programme in International Business Management leads to the prestigious Master of Business Administration. The degree programme is designed for those who work in development and management positions in international business. The Degree Programme in Leadership and Service Design includes design thinking, business and society and the focus of service design. The students have different professional and cultural backgrounds which enable them to find jobs in a variety of design positions in interdisciplinary environments and development work. The master's thesis is completed during the studies as the evidence of gained competence. According to the Finnish stipulations, three years of work experience are required after a bachelor's degree to be accepted for the master's programme.

Student exchange

International students can choose from a wide selection of courses taught in English. Studies at Finnish universities of applied sciences are professionally oriented and include a great deal of group work and project studies. International incoming students are assisted by a Finnish student tutor during the exchange studies. Student tutors meet incoming students at the beginning of their stay, introduce TUAS and help them take care of the practicalities such as accommodation and other practical matters. An exchange period is also a good opportunity to make friends and explore different cultures.

Practical training abroad

Practical training is a good alternative for internationalisation abroad. In return students gain

- **good language skills**
- **international contacts**
- **new experiences**

A degree student at TUAS can obtain financial support for international practical training from Erasmus scholarships and supplementary support from the funds of TUAS for three to five months. The students will earn typically 60 ECTS credits from the practical training but in some of the degree programmes the number of credits is higher. The students at the exchange must draw up a report on the period abroad and submit it within a month of returning to the home country.

Joint degrees

A joint degree is offered by a degree programme which is developed and provided by more than one higher education institution and which leads to one or more degree certificates. The term "joint degree" also covers the double degree agreed upon between two institutions. The double degree means that the student typically studies at least one year at the partner university. Normally, the student studies abroad at the host university during the third year of studies. Upon graduation, the student receives degrees from both from the home and host university. This can be quite an advantage in the labour market.

Institutions must agree on what is considered an accepted study completion. For instance, distance education, a jointly guided thesis or a practical training should be agreed. Practical training is compulsory for the bachelor's degree at the Finnish universities of applied sciences, but not every country has a practical training period included in the degree. Typically, the thesis is elaborated according to the criteria of the home institution, but the supervision and assessment may be realized by both institutions.

TUAS has signed double degree agreements with the higher education institutions located in the most important countries of international trade for Finland. It is important that the graduates from TUAS have necessary knowledge and skills and become employed in jobs where good knowledge about the trade partners is essential. TUAS has the following double degree programmes and partners:

Degree Programme in Information Technology

- Hamburg University of Applied Sciences (Hochschule für Angewandte Wissenschaften Hamburg)
- Polytechnic Institute of Coimbra (Politecnico de Coimbra)
- University of Tours (Université François-Rabelais de Tours)
- Ca' Foscari University of Venice (Università Ca' Foscari Venezia)
- University of Burgos (Universidad de Burgos)
- University of Lorraine (Université de Lorraine)

Degree Programme in Electronics

- Hamburg University of Applied Sciences (Hochschule für Angewandte Wissenschaften Hamburg)
- University of Zaragoza (Universidad de Zaragoza)
- Polytechnic Institute of Coimbra (Politecnico de Coimbra)

Degree Programmes in Business Adminstration, Business Information Systems and International Business

- Groupe ESC Troyes
- Regensburg University of Applied Sciences (Ostbayerische Technische Hochschule Regensburg)

- St. Petersburg University of Management and Economics

Degree Programmes in Energy and Environmental Engineering and Industrial Management

- Orenburg State University

Recognition and accreditation of previous studies and knowledge

The identification and recognition of students' previously acquired competence is based on the competence-based descriptions, which explain the learning objectives of studies. The way in which these objectives have been achieved is irrelevant. Learning can occur in formal education, distance learning and working life. The competence can be included in the degree or the studies can be replaced with previously acquired competence. Inclusion means integrating such higher education level competence to the degree that has no equivalent in the existing curriculum. Substitutability refers to replacing studies included in the curriculum of the degree programme with proven competence.

Students who return from exchange should ensure that the credit transfer to their degree is done correctly. They return the transcript of record obtained from the host institution to their home institution. If the higher education institution does not belong to the ECTS, the credits must be transferred to the European system. For example, the credits achieved in the United States must be multiplied by two to achieve the ECTS credits.

Conclusions

Emerging information and communication technologies can be considered disruptive so that they require a careful consideration of the educational goals, contents, structures and processes. The elements of blended learning, innovation pedagogy and distance learning are becoming more popular in higher education. Educational development demands careful policy development and implantation. Administrators must consider strategic management, pedagogical outlines, program development and infrastructure requirements. Faculty members have the opportunity to use the new technologies and pedagogical outlines to facilitate learning more effectively. Students must re-examine their assumptions and learn what will be required of them in the labour market after graduation.

This study presented the CARPE network, which was formed by five European universities of applied sciences. The strategic network of the universities of applied sciences provides a trustworthy learning environment for students who want to strengthen their international competencies. The network has had positive results on the student and staff exchange and research and development projects. The common fields of education of the institutions help students and staff increase exchange. The trustworthy relationships between institutions help the research staff to plan research and development projects and apply external funding. The study also presented empirical evidence of the distance learning in international networks. International Semesters and degree programmes at the home university are first steps, followed by student exchange and practical training abroad.

The results of the CARPE network are positive. The number of student and staff exchanges has increased. The network has arranged conferences, workshops and project meetings to share knowledge and present new ideas for research and development projects and other collaboration. The number of research and development projects and the funding from the European Union has increased. The network has also benefited enterprises, other organisations and strengthened the economic and social cohesion in the European Common Market.

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MACHINIMA FOR FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING

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The Lisbon Key Competences (2006) underline the importance of language learning, online learning and intercultural communication among the key priorities. With ever increasing widening participation in education and the turn towards open access in educational resources, it is important to identify new ways of engaging learners utilising new pedagogies and new technologies to motivate language learners in the pursuit of lifelong education. The use of immersive digital games and virtual environments has led to an increasing amount of research in the field of education over the last few years. Developing from this potential, educators are now considering how the use of recorded video productions (or machinima) can be used to stimulate task-based learning, learner motivation and engagement in authentic contexts. CAMELOT deals with the use of machinima – recorded videos made in a virtual environment such as Second Life or within a digital game world.

MIGRATION OF SINDHI HINUDES TO INDIA; RETROSPECTS AND CHALLENGES TO ADDRESS
WHY SINDHI HINDUS ARE MIGRATING TO INDIA

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Partition of sub-continent is now a sixty-seven years old story but it is still going on like a big-bang process. Sindh the province of Pakistan is going through the trauma of migration and heart□broken emotions of innocent indigenous inhabitants. The continued incidences of violence against the largest religious minority group Hindus have created a sense of insecurity among them. They are subject to kidnapping for ransom, forced abductions and conversions of their women. Though these trends have continued for many years now, the recent spur of events has given impetus to the un-fortunate trends forcing the indigenous dwellers to abandon their motherland. The fear of being forced to convert, abduction of daughters or other women in the family and their conversion to Islam under duress, or kidnap for ransom are some of the many reasons that have probably exhausted this group of Hindus to seek asylum elsewhere. The present review analyzes the persecution of Hindus that compels them to leave their mother land. It also focuses the different necessary steps taken to stop this phenomena to retain the unique features of Sindh that is famous as the land of secularism, pluralism, and religious tolerance.

Key words: Forced conversion, kidnapping for ransom, Hindus, Migration, Sindh

Multigrade Teaching in Elementary Schools: In-service Teacher Education Online Course Module

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In Asian and developing countries such as Turkey, China, Korea, Maldives, Pakistan, multigrade teaching is highly practiced in many of the schools. However, there are limited studies focusing on the ways of improving the quality of these schools. Therefore, at first, this study strives to explain why it is of high importance to provide online in-service training to the teachers working in multigrade classes. Secondly, it strives to propose a framework and a sample course module for the professional needs of these teachers in order to support governments, NGOs or private institutions to design such an online course. As for the method of the study, a meta-analysis of the professional development needs of these teachers is conducted and based on it, a framework on what to include and how to deliver the module are presented, and finally a sample module (its content and organization) is provided in consistent with the recent literature highlights.

Keywords: Multigrade Teaching, In-service Training, Distance Course Module

New Management Approaches in Higher Education

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Abstract
Today's universities may want to consider strengthening their customer oriented approaches in interactions with students. Institutions of higher education are grappling with difficult fiscal realities, a new emphasis on students as consumers, faculty challenges in balancing rigor and student course ratings, as well complex human performance processes. Student expectations, faculty pressures, and competitive markets all contribute to an environment where it's now commonplace to negotiate critical standards in higher education. This paper examines various influences on institutions of higher education as they move toward a customer-oriented focus. It presents relevant aspects of the marketing approach of the universities' activities in the current market conditions of higher education institutions. It also stresses the importance of balancing the needs of various customer groups while continuing to serve as purveyors of educated human resources in a global economy. The result showed that higher education managers must be more open and flexible, to help them explore "new angles" for addressing some of the many difficult problems of HE management through the use of new approaches.
Key Words: Management Approaches, Higher Education, Change Management, Marketing Approach

1- INTRODUCTION
Higher Education (HE) is currently operating within an environment of continuous change and uncertainty. Vice-Chancellors, Executive Managers, Deans, Departmental Heads and Administrative Managers are encountering an acceleration of varied and difficult managerial problems. Morgan (2006) asserts that successful managers are "open and flexible", suspending decisions whenever possible, until a better understanding of the problem is attained. He believes that modeling insights may lead to a range of informed decision scenarios that may solve the identified problem. Furthermore, Morgan goes on to suggest that less effective managers are seen to explain and interpret from a "fixed angle", and to continually hammer at persistent problems using the same old methods – which can facilitate disillusionment and conflict amongst academic, administrative and technical staff(Bell et al, 2012). A paper by the Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE) asserts "Higher Education changes lives. It is enriching and inspiring for students and it is vital to social mobility, future economic growth and our international standing". This succinctly captures the need (or "the why") for Higher Education. In the past, HE organizations were considered to have a relatively stable and certain future (Kennedy 2003). However, HE has to evolve to meet the now rapidly changing demands of society and government. Over the last two decades employment patterns have changed significantly, and there is a need for a more highly trained and educated workforce. This workforce must continuously update its skills to meet the changing requirements of the labour market. Recognition of employment changes that affected HE initiated, in the United Kingdom, the Dearing Report (Dearing 1997) which was highly influential in shaping UK HE in the early part of this century. Subsequently, the debt crisis in various European countries has begun to impact on HE. In the UK, a new strategy is being implemented (Lawrence, 2001) to fund HE institutions more directly through student tuition fees and this has essentially "privatized" certain subject areas as government funding for some disciplines such as the humanities is removed. This will have a significant impact upon departmental, faculty and institution budgets, as income becomes directly related to student numbers. In the last decade or so the Government has demanded greater university accountability for the public funds they spend, which has in turn placed an emphasis on

management practices and the measurement of education quality. Trow (1994) coined the terms “hard” and “soft” managerialism which characterize the different government and university management approaches respectively (Kekale, 2000). Higher education goes worldwide through a process characterized by significant changes both in educational demand and in the educational offer. Higher education institutions are put in a position to find solutions to problems arising from internal and external customer characteristics.

2- COMPLEXITY AND UNCERTAINTY

Higher Education management must address both the problem-setting process and the problem-solving process (Clare, 2005). Whilst we believe the former process requires greater attention, both need consideration for effective management. The problem setting process should consider issues of complexity and of uncertainty. Academics researchers and practitioners associated with various management related disciplines such as Operational Research, Organizational Behavioror Project Management (Brown, 2013) are exploring these important concepts, and three reasons are identified as to why there is a need to provide an overview of complexity and uncertainty. First, to facilitate awareness of these important notions. Second, to assist with the problem boundary setting. Third, to guide selection of appropriate organizational research approaches leading to informative management decision-making. The notion of complexity is one which has generated new paradigms for decision making within the OR domain. Rosenhead and Mingers (2001) briefly address complexity suggesting that organizations and individuals operate in “densely interconnected networks” in which the ramifications of decisions should not be ignored. Moreover, they argue that there is a dichotomy of problem situations that need to be considered in the selection of decision modeling approaches (Marshall, 2010). Checkland considers decision making from a systems perspective and highlights the distinction between “Soft” and “Hard” systems thinking. Hard systems thinking is associated with methodologies and techniques that are connected with systems analysis and systems engineering. It assumes the world consists of systems that can be objectively modelled, there are agreed goals, and the aim is to determine the most effective and efficient way to attain the goals. Soft systems thinking, on the other hand, accepts the rich complexity of the world and systems concepts are applied to assist with structuring thinking and learning about a problematic situation (Means et al, 2009). Describing problem situations highlights the tension between the objectivist stance, which considers problems as independent of an individual stakeholder’s perspective, and the subjectivist stance which acknowledges the impact of a stakeholder’s perspective in defining or constituting the problems. Related to complexity is uncertainty (especially with respect to social phenomena) and Rosenhead and Mingers (2001) offer three reasons why uncertainty needs to be considered. Firstly, not knowing the impact of other decision-makers, whose choices may affect our decision choices, may seriously undermine the efficacy of decisions made. Secondly the dynamics of network within an organization may not be fully understood and can be turbulent. Hence, forecasting the consequences of actions become problematic. Thirdly, organizations are continually evolving in their mission and this can be very unsettling for staff. Hence problem setting can be extremely fluid (Marshall, 2010).

3- CHAMGE MANAGEMENT IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Universities are peculiarly resistant to change (Marshall, 2010) and managing change in universities is perhaps the most daunting challenge facing senior managers in organizations today. A key feature that distinguishes successful change management is effective "stakeholder engagement" (Brown, 2013). Stakeholder engagement can mean different things to different people and can range from the most superficial (telling people what is going to be done to them, i.e., top-down) to inviting them to define the problem in their own terms and encouraging them to develop and implement their own solutions (bottom-up). Top-down

approaches tend to work best where outcomes can be predicted with confidence and there is consensus about what those outcomes should be (Brown, 2012). The benefits of top-down include efficient time and resource management and tight control over project outputs. However top-down management does not necessarily guarantee adequate control over outcomes. Outcomes differ from outputs in that outputs are what the project produces (reports, IT systems, procedures, etc), whereas outcomes are how people use those outputs and how they feel about them. A tightly controlled project that produces a technically workable solution on time and to budget is likely to run into implementation and sustainability problems if key stakeholders feel aggrieved about lack of involvement and do not believe the solution meets their needs. While there are many different types of universities, they nevertheless tend to share a culture within which managing works by consent and incrementalism and high value is placed on dialogue and the legitimacy of critique.1 These are not ideal conditions for top-down methods. At the other end of the spectrum, project outputs that are generated by localized bottom-up initiatives are likely to be enthusiastically supported by their progenitors but largely ignored by the rest of the institution (Brown, 2002; Marshall, 2010). A third possibility is "distributive" leadership in which the change process is a joint enterprise between stakeholders. Distributive approaches entail development of an open sharing culture that values dissemination of information and building of trust between participants, and that therefore is better suited to the organizational culture of universities.

4- MARKETING APPROACH IN THE MANAGEMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION

Higher education goes worldwide through a process characterized by significant changes both in educational demand and in the educational offer. Higher education institutions are put in a position to find solutions to problems arising from internal and external customer characteristics. The need for universities in the public and private sectors to address this market of higher education in terms of marketing was due to the expansion of the private sector and the emergence of performant universities, which led to increased competition in the educational market (Rogers, 2010). Maringe and Gibbs (2009) found that in Europe, higher education specific to knowledge - based society has become a good and therefore it recourse to the use of marketing tools (Diaconu et al, 2012). Levy (2006) believes that competition features differ from region to region and from country to country as marketing tools implementation is different compared with the acquired market experience. Marketing application in the field of educational services is known as educational marketing, component of social marketing. On the general, the higher education market is characterized by exchanges, transactions between units providing educational services and organizations within the national economy that benefits of human resource prepared in a specific area based on a curriculum and between schools and consumers of educational services to acquire knowledge, form their skills and abilities to fill a job. Today, this concept of change has generated a broader concept that educational institutions have begun to develop, the concept of relationship (Sharpe et al, 2006). Considering the importance that goes to the educational market, is making it necessary to adopt the concept of market-oriented strategic change defined by Piercy (2002) as the organization's effort to pursue more customer requirements, to identify those factors that determine the customer neglect, to adapt the functional structure so that the employees know very well the requirements of customers that they try to satisfy at the highest level, better than the competition, creating a competitive advantage. Market orientation has been one of the most interesting research fields in the recent 20 years. Recently, some authors believe that marketing orientation should be developed as a business model. In higher education institutions, the ultimate goal of business should be external

customer satisfaction (students, employers, society, etc.) and internal customers (teaching and nonteaching staff) as a guarantee of sustainability of a market institution constantly changing (Diaconu et al, 2012). The approach of marketing educational services envisages the orientation to satisfying the customers' needs and using the marketing strategies to the level of university institutions which the education consumers will identify, who are interested in the educational offer for which they have capabilities and will allow adaptation to make it more attractive. The aim of higher education institutions must be the determination of needs, wishes, the education consumers' interests, the adaptation of educational and research approach to offer programmes that maintain or improve long-term satisfaction of their and the society's interests. The process of education, the special needs of supplier services and those of the consumers should be carefully explored as fundamental elements of the education system. The supplier services are directly represented in the relationship with the students by the teachers who are responsible for the generation and transmission of knowledge. The educational process is also maintained by the necessary infrastructure, by the cultural organization, by management that does not always accept quickly a change and for this reason the expectations of educational service consumers are secondary (Diaconu et al, 2012).

5-BALANCING CUSTOMER NEEDS AND STANDARDS IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Colleges and universities are facing major changes as they navigate the 21st century and make decisions that will not only impact higher education but will also contribute to our country's future competitiveness in the global marketplace. While change is unavoidable and higher learning faces difficult choices, we can choose to make proactive decisions and become agents of change. The financial obligations of running an institution today are a major concern. While not a new concept, there is a trend for public institutions to redefine their identity as service organizations and businesses (Cathy et al, 2011). Due to increased financial demands, there has also been a dramatic rise in the cost of attending post-secondary schools. The Delta Project, which focuses on postsecondary costs, productivity, and accountability, points out that while students are paying more of the total costs associated with higher education, less of the tuition-generated revenue is actually going into the classroom. In the 1990s, student tuition paid for approximately 24% of the operating costs at public colleges and universities, in 1998 that percentage rose to 37%, and in 2005 it was nearly 50% (Sharpe, 2006). Today, institutions rely on increasingly large numbers of students to help balance expenditures. As institutions face growing financial constraints due to recent economic events, there is even greater concern that institutions will defer to the value of the monetary benefits of increased enrollments, especially in the face of fewer state resources. Given the importance of enrollment monies, it is not surprising that universities have become very savvy in marketing their institutions to the student customer (Brown, 2002). If the focus is directed at attracting larger numbers of potential students even when it is necessary to modify admission standards, there is an associated risk of also negotiating academic standards to create easier courses and modify academic requirements.1 The reputation of the institution becomes the most costly casualty of all when academic standards that underlie scholarly integrity are compromised.

6- QUALITY HUMAN PERFORMANCE IN HIGHER EDUCATION

A key component of quality in teaching and learning involves quality human performance by the learner. Substantial financial outlays by companies and the government for training are made in attempts to address problems in the quality of human performance. These efforts have met with minimal success, and major gaps in the standards to which humans have been trained and their resulting performance remain. Swart and Duncan(2005) note that the expected performance in a work setting is generally dictated by a set of valid and appropriate expectations and is attained through proper education and training. When performance

consistently adheres to the appropriate expectations, then quality human performance is achieved. If there is a discrepancy in performance and appropriate expectations, then it must be investigated, causes identified, and appropriate corrective action taken (Bell et al, 2012).
To achieve quality human performance, we posit that three components must be present:
• A clearly defined set of tasks to perform.
• An individual that has the capacity/ability to perform the required task.
• A clear set of standards that define successful performance.
Training and education provide the skills, knowledge, abilities, and attitudes to perform the tasks to standard. In Figure 1 all three variables are conceptually displayed inside a circle of quality human performance.

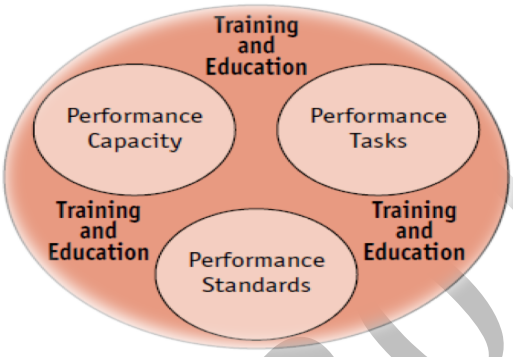

Figure1. The Components of Quality Human Performance (Cathy et al, 2010)

The link that ties these three components together is training and education. If a person can learn the job and the job tasks are performed to a quality standard, then it is posited that quality human performance will ensue. In contrast, Figure 2 displays what happens when the standards are negotiated. Negotiating standards creates wasted performance capacity, which is depicted as the variance from quality human performance.

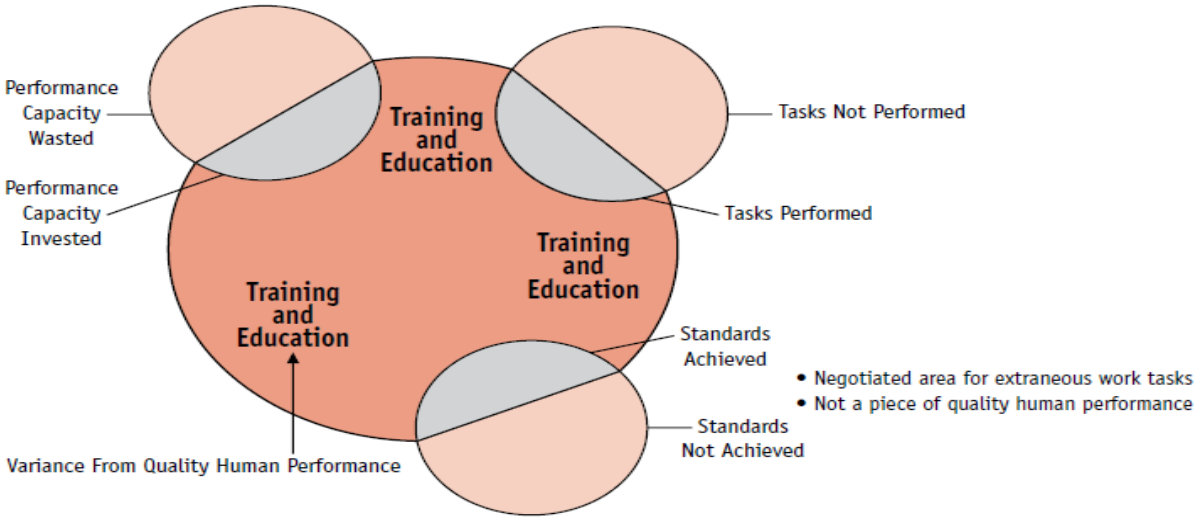

Figure2. Degraded Human Performance (Cathy et al, 2010)

The components are in constant motion: the work to perform (either academic or workplace\tasks), the rules of behavior (what it takes to be successful), and the performer. The

key to this process is the underlying self-regulation factor. Quality human performance can be seen as a complex process of balances where several factors have to work together to ensure success with one of the main factors as self-regulation. When the model of quality human performance was applied to college students, they were fully cognizant of the behaviors necessary for academic success, but they often chose not to engage in these behaviors. They fully recognized the discrepancy in their behaviors (what they should do versus what they are doing), but they also did not choose to engage in self correction. Instead they expressed the expectancy that the standards of performance would, and should, be negotiated in their favor. This very act of renegotiating the standards of quality human performance suggests that business and industry will not necessarily find future employees who possess the skills expected based on their college academic experience.

7- CONCLUTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Most of the discussion in the literature of performance indicators in higher education has been largely restricted to measuring the effectiveness or efficiency of institutional management. For example, staff-student ratios, liquidity ratios and so on, are all measures of various aspects of running the institution rather than directly of the quality of the student experience. The issue of the acceptability of performance indicators in higher education has long been controversial and there have been a number of occasions, indicated in the literature, where performance indicators have been proposed but not widely adopted. Many authors express doubts as to whether performance indicators have a legitimate role in quality assessment of the learning and teaching experience of students. In a small number of instances, there have been attempts to forge links between performance indicators and their possible use in teaching quality simply not applicable. In many instances, the discussion of performance indicators concentrates on the assessment of the efficiency and effectiveness of the operation of the institution. If they are to be applied, there is an understanding of the need for all parties using performance indicators to understand fully their purpose and context and the need for consultation and ownership of any metrics system. The higher education environment appears to differ significantly from other industries and sectors on these issues because links between performance indicators and “product” or “service” quality are often a significant feature of those other industries and sectors, widely understood and embedded in the culture. It may be the case that higher education is so specialized that forging such links is more difficult or that the appropriate tools have not been available. Managers can be thought of as having the ability to operate the “levers” of the institution in order to aim for a particular target. The performance indicator signifies how close to that target the manager is but it does not help them control the lever (Clare, 2005). There are difficulties in finding the message from within large amounts of data and managers continually rely on a process of intuition to solve complex problems when logical (that is number based) methods fail. Other commentators put forward the view that decision making is not an event (where direct measures can be employed), but a process that takes place over time and is therefore subject to other forces beyond the control of the manager (Bell et al., 2012). These views point to the limitations of performance indicators as a management tool. There are parallels to be drawn with higher education. A widely accepted interpretation is that teaching and learning are processes. The fact that they operate in socio-technical environments results in some similarities with management processes. Teachers, like managers, lead, plan, monitor, control and undertake many of the functions required of managers. Consequently, the performance indicators are likely to have the same limitations as those used in other environments. As a consequence, they would have to carry similar “health warnings”. If colleges and universities focus on satisfying students as their primary customers, they may negatively affect another customer group—employers—because the two customer groups have significantly different ways of

defining and measuring expectations. There are no easy solutions to addressing the negotiation of standards that undermine quality human performance. All customers of higher education deserve the best we can offer, as higher education, business/industry, and the economic success of the United States are intricately connected and are dependent upon one another. Institutions of higher education, faculty, students, and businesses can serve as contributing architects in ensuring education establishes quality standards. They are all consumers, and they all have a vested interest in maintaining standards. The following remarks can be derived from the paper:

- The marketing approach is a necessity for the success of the management of higher education institutions determined by changes both in terms of the demand of global product offered by the university and the educational supply existent on the market of higher education institutions
- The university marketing strategy is in relationship with the strategy of higher education institution and forms that step by which are identified the target groups and their needs, followed by designing and implementing a balanced marketing mix.
- A competitive advantage can be obtained by considering the variables: quality, material and human support used in teaching and research process, price level and facilities in price policy
- Identifying direct and indirect customer needs and desires determines the need to implement all actions seen as relational marketing which develop and maintain long term relationships with customers and other interested parts as a guarantee of competitiveness of the university.
- So far, most universities were not concerned enough about knowing the dimensions of their own images in the minds of their stakeholders. It is important to build a brand image because the intangible component of the product offered by the university has a considerable weight and reduces the risks posed to a future student placed in a position to choose higher education institution. The brand image of the university is built successfully if the university raises the questions of developing also a brand of human resource in developing and maintaining a sustainable and effective relationship with stakeholders.

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Pedagojik Formasyon Sertifika Programı Uzaktan Eğitim Puanlarının Bazı Değişkenler Açısından İncelenmesi

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Özet: Bu çalışma 2014 yılında Hacettepe Üniversitesi'nde öğretmenlik sertifikası için pedagojik formasyon sertifika programına katılan bireylerin genel sınavlardan aldıkları puanlar üzerinde öğretmenlik tecrübesinin etkisini incelenmek ve yerleştirmede kullanılan ölçütlere göre bireylerin puanlarındaki farklılığı karşılaştırmak amacıyla gerçekleştirilmiştir. Çalışmada formasyon eğitimi kapsamında verilen öğretmenlik uygulama dersinden muaf olan öğretmenlerle, muaf olmayan yani öğretmenlik tecrübesi olmayan bireylerin eğitim bilimleri derslerinden aldıkları puanlar karşılaştırılmıştır. Formasyon eğitim programına üc farklı yöntemle öğrenci alınmıştır. Bunlardan ilki Yüksek Öğretim Kurumu tarafından Akademik Lisansüstü Sınavı puanları temel alınarak yapılan atamalardır. Diğerleri ise not ortalamasına göre Hacettepe Üniversitesi'nin direk gerçekleştirdiği ve son olarak boş kalan kontenjanlara yapılan ek atamalardır. Ayrıca bu araştırmada farklı yerleştirme türleri ile programa kaydolan öğrencilerin başarıları kıyaslanmıştır. Çalışma öğretmenlik tecrübesinin eğitim bilimleri puanları üzerindeki etkisini belirlemek ve yerleştirmede kullanılan ölçütlere göre farklılaşma olup olmadığının ortaya çıkması açısından önemli görülmektedir.
Anahtar Kelimeler: Pedagojik formasyon sertifika eğitimi, uzaktan eğitim.

Giriş

Yüksek Öğretim Kurumu (YÖK) 2013-2014 eğitim-öğretim yılı bahar ve 2014-2015 eğitim-öğretim yılı güz döneminde toplamda 60.000 üniversite mezununa pedagojik formasyon eğitimi sertifikası için kontenjan açacağını duyurmuştur (YÖK, 16 Ocak 2014). Açılan bu kontenjanlar üniversitelere aktarılmış ve üniversiteler üç farklı yöntem ile öğrenci almışlardır. Bu yöntemlerden ilki YÖK tarafından doğrudan atanan, ikinci üniversiteler tarafından atanan ve son olarak da ek kontenjanlara atanan öğrenci gruplarından oluşmaktadır. Ayrıca lisans öğrencilerine de başvuru imkânı tanınmıştır. Pedagojik formasyon eğitimi sertifikası 2 yarıyıllık bir eğitimden oluşmaktadır ve toplam alınması gereken kredi 25'tir. 5 teorik, 3 uygulamalı zorunlu ve 2 seçmeli ders alması gerekmektedir. Öğrenci başvurusu üniversitelerin kapasitesinin üzerinde ise uzaktan eğitim verilmesine yönetmelik uyarınca izin verilmiştir (YÖK, 20 Şubat 2014). Hacettepe Üniversitesi'nde 2013-2014 ilk yarıyılında uzaktan eğitim uygulanmıştır. İlk yarıyılda eğitim bilimine giriş, öğretim ilke ve yöntemleri, rehberlik, ölçme ve değerlendirme, sınıf yönetimi, eğitim sosyolojisi ve Türk eğitim sistemi dersleri verilmiştir. İkinci dönem verilen öğretmenlik uygulaması dersinden bazı öğretmen adayları öğretmenlik deneyimlerini belgeleyerek muaf olmuşlardır. Hacettepe Üniversitesi'nde pedagojik formasyon eğitimi sertifikasına 17 farklı branştan öğretmen adayı başvurmuştur. Bu branşlar alanlarına göre araştırmacılar tarafından eşit ağırlık, sözel, sayısal ve dil olarak 4'e ayrılmıştır. Bu derslerden alınan vize ve final puanları araştırmanın bağımlı değişkeni olarak kullanılmış ve bahsedilen gruplar arasında farklılaşma olup olmadığı incelenmiştir.

Araştırmanın Amacı

Araştırmada uzaktan eğitim yöntemi ile formasyon eğitimi alan öğrencilerin vize puanlarının bazı değişkenler açısından farkları incelenmiştir. Çalışma kapsamında aşağıdaki sorulara cevap aranmaktadır;

1) Öğretmenlik deneyimleri olup olmamasına göre puanlar arasında fark var mıdır?
2) Formasyon eğitimine yerleşme türüne göre puanlar arasında fark var mıdır?
3) Mezun oldukları alanın türüne göre puanlar arasında fark var mıdır?

Yöntem

Çalışma Grubu
Araştırmanın evrenini Hacettepe Üniversitesi 2013-2014 Yaz döneminde uzaktan formasyon eğitimi alan 2266 lisans mezunu öğrenci oluşturmaktadır. Araştırmada örnekleme işlemi gerçekleştirilmemiştir.

Verilerin Elde Edilmesi
Veriler Hacettepe Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Formasyon Eğitimi koordinatörlüğünden elde edilmiştir. Verilerde Eğitim Bilimine Giriş, Öğretim İlke ve Yöntemleri, Ölçme ve Değerlendirme, Rehberlik, Sınıf Yönetimi, Türk Eğitimi Sistemi ve Eğitim Sosyolojisi dersleri vize notları bulunmaktadır. Veriler gruplamalara bakıldığında akademik ortalama ile yerleşenler "İlk", YÖK tarafından ALES puanı baz alınarak yerleştirilenler "Yök" ve açık kalan kontenjanlara akademik ortalama ile yerleştirilenler "Ek" olarak kodlanmıştır. Diğer bir gruplama 17 farklı bölümden mezun olan öğrenciler lisans yerleştirme puan türlerine göre Türkçe-Matematik puanı ise "Eşit Ağırlık", Matematik –Fen puanı ise "Sayısal", Türkçe-Sosyal puanı "Sözel" ve Yabancı Dil puanlarıyla yerleşenler ise "Dil" olarak veride kodlanarak veri setine işlenmiştir. Öğretmenlik mesleği tecrübesini belge ile kanıtlayanlar uygulamalı öğretmenlik mesleği derslerinden muaf tutulmuşlardır. Diğerleri ise bu dersleri uygulamalı olarak yerine getirmek zorundadırlar.

Verilerin Analizi
Verilerin analizinde öğretmenlik deneyimi olan ve olmayanların ortalamaları arasında farkın anlamlı olup olmadığını incelemek için ilişkisiz örnekler t-testi yapılmıştır. Yerleşme türüne göre puan ortalamaları arasında farklılık olup olmadığını incelemek için tek yönlü varyans analizi kullanılmıştır. Mezun oldukları alanın türüne göre puan ortalamaları arasında farklılık olup olmadığını incelemek için yine tek yönlü varyans analizi kullanılmıştır. Verilerin normallik ve doğrusallık sorununun olmadığı görülmüştür. Varyans homojenliğinin sağlanamadığı durumlarda doğru bilgi veren istatistikler kullanılmıştır. Kayıp değer sorunu ise %1'i dahi bulmayan sayıdaki bireylerin analiz dışına çıkarılmasıyla çözülmüştür (Tabachnick ve Fidell, 2007, Büyüköztürk, Çokluk, ve Köklü, 2010).

Bulgular

Çalışma verilerinin araştırma problemleri doğrultusunda yapılan analizlerce çözümlenmesi sonucu elde edilen bulgular, tablolar halinde aşağıda gösterilmiştir.

Tablo 1: Genel Betimsel İstatistikler

	N	Ortalama	Std. Sapma
Eğitim Bilimine Giriş	2260	60,83	10,624
Öğretim İlke ve Yöntemleri	2257	59,07	12,702
Ölçme ve Değerlendirme	2257	57,94	15,465
Rehberlik	2257	70,31	10,288
Sınıf Yönetimi	2257	56,90	9,720
Türk Eğitim Sistemi	2256	69,48	10,577
Eğitim Sosyolojisi	2256	64,74	11,687

Öğrencilerin vize notları incelendiğinde en yüksek ortalama 70,51 ile Rehberlik dersinden alınan puanlar olurken, en düşük ortalama 57,94 ile Ölçme ve Değerlendirme dersinden alınan puanlar olmuştur.

Tablo 2: Öğretmenlik uygulanmasından Muaf-Muaf olmayanlara Ait Betimsel İstatistikler

	Öğretmenlik Uygulaması	N	Ortalama	Std. Sapma
Eğitim Bilimine Giriş	Muaf	382	59,66	10,523
	Muaf olmayan	1878	61,07	10,631
Öğretim İlke ve Yöntemleri	Muaf	382	58,93	13,067
	Muaf olmayan	1875	59,10	12,630
Ölçme ve Değerlendirme	Muaf	383	57,22	15,365

	Muaf olmayan	1874	58,08	15,486
Rehberlik	Muaf	383	70,44	10,042
	Muaf olmayan	1874	70,28	10,340
Sınıf Yönetimi	Muaf	383	55,69	9,557
	Muaf olmayan	1874	57,14	9,737
Türk Eğitim Sistemi	Muaf	382	68,68	10,535
	Muaf olmayan	1874	69,64	10,581
Eğitim Sosyolojisi	Muaf	382	64,49	12,469
	Muaf olmayan	1874	64,79	11,524

Çalışmanın birinci alt problemine yönelik olarak öğretmenlik deneyimine göre öğretmenlik uygulamasından muaf olan ve olmayan bireylerin Eğitim Bilimleri derslerinden aldıkları puanlar yukarıdaki tabloda gösterilmiştir. Derslerden muaf olan ve olamayan bireylerin en yüksek puanları Rehberlik derslerinden alınan puanlar olurken, iki grubun da en düşük puanları Sınıf Yönetimi dersi puanları olmuştur.

Tablo 3: Muaf - Muaf olmayan t-testi

	p	Ort. Fark
Eğitim Bilimine Giriş	**,018**	**-1,408**
Öğretim İlke ve Yöntemleri	,807	-,174
Ölçme ve Değerlendirme	,321	-,860
Rehberlik	,774	,166
Sınıf Yönetimi	**,008**	**-1,450**
Türk Eğitim Sistemi	,106	-,959
Eğitim Sosyolojisi	,660	-,304

Ortalama karşılaştırması için yapılan t testi sonucunda derslerden muaf olan bireylerle olmayan bireylerin puanları arasında Eğitim Bilimine Giriş ve Sınıf yönetimi ders puanları arasında anlamlı farklar elde edilmiştir. Öğretim İlke ve Yöntemleri, Ölçme ve Değerlendirme, Rehberlik, Türk Eğitim Sistemi ve Eğitim Sosyolojisi derslerinde bireylerin puanları arasında anlamlı farka rastlanılmamıştır.

Tablo 4: Varyans Homojenlik tablosu

	Levene Test	df1	df2	Sig.
Eğitim Bilimine Giriş	,063	2	2214	,939
Öğretim İlke ve Yöntemleri	,008	2	2213	,992
Ölçme ve Değerlendirme	,723	2	2213	,485
Rehberlik	,713	2	2213	,490
Sınıf Yönetimi	,217	2	2213	,805
Türk Eğitim Sistemi	,204	2	2213	,815
Eğitim Sosyolojisi	2,611	2	2213	,074

Çalışmanın ikinci alt problemine yönelik olarak formasyon eğitimine yerleşme türü olan İlk, YÖK ve Ek yerleştirme sonuçlarına göre gruplar arasındaki farkın anlamlılığı tek yönlü ANOVA ile incelenmiştir. ANOVA'nın varsayımlarından olan varyansların homojenliği test edilmiş tüm gruplarda varyansların homojen olduğu belirlenerek ve puanların analize uygun olduğu görülmüştür.

Tablo 5: Yerleşme Türü ANOVA Sonuçları

Dersler	df	F	Sig.
Egitim Bilimine Giris Vize	2	,292	,747
Ogretim ilke ve Yön. Vize	2	,896	,408
Olcme Vize	2	,101	,904

Rehberlik Vize	2	,472	,624
Sınıf Yonetimi Vize	2	1,938	,144
Turk Egitim Sistemi Vize	2	,077	,926
Egitim Sosyolojisi Vize	2	,069	,933

Yapılan ANOVA sonucunda üç gruba ait bireylerin formasyon eğitimine yerleşme türlerine göre formasyon sınavları puanları arasında anlamlı farka rastlanmamıştır. Araştırmanın üçüncü probleminde bireylerin lisans mezuniyet alanlarına göre formasyon puanları arasında anlamlı fark olup olmadığı ANOVA ile incelenmiştir. Öncelikle ANOVA varsayımlarından varyansların homojenliğine bakılmıştır.

Tablo 6: Varyans Homojenlik tablosu

	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Egitim Bilimine Giris Vize	,552	3	2256	,647
Ogretim ilke ve yontemleri Vize	1,120	3	2253	,340
Olcme Vize	1,985	3	2253	,114
Rehberlik Vize	5,026	3	2253	**,002**
Sınıf Yonetimi Vize	1,591	3	2253	,190
Turk Egitim Sistemi Vize	2,237	3	2252	,082
Egitim Sosyolojisi Vize	4,282	3	2252	**,005**

Rehberlik ve Eğitim Sosyolojisi derslerinde gruplar bazında varyansların homojenliği sağlanamamıştır. Bu bölümler için varyansların homojenliğini gerektirmeyen tamhane testi ile grupların ortalamaları arasındaki farklar incelenmiştir. Varyans homojenliğinin sağlandığı bölümler için yapılan ANOVA tablosu aşağıdaki gibidir.

Tablo 7: ANOVA Sonuçları

Dersler	df	F	Sig.
Egitim Bilimine Giris Vize	3	2,474	,060
Ogretim ilke ve yontemleri Vize	3	2,117	,096
Olcme Vize	3	7,966	**,000**
Sınıf Yonetimi Vize	3	,618	,603
Turk Egitim Sistemi Vize	3	2,047	,105

Yapılan ANOVA sonucunda bireylerin Ölçme ve Değerlendirme dersi dışında lisans mezuniyet alanlarına göre puanları arasında anlamlı farklara rastlanmamıştır. Anlamlı farklara sahip olan ölçme değerlendirme dersi için yapılan ikili karşılaştırmalar sonucunda Sayısal-Sözel ve Sayısal-Dil mezunlarının puanlarının arasında farklılaşmalar olduğu görülmüştür.

Tablo 8: Ölçme ve Değerlendirme Dersine ait İkili karşılaştırma Tablosu

Alan	Ortalama Farkı	Std. Hata	Sig
Say-Dil	-4,202*	1,043	**,001**
Say -Söz	3,330*	,782	**,000**

Varyansların homojenliğinin sağlanamadığı Rehberlik dersi ve Eğitim Sosyolojisi dersine ait ikili karşılaştırmalar Tamhane testi sonucu aralarında fark bulunan alanlara için elde edilen tablolar aşağıda gösterilmiştir.

Tablo 9: İkili karşılaştırma Tablosu

Dersler	Alan	Ort. Farkı	Std H	P
Rehberlik	Say-EA	1,852*	,647	**,026**
	Söz - EA	2,112*	,607	**,003**
	Say - EA	3,677*	,763	**,000**
	Söz - EA	1,937*	,696	**,033**
Eğitim Sosyolojisi	Dil - EA	4,027*	,916	**,000**
	Dil - Söz	-2,090*	,784	**,047**
	Say -Söz	-1,740*	,599	**,022**

Sayısal–Eşit Ağırlık Mezunları ve Sözel–Eşit Ağırlık mezunlarının Rehberlik dersi puanları arasında arasında manidar farklara rastlanmıştır. Eğitim Sosyolojisi dersi puanları incelendiğinde ise tabloda verilen alanlar arasında anlamlı farklara rastlanmıştır.

Sonuçlar ve Öneriler

Araştırma sonuçlarına göre, öğretmenlik deneyiminin formasyon sınavlarından Eğitim Bilimine Giriş ve Eğitim Sosyoloji dersleri puanları üzerinde negatif olarak anlamlı bir etkisinin olduğu görülmüştür. Öğretmenlik uygulamasından muaf olan bireylerin bu iki dersteki puanlarının daha düşük olduğu belirlenmiştir. Formasyon programına yerleşme türü olan ilk, YÖK ve ek yerleştirme türünde olan bireylerin puanları arasında hiçbir anlamlı fark görülmemiştir. Son olarak, mezun olunan lisans mezuniyet alanları sayısal, sözel, eşit ağırlık ve dil alanları olarak belirlenmiş ve puanlar bu alanlara göre karşılaştırılmıştır. Ölçme ve değerlendirme dersinde sayısal-dil ve sayısal-sözel alanlarına göre farklılaşmalar görülmüştür. Rehberlik dersinde sayısal-eşit ağırlık ve eşit ağırlık-sözel alanlarına göre farklılaşmalar görülmüştür. Eğitim Sosyolojisi dersinde ise sayısal- eğit ağırlık, sayısal-sözel, sözel-eşit ağırlık, dil-eşit ağırlık ve dil-sözel alanlarının puanları arasında anlamlı farklar belirlenmiştir. Sonraki çalışmalar için öneri olarak, farklı üniversitelerdeki formasyon puanları benzer değişkenler arasından incelenerek, çalışma sonuçlarıyla karşılaştırılabilir. Ayrıca farklı değişkenler eklenerek, farklı kategorik değişkenlere göre yeni araştırmaların yapılması önerilmektedir.

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Position of a pupil and a student in the process of value orientation formation

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Abstract: *Value orientation of children and adolescents is a significant phenomenon of upbringing as well as of the target of an educational activity. This article focuses on the position of a pupil and a student in the process of value orientation formation in a school environment. It points out certain practical activities aimed at the development of social habits and at forming of a pupil's character which can be applied during an educational process or outside of it.*

Key words: pupil, teacher, values, value orientation, education, classes

Introduction

Position of a pupil or a student in the formation of a value orientation is determined by a value orientation of the parents. It is projected into their attitude toward children, into the way they educate them. Melvin Kohn performed an analysis of the effect of the value orientation of parents based on the type of parents´ occupation on their behavior toward children and how the values linked to the conformity to outside authority and values linked to the decision process itself project into the parent´s approach to children. According to M. Kohn (In. Katrňák, 2004) different working conditions form values and influence the parents´ approach to children. People working in conditions permitting independent decision making are more likely to put greater emphasis on values linked to this type of decision making when educating their children. People working in conditions where independent decision making is impossible or limited are much more likely to accentuate values linked to the conformity. Children thus acquire different values and ways of behavior, adopt different approach toward school, education and occupation and react differently to problems and new situations.

Behavior of a pupil or a student and all his/her acts are, in fact, fulfilled and internalized values. At an early age we are still recipients of values either through family or education, sometimes unconsciously, but not explicitly through our attitude or behavior, at other times intentionally through a curriculum. When talking about a transmission and education of values through a curriculum, we point out a systematic work via key topics of an educational process which should penetrate all the school subjects. Key topics of an educational process and values are closely connected when practical topics of school subjects can be connected with the content of values. When trying to influence the formation of value orientation we shouldn´t forget our role of educators, which involves not only our continual thinking about values we want to pass on children, but also about the character of these values and about the way by which we want to transfer them.

The formation of value orientation of pupils in a school environment

Values education, definition of the values that should be transferred, eliminated or converted are all processes that take place in schools. In the last few decades there have been some worries connected with the value orientation formation and value preferences. Educational objectives contained in The Act No. 245/2008 Coll. on Education (the school act) are a testimony to the fact that our society continuously cares about values education. These objectives include areas like reinforcing respect of parents and others, of cultural and national values and traditions of a state, refusing race, age, religious and social status discrimination or learning to control one´s own

behavior, taking care of one´s own health (including healthy diet) and the environment and respecting universal ethical values.

The process of value orientation formation occurs at schools in three levels.

1. During classes. The content of learning always pertains to values and norms which should be required and learned. Previous norms that the students had learned from their family, through their peers or media and which they apply in their own lives are being confronted with new ones arising from the teaching process and are being accentuated.
2. Through the school´s standards. In order to make teaching possible and to ensure social coexistence it is necessary to be mindful of the basic rules of behavior. They enable individual activity and they must be obeyed otherwise there will be sanctions. These rules must not only be clearly formulated and known from the start, but also applied in everyday life. However, the issues of transparency and substantiation of the rules and the sanctions should not be omitted mainly because it pertains to the questions of power and self-assertion. Commonly created agreements seem to be good solutions here. Conflict management can help to adequately solve the breach of rules.
3. Through a school´s culture. Pupils don´t learn values only at school (for example during teaching process), but at school they also live in their own value connections. The formation of social environment (cooperation, co-decision, participation) can contribute to the creation of a culture which is perceived as satisfactory and with which all the participants identify, through which they achieve a feeling of community. It is however not a process of accommodation, but a process of accepting the differences and tolerance (Giesecke, 2005).

The task of education in schools is to create a room for pupils and students to form their own personalities. As a result of this students become competent, able to assert their own rights and duties and to perform their roles of citizens. Schools must support the overall education of children and young people. It is not enough to provide them only with knowledge at the processional and conceptual level. It is necessary to work on the formation of value orientation of students also outside the classes and thus educate people who are able to live and co-exist in a society. „Value orientation determines how the human will live, how will work, what kind of relationships will create, what kind his family and his descendants, who are called the next generation, will be" (Sirotová, M. 2014).

To realize activities in schools which help to develop social habits and character building means to encourage pupils´ critical thinking about moral and ethical issues. Through these types of activities pupils receive an opportunity to learn to behave morally and ethically. Some of these activities are:

- Teaching of values as part of the curriculum. This approach means to implement value and ethical issues into common school subjects (e.g. history, natural sciences, literature etc.). To ask about personal qualities of the main characters, about moral issues etc.
- Games as methodical procedures and strategies. Games encourage children´s pleasure from playing and induce a feeling of contentment, freedom, satisfaction and self-realization. Through games we can support values like friendship, cooperation, respect and help.
- Talking about an ethical topic. Stories offer us an opportunity to introduce children to a different reality and to teach them emphatic approach. They also offer a chance to ponder a situation or an idea. Experience gained through this form of the experiential learning becomes a new part of a continually formed individual personality (Krátká, 2010).
- Role playing. The content of roles concentrates on interpersonal relationships. Through these games pupils put themselves into position of others and empathize with them and thus acquire social skills and experiences in various situations which they might be able to encounter in real life (cf. Krátká, 2012).
- Debate. To enable proper interaction between participants, it is necessary to try to create an adequate climate and to steer the debate in a direction in which responses of each and every student are being respected and all expressed emotions and open ideas are being supported.
- Learning through serving as a method of character development. Its target is to utilize children´s skills and abilities in favor of others. The core of learning through serving is a mutual mapping of needs and neglected issues in the surrounding area. Then comes critical weighing of possibilities, what could be done, what are we able to do. Then follows the planning, realization and final evaluation. Through this method children acquire a real experience of an ethical activity.
- Brainstorming. Significantly encourages creativity, each student can express his/her own ideas and thoughts, all opinions are taken into consideration

- Discussion. All students must participate in an open atmosphere dominated by respect of others, acceptance of other ideas, avoidance of discrimination or derogatory behavior. A teacher should provide each student with a fair chance of expressing his/her ideas in a friendly atmosphere, in which students feel no fear of ridicule or verbal aggression. According to E. Komárik (2009) children yearn to talk about their ideas and the best way to encourage it is to establish a hypothetical situation and to use Socrates´ dialog method.
- Round table. Each student presents his/her opinion of a certain topic. Other students simultaneously interfere with his/her statements while keeping in mind the importance of respecting the opinion of all participants. The core principle of the round table method is the equality of all participants.
- Philips 66. Pupils in class are divided into groups of six. Each group chooses his/her spokesperson who, after six minutes of debate about a chosen subject, presents the group´s conclusions. This method encourages participation, listening to others, respect, consensus etc.
- Choice of topic and solving of moral dilemmas. The basis of moral dilemmas solving lies in an exchange of students´ opinions about a subject. Attitudes of all students are being respected, doubts about certain value changes are being established, new ideas and concepts leading to moral thinking are being suggested. Through these activities pupils become aware of their feelings, emotions and behavior.
- Supporting pupils´ moral reflections through reading, use of simulation games, panel discussions, news, advertising, commentaries and reviews from newspapers, free time activities, for example through films or music, through analysis of events, sport etc.
- Developing motivation and interest in outmatching oneself, prizing one´s own learning, effort and everyday work.
- Organizing activities and experiments with an aim of overcoming problems for instance conflict solving, through which children participate in the dilemmas of others (Cobos Pino; Komárik 2009).

It might be easier for pupils and students to form their value orientation and to internalize the values, if they are able to receive them in a practical way, for instance through the above mentioned activities. When trying to influence children´s value orientation formation parents and teachers must work in concert with each other, mainly by utilizing activities that might support and sustain these values.

However, many teachers´ activity in this area seems to be quite mechanical and rather formal. They put pressure on children to know and respect certain values, but through their approach they only achieve awareness of these values and they consequently become undesirable. Sometimes we can see a situation when under the influence of a school stereotype and certain laziness a teacher succumbs to a “value inertia” which results in the teacher´s loss of authenticity, he/she becomes unconvincing when presenting values or there is a discrepancy between his/her behavior and verbal statements (Gogová 2014). In this context it is important to point out that if we want a student to be authentic and autonomous, it is important for his/her teacher to possess the same qualities. Using the words of Soren Kierkegaard “a teacher teaches more by what he is than by what he says”. The basis of a teacher´s educational influence is an interaction between the teacher and his/her students. The teacher´s approach to students, his/her everyday behavior, the way of life as well as his/her educational style are the determining factors of a value system formation. It is important for teachers to help develop students´ personalities in institutionalized conditions and to create educational situations which the students can apply inside as well as outside the class.

According to B. Kosová (2000) if a teacher wants to achieve optimal personality development of students he/she must choose strategies and methods with the aim of mediating cultural contents, norms and requirements, various types of activities and positive interpersonal relationships, satisfying student´s needs, leading them to understanding of norms and desired behavior through an experience of success, influencing their self-confidence and self-esteem and developing students´ future life orientation.

One of the targets of a teacher´s activity is to help form a type of personality that would be beneficial for the society. In this respect we can´t look at the values mediated by school or teachers as permanent because they change depending on life experiences as well as on the maturity level of each individual.

The values that are presented to a student by the immediate socio-cultural environment are not always accepted. According to A. Gogová (2004) this can often be explained by the fact that the student associates with other social groups or individuals who respect different values. The student gradually subscribes to these values and refuses the original ones presented to him/her by school or family. The student is influenced not only by cognitive forces of the environment but also by the emotional ones. When he finds a deeper emotional satisfaction in a social group that recognizes specific values despite the fact that these values might be undesirable, he/she subscribes to them.

Conclusion

Position of a pupil and a student in the process of value orientation formation is influenced not only by the internal and external factors, but also by the type of values that he/she had received functionally or intentionally. Many of them are missing from the hierarchy of values or are unattractive. Children and adolescents often encounter situations which make them realize that the values that were presented to them in school or in family are in contrast with success and progress in a professional and social life. As a result children may respect certain values, but will not apply them in real life.

This problem often applies to moral values which are transferred from a family environment. In these types of situations it is difficult to find out the real status of values. Many surveys concentrate on the detection of values, but not on the information whether these values score high in the value system of pupils and students only formally or are truly accepted, socially desirable and applied in a real life. Education should therefore lead to a creation of conditions in which students would manifest their true value orientation. Reaching this goal is not going to be easy because the road toward this goal requires the presence of an authentic educator (parent or a teacher) who would be a natural moral authority for the student and a real, practical value model, not just a formal one.

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POSSIBILITIES FOR ALTERNATIVE SYSTEMS OF FARMING AS A NEW TREND OF EDUCATION IN THE URBAN ENVIRONMENT

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Abstract— The article focuses on the education of primary, secondary and college students in the field of alternative forms of farming in urban areas. This type of education concentrates on new trends in farming, food acquisition in urban areas, knowledge about alternative forms of farming, food protection and ecological thinking.

Keywords— alternative farming, community gardens ecological thinking, education process, new trends in education, permaculture

INTRODUCTION

In this contribution we speak about possibilities for teaching alternative forms of farming in the example of education at primary and secondary schools and colleges, and also public enlightment. Education in this field represents largely also alternative way of teaching, which finds its way into the education process rather slowly and which is quite often seen as merely voluntary in higher levels of the school system. Spreading enlightment in public is largely understood as a spare time activity that concentrates at the ideas of a healthier attitude to growing food and awareness of more ecology-based approach to life. In Slovakia, education process in this area cannot possibly be regarded as a systematic one. This subject is rather marginal, with absence of more complex teaching. The teaching approach that we deal with in our contribution shows one of the possible ways to more ecological thinking, knowing the real value of food and last but not least to growing food, especially in the urban area. This contribution focuses on new trends of farming and various types of projects and activities that aim at spreading enlightment in alternative ways of farming and growing food in the urban area.

In terms of possibilities for education in alternative forms of farming, the studied aspects can be regarded as a sort of experience-based pedagogy. Participants of such activities get in touch with direct experience that is meant to mediate information and the actual experience. Experience-based pedagogy is described as an active way of learning in in-group activities to gain skills and competences. In this style of teaching, the education process covers also aspects of cooperation, communication, problem-solving, adaptation to variable conditions, integrating oneself into various groups and similar. (Hlásna, 2013:70). According to Balogová (2004), the ideal mixture comprises of 30 percent of theory and 70 percent of interactive, experience-based activities. In the set of methods that are derived from experience-based pedagogy, students or participants gain skills and find values through their own direct experience. Kopšová (2008) and Sirotová (2014) state that the principle of experience-based and experimental pedagogy is in the actual activity of student through which he or she achieves experiences. This method requires engagement of the whole person – meaning engaging physically, intellectually and emotively, including feeling and senses, his or her previous experience, as well as the following processing of the experience. This implies that gaining knowledge does not only relate to the activity itself, but it is also manifestation and further consolidation of the learnt knowledge and experience.

This approach may be applied to the whole spectrum related to alternative farming, ecological thinking and similar principles. We can say that the relation between man and nature is significantly corrupt in the present, modern age. In urban areas, people often do not know how to grow plants and till the soil. This is the reason why education from the early age is very important here. We do not seek self-sufficiency, yet understand this as an attempt to enlighten and turn people to positive attitude to environment and home-grown products.

II. TECHING AT PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOL

In the present time of modern technologies and consumption-based society, there is a massive decrease of connection between food and growing food, children do not know how food is grown and products are almost entirely acquired through chains of stores. Children in urban area are deprived of the possibility of watching or even participating in tilling the soil, growing crops and taking care of plants. The main idea of teaching this is to boost children's positive approach to environment, responsibility towards environment and also actual growing crops. However, the educating process penetrates also other subjects that can be taught outdoors, in gardens.

During socialism, in the territory of former Czecho-Slovakia, school gardens were founded on the school premises. These gardens represented educational school fields that were used by students to grow various crops, herbs and medical herbs. All the classrooms were given their own parts of field where they could learn the basic procedures in care of crops, starting with planting and finishing with harvesting. After the revolution these school gardens still continued, however the idea slowly deceased in the following years.

Recently, the discontinued tradition continues once again. The centre of environmental and ethical education Živica manages the project "Záhrada, ktorá učí" – (Garden that teaches), with eight pilot primary and secondary schools. The aim of the project is to teach the teachers and students use existing school lands innovatively and show them practical examples of sustainable living. During one-and-half-year long project teachers and students will design and make their new natural school garden using permaculture elements. They will equip these gardens with natural teaching aids that will then enable teachers and students organise a part of the teaching process outside the classroom. This means the teaching process will not only consist of studying the crops and taking care of them, but the teaching plans of the already existing subjects will be combined with teaching outside the classroom in the green environment. There are primary and secondary schools from various parts of Slovakia that participate in this project. The main goal of the project is to start a classroom outside the school building, in natural environment, where students can use all the senses. Learning by practical examples that are based on experience is faster and students can remember the knowledge better. The less formal style of teaching process can also help improve interpersonal relationships, students are encouraged to use a more direct attitude towards their classmates and also teachers, which improves collective work.

When assistance is needed in designing and running the programme Garden that teaches, experienced specialists from the Centre of environmental and ethical education Živica, Czech organisation Chalopky o.p.s. and also the Norway partner organisation FEE Norway can help schools manage this. Živica organises training courses and individual consultations for schools and teachers that wish to cooperate. They also prepare information-based seminars, methodology materials, leaflets with practical examples and also an interactive web site with interviews, exercises, activity ideas and more.

The possibility for the above mentioned experience-based pedagogy is especially available at primary and secondary schools. Such education process influences students in various ways, it boosts their intellect, creativity, social skills, motor coordination and movement skills, will and self-knowing process. As Gresákova (2010) states too, this method – in contrast with the traditional methods that

aim at gaining knowledge and experience - is largely experience and practically-based. In this way students get additional facts that go with theory they learn in the classroom, but also knowledge that is needed in taking care of plants and crops, living in harmony with environment and learning a more ecology-based lifestyle.

III. POSSIBILITIES FOR TEACHING COLLEGE STUDENTS

This part speaks about possibilities for education that do not directly relate to specialisations in various environmental programmes. Our effort is to outline alternative ways of studies and possibilities in the given area.

A. The Socrates Institute

University students are eligible to enter a one-year study programme at the Socrates Institute. This institute offers a training course called Modern Society – challenges and visions, which is run through various workshops. Among the topics of these workshops are energetic policy, ecological agriculture, alternative economic systems, growing crops and many more. There is a possibility to enter the Socrates institute for university students in various humanistic, environmental, economic or similar study programmes. Lectures are given by the top guest lecturers that specialise in the given field. However, study sessions are realised also by the means of discussions, experience-based activities and informal conversations, with strong emphasis on direct contact between the lecturer and student. The course *Modern Society – challenges and visions* is offered as an optional subject that is taught over two terms at Technical University in Zvolen. Thanks to the credit-based system of the Socrates Institute, this course can be chosen by any student of any given Slovak university.

B. Global education

Global education responds to actual demands in the world. The basic thematic units that global education orientates to are:

3. Globalisation and mutual interconnection
4. Global problems and developing cooperation
5. Multiculturalism
6. Environment with respect to global aspects
7. Human rights

In the respect of possibilities for education in alternative ways of farming we aim at the thematic unit *Environment with respect to global aspects*. This unit is an element of environmental education which then forms one of the units of global education. Among the topics that relate to this belong: climate change, waste, environmental migration, air – water – soil, using natural resources and alternative sources of energy (The national strategy for global education for the years 2012-2016, p. 9-10)

Global education aims at linking cultural and historical relations in Europe, commerce, environment and policies. The goal of such education is in development of critical thinking about the direct environment, its

improvement and return to values linked to nature and quality food in international context. In Slovakia, global education is taught at several humanitarian universities and the goal of the project is in implementation of global education into study specialisations.

IV. EDUCATION AIMED AT THE PUBLIC

Public education is aimed at informing the adults and spreading enlightenment in the area of modern alternative ways of farming and growing crops. Though here it is not primarily aimed at pedagogical methods, we speak about various ways of spreading enlightenment especially about growing crops in urban areas, but also awareness in the frame of sustainable development and actions in accord with environment.

A. Permaculture

In the starting phase, growing food in the urban area, natural gardens and community life follow the idea of permaculture and sustainable development. Permaculture represents a designer-based attitude to solving problems that rise when growing food while still paying respect to environment. The principles of permaculture design are based on function of natural ecosystems and are inspired by patterns found in the nature. Among these are evolution and life cycle (succession and recycling), then various dimensional patterns found in the nature, such as spirals, fractals, tree-like structures and similar. The role of permaculture design is to provide a labour-saving and resources-saving approach via copying principles seen in the nature and thus create as efficient a system producing food as possible, requiring minimal investment. Various elements of permaculture are used especially to establish community gardens in the given territory. This is especially visible in the style of composting and using area to grow crops.

The association CS Permakultúra regularly organises various events that are aimed at spreading enlightenment and principles of permaculture and growing crops, for example permaculture design courses, experience-based courses or courses in growing fruit. The goal of these courses it to make participants change thinking about world and also change their deeds to reach more rational farming with the help of mother nature. The material dealt in the courses is designed to shift thinking about our relation to environment, steer towards understanding of the outcome of our actions and help us understand interrelationship better. The participants learn the skills needed to plan gardens and at the end of the course they receive a course's certificate in permaculture design, which is worldwide recognised in the frame of permaculture.

B. Community gardens

The goal of community gardens is to grown own crops with the chance to put the vacant land in urban area to a good use. However, it is rather tricky to define precisely the term community garden. The actual arrangement of garden itself depends on the individual approach, there is not such a thing as a model garden. Gardens may be enclosed or open to public. They are created on state land, public land or individually owned land, usually unused land that can this way be developed. The key point that distinguishes such a garden from a park is growing crops. Community gardens are primarily designed to grow fruit, vegetables and fruit-trees. These gardens are also characteristic for their

structure. They can be conducted by the local authorities, civil associations or groups of enthusiasts. Care of the gardens can be shared by all the members, or they can be divided into parts so that individuals can look after them.

Despite the variations, community gardens should share four features:

7. land – land where crops are grown
8. plants whose fruit can be consumed
9. members of community gardens that cooperate in looking after the gardens
10. a system of organisation (Budder, 1990).

Community gardens also offer adults an opportunity to learn. Members of these gardens are especially people from urban area that do not have their own land to grow crops. In the community gardens they learn how to look after plants, but there are also various lecturers and workshops on related topics. Beside educating in the given field, there are also projects aimed at beekeeping in urban areas. This is very presently very popular, beehives are being started on the building tops in city centres, but also in community gardens.

Community gardens can be understood as a form of pre-school education in this field. Community gardens activities are frequently done by families with small children. The main motivation for them is to grow healthy food for children, but also spend the free time outdoors, in communities, in the natural environment. Furthermore, children learn from the early age about environment and most importantly they grow their skills in taking care of plants as well as consciousness of the environment. In this field, community gardens are being started also at primary schools. Again, children here learn how to look after plants and grow crops, but they are helped by the homeless people with the hard physical work. These homeless people can then take a part of the harvest.

V. CONCLUSION

This contribution provides a short insight into various forms of teaching that is aimed at possibilities for alternative forms of farming, but also general enlightenment in the field of ecology and attitude towards environment. We examined especially those aspects of education that provide information through experience-based pedagogy and other related methods.

Education process at primary and secondary schools and colleges is rather institutionalised and implemented into school's teaching plans, or is defined as voluntary subject. Education aimed at public is based on the idea of spending spare time and preference of certain lifestyle that is bound to environment and healthy food.

We consider this form of education important in the perspective of creating a positive attitude to environment, nature and healthy food grown locally even in the urban area where it is more difficult to live in accord with environment than in the rural area.

The goal of our contribution is not to condemn the complex issue of environmental education, but provide an insight into alternative possibilities in various types of schools for students of different age that could lead to change in approach to the surrounding world, more ecology-based behaviour and growing food.

Education in this field is a part of education process and as such has its importance especially in spreading enlightenment from the very young age to adult age and in motivating people to lead sustainable life.

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Stress and Stress Reliever among Dental Nurse Students, Sirindhorn College of Public Health, Yala

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Abstract

The aim of this study was to investigate the perceived sources of stress and its relieve among 2nd year dental nurse student at Sirindhorn College of Public Health, Yala province of Thailand. A descriptive cross sectional quantitative study was conducted using a 30 items self administered questionnaire adapted from the Dental Environmental Stress Questionnaire. The determinants are gender; religion, and training place. Factor analysis was used to classify 30 outcomes into 4 factors. T-test and ANOVA were used for analyzing the difference in group. A 92.85% response rate was obtained. The results indicated that academic work factor, personal factor and environment factor were the first three stressful factors for the student. Dental nurse student never perform cigarette smoking for stress relieving. Training place was significant with 3 factors, academic work factor, personal factor and environment factor. Gender and religion did not make any significant difference with the all 4 stress factor outcomes. Praying and spiritual activity was a leading stress reduction technique for students.

Key words: stress, stress reliever, the Dental Environmental Stress Questionnaire, dental nurse student.

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INTRODUCTION

The term stress is defined as pressure or worry caused by problems in someone's life (physical or mental) on an individual's physical and psychological wellbeing (Hornby, 2010). Dentistry has been widely known as a high stress profession and dental school is often where stress begins (Muirhead and Locker, 2007). Stress associated with dentistry including time and scheduling pressures, managing uncooperative patients and intensive nature of work (Acharya, 2003). Stress can lead to depression, fatigue, sleeplessness, gastrointestinal symptoms, diminished work efficiency and burnout.

The main factors causing stress in undergraduate dental students including academic work, clinical work, interpersonal relation and living environment (Health *et al*, 1999). It is important for dental educator to monitor and identify stress levels among dental nurse students, take steps to avoid stressors and ensure that teaching curriculum provides them with lifelong stress management tools.

A study about stress reliever in undergraduate medical student in Khonkaen University, Thailand found that talking to friend was a leading stress reduction technique for students (28.3%), following with watching movie and music 22.0% and sleep 15.7% , respectively (Pannikun *et al*, 2001). This result agrees with a study in Malaysia (Ahmad *et al*, 2007).

Sirindhorn College of Public Health, Yala is the institution which locates in the three southernmost provinces of Thailand that admits students mainly from local area. A dental nurses' training programme in Thailand is a two year diploma. Students take the first one and half years of the course in College, students are taught basic science and liberal arts. Then they complete their clinical work in community hospital which in four southernmost provinces of Thailand including Pattani, Yala, Narathiwat and Satun. Nowadays there has no study about stress of dental nurse students, especially in Sirindhorn College of Public Health, Yala. The objectives of this study are to identify the sources of stress among dental nurse students in Sirindhorn College of Public Health, Yala, Thailand and also explore stress reliever in dental nurse students.

Materials and Methods

In November 2013-January 2014, all 70 undergraduate dental nurse students of second year enrolled at the Sirindhorn College of Public Health, Yala, Thailand were ask to complete an anonymous questionnaire, which was distributed at the end of whole class training in community hospital. Questionnaire was adapted from the Dental Environment Scale (DES) which has 30 items of stressor. The option and response code for each item were: 1, “not stressful”; 2, “slightly stressful”; 3, “moderate stressful”; and 4, “very stressful”. Factor analysis was used for data reduction purposes. Demographic information including gender, religion and training place were also obtained.

Data were analyzed using R-programme. The internal consistency of the questionnaire was tested using Cronbach Alpha. Data analyses included frequency distribution, Student’s t-test and ANOVA. A p value of ≤ 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

Results

A total of 65completed and return their questionnaire, representing a 92.85% response rate. Table 1 shows frequency distributions of the categorical determinants. Most of them are female (90.8%). The majority are Muslims (83.1%). Most of Them have training in Pattani province (46.2).

Categorical Variables	Categories	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	6	9.2
	Female	59	90.8
Religion	Buddhist	11	16.9
	Muslim	54	83.1
Training places	Pattani	30	46.2
	Songkla	23	35.4
	Narathiwat	7	10.8
	Satun	5	7.7

Table 1: frequency distributions of the categorical determinants.

The overall reliability coefficient alpha was 0.89. Table 2 shows the mean score for the DES items. "Fear of failing a course" is the most stressor for students. "Uncertainly as to whether or not will be able to take a comprehensive examination" and "completing course requirement" also ranked among the top 3 stressors for students.

Stressor items	mean	sd
1. amount of assigned work	3.0	0.8
2. lack of cooperation by patient	2.0	0.9
3. competition with peer for grade	1.4	0.7
4. patient being late or not coming for their appointment	2.5	1.1
5. lack of skill in clinical work	2.9	0.7
6. dental clinic atmosphere	1.8	0.8
7. lack of social contact with another person	1.5	0.6
8. lack of confidence in self to work in dental room	2.4	0.8
9. lack of confidence in self to be dental health worker	2.4	0.9
10. conflict with dental partner	1.4	0.7
11. lack of time for relaxation	2.0	0.9
12. rule and regulation of training place	1.3	0.5
13. working on patient with dirty mouth	1.3	0.5
14. can not to do childrearing at home	1.1	0.4
15. marital problem	1.1	0.5
16. fear of failing a course or the year	3.6	0.7
17. financial problem	1.7	0.8
18. personal health problem	1.5	0.8
19. finding patient by self	2.5	0.9
20. family over expectation	2	1.1
21. lack of time to do assigned work	2.3	0.9
22. uncertainly as to whether or not will be able to take a comprehensive examination	3.3	0.8
23. having problem in project work	2.6	0.8
24. having a dual role as a wife/mother and a student	1.3	0.7
25. differences in opinion between clinical staff	2.0	0.8
26. communication with patient	1.6	0.8
27. working in unrest place	1.4	0.7
28. relations with clinical supervisor	1.4	0.8

Stressor items	mean	sd
29. completing course requirement	3.2	0.9
30. fear of unemployment after graduation	1.9	1.1

Table 2: Mean Dental Environmental Scaled stressor

Table 3 shows results from factor analysis. It can group 30 items of stressor into 4 categories including academic work factor, personal factor, environment factor and family factor. There are 5 items that were omitted because of their high uniqueness.

	Factor1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	uniqueness
Academic work factor					
22. uncertainly as to whether or not will be able to take an comprehensive examination	0.99		-0.39		0.39
29. completing course requirement	0.81		-0.19		0.43
16. fear of failing a course or the year	0.70				0.51
21. lack of time to do assigned work	0.59	- 0.11	0.27		0.45
11. lack of time for relaxation	0.47	-0.28	0.12		0.79
5. lack of skill in clinical work	0.34	0.23			0.73
6. dental clinic atmosphere	0.31				0.85
Personal factor					
2. lack of cooperation by patient	-0.22	1.00	-0.11		0.26
23. having problem in project work	0.16	0.77	-0.22		0.41
13. working on patient with dirty mouth		0.61			0.61
9. lack of confidence in self to be dental health worker		0.48		-0.11	0.70
8. lack of confidence in self to work in dental room	0.15	0.44			0.73
26. communication with patient	-0.17	0.40	0.34		0.66
Environment factor					
18. personal health problem	-0.40	-0.14	0.96		0.43
20.family over expectation			0.64	-0.10	0.65
17. financial problem		-0.14	0.61		0.72
28. relations with clinical supervisor	0.10		0.46		0.70
7. lack of social contact with another person		0.17	0.37		0.72
30. fear of unemployment after graduation	0.18		0.37		0.72
12. rule and regulation of training place	0.23	-0.12	0.33		0.80
10. conflict with dental partner		-0.15	0.31		0.93

	Factor1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	uniqueness
Family factor					
14. can not to do childrearing at home				0.99	0.01
15. marital problem				0.98	0.00
24. having a dual role as a wife/mother and a student	0.15			0.81	0.37
27. working in unrest place	0.25	0.23	0.21	0.30	0.77
1. amount of assigned work	0.29	0.27			0.70
3. competition with peer for grade	0.20	-0.18			0.95
4. patient being late or not coming for their appointment	0.18	0.23			0.87
19. finding patient by self	0.22		0.22		0.83
25. differences of opinion between clinical staff		0.16	0.17	0.19	0.81

Table 3:Results from factor analysis

Table 4 gives numerical summaries of the four factors outcome. The academic work factor was a higher mean score while the family factor has a lower mean than other factors.

Stressors	Mean	S.D.
Academic work factor	2.71	0.55
Personal factor	2.02	0.50
Environment factor	1.59	0.49
Family factor	1.23	0.43

Table 4:Mean score of four factor

Table 5 shows comparison of 4 factors with all determinants. Age and religion were not related to all stressors. However, training places were related to 3 factors stressor, academic work, personal and environment factor. Students who trained in Pattani province have the highest mean academic work

score than other places. Students who trained in Narathiwat province have the highest mean score in both personal and environment factor than other places.

Stressors	Gender			Religion			Training places				
	Male	Female	p-value	Buddhist	Muslim	p-value	Pattani	Songkla	Narathiwat	Satun	p-value
Academic work factor	2.50	2.74	0.48	2.51	2.76	0.17	2.9	2.6	2.8	2.2	0.04
Personal factor	1.77	2.05	0.16	2.10	2.012	0.17	2.1	1.9	2.5	1.7	0.02
Environment factor	1.62	1.58	0.87	1.56	1.59	0.17	1.5	1.2	1.9	1.0	0.03
Family factor	1.20	1.23	0.76	1.14	1.24	0.43	1.0	1.0	1.2	1.0	0.12

Table 5: The result of two sample t-test and ANOVA

Table 6 shows what student did to relieve stress. Praying or spiritual activity was a leading stress reduction technique for students. The results showed that the students never did smoking cigarette and drinking alcohol.

Stress reliever	Mean	S.D.
1. Read magazines or books	2.1	0.8
2. Praying or spiritual activity	3.6	0.7
3. Physical activity	1.6	0.7
4. Meditation	1.1	0.4
5. Listening or playing a musical instrument	2.7	0.8
6. Shopping	1.8	0.9
7. Playing internet, face book	2.9	0.8
8. Smoking cigarette	1.0	0.0
9. Drinking alcohol	1.0	0.1
10. Sleeping	2.7	0.8
11. Talking to spouse	1.6	1.0
12. Talking to parents	2.7	1.1

Table 6: Frequency distribution of stress reliever

DISCUSSION

This study assessed stress and stress reliever among dental nurse students. Fear of failing a course" is the most stressor for students. "Uncertainly as to whether or not will be able to take a comprehensive examination" and "completing course requirement" also ranked among the top 3 stressors for students. The results are consistent with the study in Canada and Malaysia (Muirhead and Locker, 2007, Ahmad *et al*, 2011).

Factor analysis was used for grouping 30 items of stressor into 4 categories including academic work factor, personal factor, environment factor and family factor. The results indicated that academic work factor, personal factor and environment factor were the first three stressful factors for the student.

The study showed that gender did not make any significant difference with the all 4 stress factor outcomes. These results are in contrast to the findings in India, males perceived more stress than female students. Religion was not related to all stressors.

The finding that students who trained in Pattani province have the highest mean academic work score than other places. Students who trained in Narathiwat province have the highest mean score in both personal and environment factor than other places. Previous study did not consider the relation between stress and training place.

Praying or spiritual activity was a leading stress reduction technique for students. Spirituality is helpful in reducing depressive symptoms and/or increasing general wellbeing (The Mental Health Foundation, 2006). The results showed that the students never did smoking cigarette and drinking alcohol.

Stress has been described as a double-edged sword that can either stimulate and motivate the students to peak performance or reduce the students to ineffectiveness (Sugiura *et al*, 2005). Previous studies have reported that dental education induces considerable stress on students (Atkinson *et al*, 1991, Westerman *et al*, 1993). These findings are almost universal phenomena in different countries with different education systems and curricula. It is difficult to eliminate all the stressful problems in a dental education programme. To become a responsible dental professional, students have to reach high

levels of knowledge and professional skill, as well as developing good attitudes towards patient care; all within a short period of time (Sugiura *et al*, 2005). The present study was conducted to understand better the factors influencing student perception.

Dental instructor should designing and developing a curriculum structure which is more student-orientated for enhancing the student's well being and focus on academic and clinical performance for producing graduates with a positive professional attitude.

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Students learning style and attitude with information visualization

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Abstract: This study focuses on how learners process information visualization by exploring the relationship between fifty undergraduate learners' performance and their viewing behaviors gained from eye tracking. Furthermore, students' learning styles was investigated through different deployed learner attention. Learner preferences towards the usage of information visualization content for learning was discussed through qualitative and quantitative results. These results explored the in-depth understanding of learner behavior while learning from visual content such as areas of interest, time spent on object, visual paths and frequency of visits to an object.

Background: The visual representation of information delivers ease in learning. Tufte (1990) stated that information presented as visual instructions helps and affects learning by providing large chunks of information communicating faster than textual representation. According to Zhang, Zhou, Briggs, and Nunamakerjr (2006) multimedia based training systems provides the same level of effectiveness as face-to-face instruction in both teaching and learning.

Therefore it is important to investigate how Human brain processes and understand the complex visual information. It is indeed essential to understand how learners' understand the information presented visually and what are the key factors that affect learning. In order to improve learning effectiveness it is important to optimize the learning process by understanding the viewing behavior of learners with different learning preferences. Previously, the think-aloud protocol based interview was frequently used technique to investigate cognitive activities during learning (LeCompte & Preissle, 1993; Mintzes, Wandersee, & Novak, 1999). In recent years the eye tracking method has became the center of attraction for researchers to study basic cognitive processes during learning and information processing (Rayner, 1998, 2009). This technique is significant as it can recode the online cognitive activities, which can track the cognitive process of learning. It can provide in-depth cognitive data by observing the eye movement and its areas of interest. Such as: where the participants are looking at (Eye fixation) and for how long do they look at one object (Fixation Duration) and how they move from one object to another (Viewing path) (Holsanova, J., Holmberg, N., & Holmqvist, K. (2009)).

It is important for the educator to understand the learning styles of the learners. This research is intended to investigate the learning style through learner preferences of the participants by acquiring eye tracking data. Every individual has his own experiences, preferences and motivation in his learning processes. Learning styles refer to an understanding method that is presumed to be in the best interest of an individual. Keefe (1991) defined learning style as an indicators of how learners observe, interact with, and respond to the learning

environment and also learning style is a characteristic of the cognitive, affective, and physiological behavior. Kraus, Reed and Fitzgerald (2001) stated that learning style is "the focus of an individual's preferred method for receiving information in a learning environment". With this we can understand learning style to be a characteristic preferences of how people take in and process information. Every individual student has his/her unique way of learning. According to Just and Carpenter (1976) the "Eye-Mind" assumption related to eye tracking is, what a person is looking at indicates what he/she is thinking of or attending to. Thus collecting and analyzing eye tracking data leads to derive learning preference of an individual to achieve learning style.

Research Questions: The purpose of this study was finding the relationship between learners' performance and learning style with eye fixation measures overall and for specific area of interests AOI. Also, this study seeks to create a more comprehensive understanding of how do learners view visual information and what is there attitudes toward graphics as a source of information.

Method: This study followed a mixed method design to obtain quantitative and qualitative answers to the research questions. The researchers employed multiple regression analysis to examine how eye fixation measures and learning styles influenced learners' performance, and triangulation of data sources to validate the quantitative results. The dependent variable here was learners' performance and the independent variables were the learning styles and the eye fixation measures, which are fixation duration, number of fixation, and number of visits to a specific AOI. Eye-tracking visualization tools like heat maps and eye paths were used to examine how learners' view the visual information. Finally, personal interviews were conducted to explore the learner's attitude towards obtaining information from graphical content.

Subject: This study was conducted at a university in the central region of Saudi Arabia, with a convenience sample of approximately fifty learners. Ten students were randomly selected for interviews from the total fifty learners.

Material: The researchers used the, "Rising Sea Levels," graph from McCandless's book (2009) to conduct the study. This graph predicted the flood impact upon cities in the event of an increase in sea level.

Procedure: Learners were approached in public areas on campus with minimal disruption. They were asked to participate for approximately ten minutes. They were given a cover letter and consent form, and after their approval, they began an eye-tracking calibration, and started the task. Upon completion of the task, they took a test. After the test, learners were randomly selected for an interview.

Results:

To answer the research questions, correlation and regression analysis has been conducted. There is week Sperman's rho correlation between learning style with the eye tracking variables and performance at the level 0.05 level. This finding indicates that whenever the participants preferred the verbal learning style it

slightly contribute it to higher score of Number of Fixation on AOI, Fixation Duration on AOI, Number of Fixation of whole graph, Fixation Duration of whole graph, Number of Visits to AOI.

Binary Logistic Regression has been conducted. The statistical analysis revealed that there are no variables contributed to predicting the learning style at the significant level 0.05. This may be due to that the majority of the sample prefers visual learning style than verbal learning style (see Table 2)

Table 1 Descriptive Statistics for the variables

Items	n	Mean	Std. Deviation
Performance	50	2.180	1.304
Number of Fixation on AOI (count)	50	116.100	89.463
Fixation Duration on AOI (in secs.)	50	0.355	0.079
Number of Fixation of whole graph (counts)	50	295.240	217.198
Fixation Duration of whole graph (in secs.)	50	0.353	0.079
Number of Visits to AOI (counts)	50	22.000	15.802

Table 2 descriptive statistics of the learning style

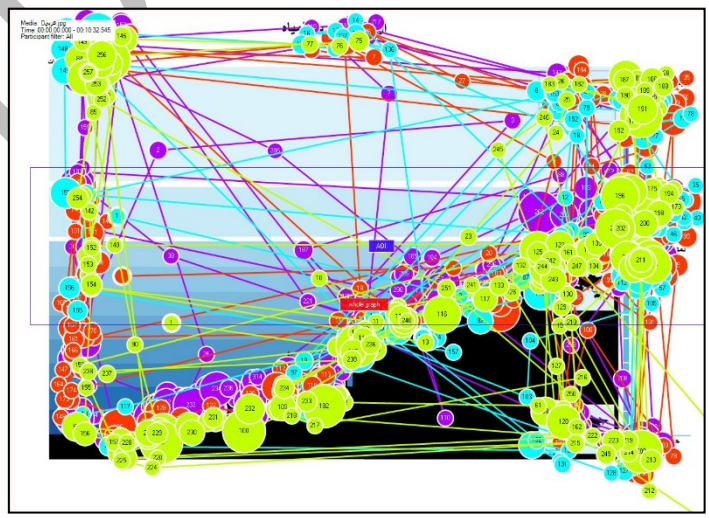
Number	**Attitude Labels**	**N**	**%**
1	Verbal little better than the visual	4	8.0
2	verbal and visual is the same	2	4.0
3	Visual little better than the verbal	11	22.0
4	Visual greatly better than the verbal	33	66.0
	Total	50	100.0

Number and percent of the Attitude Labels shows that the Majority prefer visual than verbal

In addition, there was no significant correlation between Performance and Fixation Duration of the Whole Graph at significance level , R= 0.015 , t statistics = 0.101 , and P-value = 0.920 > 0.05. However, there was a correlation between performance and the number of fixation on the whole graph at the significance level, R= 0.291, t statistics = 2.105, and P-value = 0.041 < 0.05. Number of fixation and fixation duration for the AOI showed no relationship with the learners' performance. However the correlation between number of visits on the AOI and performance resulted in a significant correlation with R=0.276, t statistics = 2.204, and P-value = 0.042 < 0.05. The two correlations were consistent with those from a number of earlier studies. However, those earlier studies showed stronger relations. (Liu & Chuang, 2011; Rayner, Yang, Schuett, & Slattery, 2013; Schmidt-Weigand, & Scheiter, 2011; Yang et al., 2013). It was assumed that the graph was easy to understand and learners do not need longer time to process information "Longer fixations are generally believed to be an indicator of a participant's difficulty in extracting the information from a display" (Jacob & Karn, 2003, p.585). Significant relationships were found between the performance and number of visits (p-value 0,042 0.050). When learners make more visits to the central area in the graph, there performance increase. Figure 1 shows the eye movement of learners, while comparing how the level of the sea changed through the years while going back and forth between the maps. The finding revealed that the time of fixation duration couldn't be predicted from the learners' performance. An explanation could be that the given graph was not complicated and required less processing time. Also, performance test measures specific number, which was hard to recall due to the high load of information visualization.

Figure 1 shows sample of scan path of the four participants view. The sample path supported comprehensions of individual participant's behavior through the plotted starting points, fixation location, and durational indicator. The learners viewed the picture as a whole and studied the picture's details. The graph shows that the learners spent more time on the right side of the picture due to the amount of information.

Figure 1. Sample of scan path of four participants view



In figure 2 the sample of scan path of one participant's shows that the patters of view were in two main directions, horizontal and vertical. This was due to the figure design of the information being arranged in the graph edges. This figure shows that the learners use compare and contrast to make meaning of the graph. This can be seen in the horizontal and vertical lines. Some variables needs more time to understand than others. This can be seen in the verity of circles size.

Figure 2. Sample of scan path of a participant view

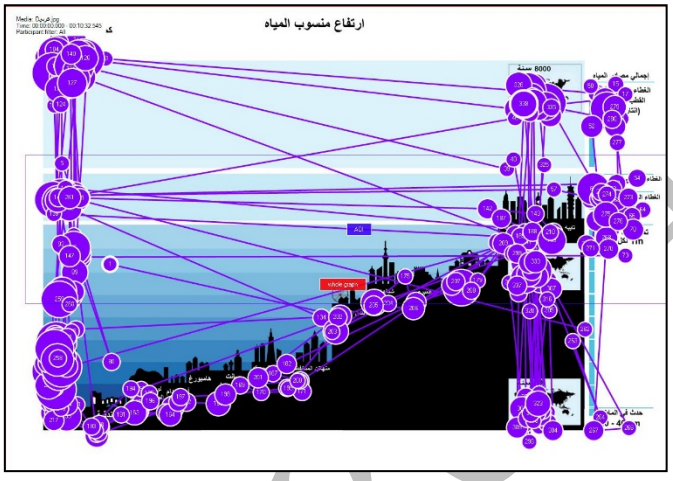


Figure 3 shows the heat map of the participants view. Heat map indicated the highest viewed area by distinguishing it in a distinct color, which is on the right side of the sea level graph. As Jacob and Karn (2003) stated, "the number of fixations on a particular display element (of interest to the design team) should reflect the importance of that element" (Jacob & Karn, 2003, p. 585). In Figure 3, the colors Red, Yellow and Green represents the most, normal and least important areas viewed by the participants respectively.

Figure 3. The heat map of the participants view

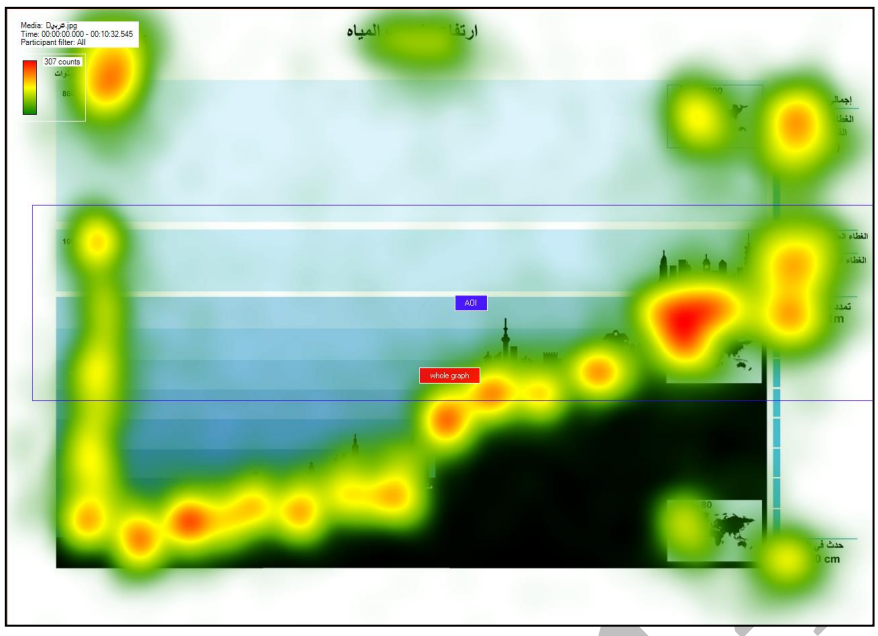
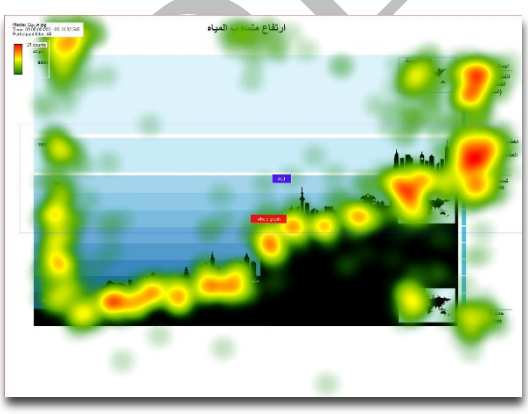
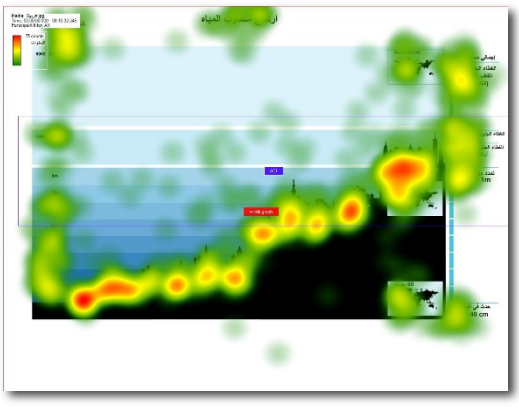


Figure 4 shows a comparison between the highest five grades and the lowest five grade students heat maps. Heat maps show a higher attention on different information for the higher grade learners than the lower grade learners. Furthermore, higher grade learners has less attention on the middle part of the map that has less information than the lower attention learners. This is consists with what Rayner (1998) points out that longer fixation duration are generally indicative of more extensive processing which does not correspond to the current study.

Figure 4. A heat map comparison between highest and lowest students performance.





High Performance Low Performance

Moreover, Learners found the Rising Sea Levels graph interesting and fun for studying. Also, learners' attitude indicated that they found graphics helpful in understanding the information "I understand the graph quickly and easily", "I like to see the information visually, I can remember it for a longer period of time". Also

learners thought that the graph helped them to remember the information and recall it easily, "I do not remember every single city, but I got the main idea about how sea level affects the earth", "I can remember some of the main cities like New York", "and the graph is there in my mind, I can recall it". However some learners indicated that the concept is complicated, "it is hard to remember everything, and there is so much information". This concludes that the learners form two levels of understanding, the conceptual idea and the specific information such as the city name. Moreover, the graph has helped the learners to recall information and easily understand the concept.

This study focused upon information visualization graph with complexity in order to investigate learners' performance and learning style with eye fixation measures. However it is recommended to conduct further qualitative studies based upon multiple images with different levels of complexities. It will provide more detailed understanding of cognitive multimedia learning, learner experiences and learning styles and preferences perceptions. Furthermore, additional studies can be carried out to measure analytical abilities through visual information of groups based upon gender, IQ (Intelligence Quotient) and educational qualifications.

The possibilities of research studies with these instruments are unlimited. Studies that explore cognitive activities on Complex charts, graphs and maps, differences between general images, images with voice over and images with interactivity will be beneficial for the designers and developers to prepare more appropriate graphical content. Further studies needed related to multimedia learning based on color-coding while designing instructional material and diverting learners' attentions to a defined area of interest. It will provide firm background and guidelines for the instructional designers and developers to develop effective multimedia enriched pedagogical agents that communicate efficiently with the learners and their learning styles.

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Students' perception of Computer – based vs. Paper – based assessment in Open and Distance Learning.

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Abstract

This study is aimed at analyzing undergraduate students' perception of computer-based versus paper-based tests in Open and Distance Learning institutions. The National Open University of Nigeria (NOUN) is used as a case study. The factors considered in this investigation are computer familiarity/literacy of test takers, content familiarity as well as gender competitiveness. 200 randomly selected 100 level undergraduate students undergoing the GST 101 – Use of English course were randomly assigned to either a computer-based or identical paper-based test. The study used qualitative instruments to gather data, and used thematic/content analysis to analyse the data which subsequently showed that the computer-based test group performed better than the paper-based test group. Although content familiarity and computer literacy were related to this performance difference, gender competitiveness was not. Students with high scores appeared to have benefitted immensely from the computer-based assessment when juxtaposed with the students who performed very well under paper-based testing. Our submission therefore, is that majority of undergraduate students in NOUN tend to appreciate computer – based assessment better than paper-based test. Consequently, Open and Distance Learning institutions must consciously anticipate and plan for possible test mode effects as it is now practised in the National Open University of Nigeria.

Key words: Computer-based test, Paper-based test, Open and Distance Learning (ODL), National Open University of Nigeria (NOUN), Computer familiarity, Content familiarity.

TEACHİNG MATHEMATİCS WİTH SECOND LİFE: TRANSFORMATİON GEOMETRY EXAMPLE

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The use of three-dimensional virtual worlds in teaching mathematics instruction eliminates dependency to the school and provide more concrete teaching of subjects. The purpose of our study: three-dimensional virtual world by using the properties of the virtual classroom is to create a math lab. Abstract math topics developed in this laboratory will be embodied by materials. This situation can think of no concrete not only facilitates the learning of secondary school students will make learning more permanent.

For this purpose, studies İstanbul Uskudar district of Fatih Middle School 3rd grade students will be created in the experimental group of 20 persons 2. One of these groups will be made to the normal teaching. Other group will be supported by the teaching of the Second Life. Teaching beginning and end achievement test, attitude scale will be applied. With this project, the three-dimensional virtual world with a positive impact on mathematics education students will be examined in the change in attitude towards mathematics.

There are studies in the fields of science, technology, sociology, fine arts, architecture, advertising, enterprise in our country on a three-dimensional virtual worlds. Study has been done on just about teaching foreign languages. There has not been a study on the contribution to mathematics education, yet.

Keywords: Teaching Mathematics, 3D Virtual Learning Environments, Virtual Worlds, Second Life

THE "OBSERVATION" IN TEACHING/EDUCATIONAL CONTEST

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Abstract The aim of the paper is to discuss on the importance of the "observation" within the teaching/educational contest. The "observation", borrowed from the experimental science, represents an integral part of the action of the teachers/educators, being one of the milestone of the professionalism of the people working in the educational field. Starting from the general definition of "observation" the features of its relevant reference elements, such as typologies, technics, instruments and paradigms, were outlined. Within the teaching/educational procedure the peculiarity and criticality concerning to the use of the "observation" were discussed, as well as the key results, able to improve, by means of the "Observation", the teaching/learning process were highlighted. In conclusion the use of the "observation" as instrument to reduce the gap between theory and experience in order to create a virtuous network between experience and research is strongly recommended.

Key words: Observation, Observation research methodology, Educational context.

INTRODUCTION The term "observation" indicates the ascertainment or the verification of a fact, either of an occasional nature or of a methodic or planned nature (N. Abbagnano, Dizionario di Filosofia, p.788).
If we refer to former meaning, we have to oppose to the observation the experience or the experience or the experiment, as a methodic and deliberated ascertainment. On the contrary, if to observation is attributed the latter meaning, we must oppose to it the occasional or common, or ingenuous experience, and the contemporary scientific thought usually adopts exactly this meaning.
Assuming that the ascertainment of any fact, or spontaneous and natural, or methodical and projected, implies any procedure which makes its knowledge possible, through the description, the calculation, or its controllable prevision, and assuming that we can mean any object as a fact, a phenomenon, a real thing, which can undergo any cognitive procedure ("Conoscenza", Abbagnano, ivi, p. 192), the observation can be conceived as one of these procedures, whose specific function is therefore to catch information on the considered fact, to describe its characteristics with the aim to know and comprehend it. Therefore, under the term, it is possible to comprehend both the meanings and distinguish: the natural observation, that is the one in which the conditions of the observation are not projected or able to be projected, and the experimental observation (or experiment) which is the projected observation, characterized by the variables.
In this second kind of observation, one can act on the independent variable and examine the behavioral correspondent of the dependent variable, that is connected variable.
As a consequence, the observation, if opposed to the methodical approach, a characteristic specific species of experimental research (study), can be defined a cognitive procedure directed to the only collection of data concerning the observed object and emerging from the observation, on the basis of the information collected by the object taken into consideration.
In this sense, the utilization of observation aims to describe the characteristics of an event, a behavior or a situation, in real life contexts (natural environment) and not artificially arranged.
On the contrary, if the observation has methodic and projected, systematic nature, it aims to get to know about it, to predictably modify it.
In these terms, the observation is backed up by scientific theories as reference paradigms on the basis of which the data collected by it are to be interpreted, insofar as it selects deliberately both the elaboration and the interpretation of the collected data.
In these terms, the observation can be defined as an instrument by which one can exert a function of knowledge and control towards the observed object, the purpose to intervene specifically for changing one more conditions surrounding the object in question, and assuming the peculiarity of the observative, systematic research (Magri, Rossi, 1998, p. 73).
As a consequence, the peculiar elements of observation can be defined the finality and the deliberatedness.
Whoever observes a fact, clearly knows the objective of the cognitive activity intrinsic of the observation, which is its finality, and is also a ware of the intentionality which induces her/him to observe a fact, in relation to

her/his particular interest, or curiosity or motivation. The intentionality, together with the necessity to understand the nature of the fact, and therefore put in relation with the finality, makes of the observation a cognitive technique directed to a fact, since it tends to construct with the fact itself a relation from which the effective characteristics emerge.

It is in these terms that the observation has been utilized in the field of experimental sciences. The experimental method, carried out by Galileo and Bacone, defined inductive method, starts or with the occasional observation (in the case of Fleming, for example, and the Penicillin) or with the systematic and programmatic observation (as in the medicine experimentation). Once the facts have been observed (physical, chemical, biologic etc. facts, occasionally or systematically observed), an interpretative hypothesis proceeds (II step). Then , the interpretative hypothesis is experimentally applied (experimental verification, (III step), in order to verify the result.

If it proves the hypothesis, one can affirm that the natural law governing the phenomenon has been "caught".

In the field of experimental sciences, according this procedure, the scientific procedure is therefore conceived as the reconstruction in mathematical terms of the relations among the things, and through "the experiments", as active instruments, it can go on, examining the natural phenomena, gaining answers to attain the mathematical laws which govern it (Abbagnano, Fornero, "protagonisti e testi della filosofia" vol. B, Tomo 1, 1999, p. 61).

The experimental method consists in the systematic manipulation by who experiments (the researcher) of one more variables (called independent variables) in order to study how the other variables, which could depend from them (the so-called dependent variables) are modified (Gattico, Mantovani, 1998, p.22).

In these terms, the observation, rising to method of systematic investigation as a basic element in the scientific research progress.

DISCUSSION The human sciences also utilize the experimental method, borrowed from experimental sciences and opportunely remodulated, in the field of educational research. It is articulated into some steps, described as follows:

- The observation;
- The formulation of the hypotheses;
- The experimentation;
- The elaboration of data and the interpretation.

Being the observation the initial step, it is a very complex phase since it also comprehends the previous works and other experimentations review, in order to find information which can help to solve the problem object of investigation and to prevent possible difficulties (Notti, 2012, p. 18).

The formulation of the hypotheses is the consequent phase, in which, established the work hypotheses, the plan of research is formulated.

The experiment concerns the operational of the research, and it provides proofs as well as the carring out of investigation.

The elaboration of the data and the interpretation is the phase of the validation and the possibility to generalize the data verified by the research.

According this procedure, in the field of the human sciences, the scientific knowledge as a knowledge of the facts and the means by which they have established themselves.

The experimentation in education analyzes the individual and environmental variables of the educational process in order to give information which allow the educational operators, to abandon improvisation and fortuitousness in favor of a behavior orientated to the research which, instead, has the objective to individuate, collect and analyze data, in order to verify hypotheses, on sound scientific bases (Notti, ivi, p. 11).

By this setting, the educational research has, in fact, individuated different approaches to the knowledge of the facts, traceable to two models:

- The subjectivist model, based on the examination of the case;
- The objective model, based on the objectives.

The former has an holistic approach in which subjects, actions, relations and contexts are examined as a whole, in an exploratory logic which comprehends contexts, inter-dependence system and dimensions of processes within which the centrality of the person and its behavior has the priority.

This model is defined "qualitative", since it enhances the value of intuition, the capacity to catch, the peculiarities of a fact in the various situations and behaviours, founding its study on the educational situation, on experience, utilizing different methods for the analysis of a single case.

The second model, has a technological-scientific approach, by which, besides the methodological rigour, it bases its action on all operations which utilize methods and instruments allowing the measurement of the variables under control, and on a statistical treatment of data. In this sense, this model is defined "quantitative".
Human sciences utilize both the models.
The former, as a form of qualitative expression, is used in descriptions, colloquies, in the ordinary pedagogical communication; the latter, as a form of quantitative expression, is used in psychotechnique in tests and school evaluation (Laeng, 1992, p.52).
Within these models, observation can be numbered among the investigation methods used in the qualitative research, and it is the initial moment of the experimental procedure, as previously put in evidence, by which one can get to know the phenomenon object of examination and individuate its specific variables.
In these terms, observation can be defined a method of investigation if it is:
- Used for precise purposes;
- Systematically programmed and with a delimitated field of investigation;
-Systematically recorded;
- Put in relation with the oretic and/or interpretative schemes.
In these terms, in the field of human sciences the first examples of observational research applied to the study of human behavior and development, in the field relating to educational psychology we find, authors such as Darwin, Pestalozzi, Strumpell, Tiedermann, Tayne, Preyer.
These authors, interested in their children' development, reported as in a diary, the changes in the growth of their children. These kinds of "infantile biographies", have not a scientific nature because they are not objective, being the result of non-systematical observations, therefore they cannot be generalized. Nevertheless, they are important documents for the research development, since they meet the purpose of identification and conservation of the progressive acquisition relating to human development.
Some aspects of infantile development, individuated by Darwin, have been confirmed by experimental researches one hundred later, proved to be surprisingly topical and accurate.
Afterwards, not-whitstanding the importance of this observational method was recognized, some authors, such as, for example, Anderson and Murchinson, got to keep their distance from it, in favour of the experimentation carried out in laboratory, of the measurement of the examined phenomena and of the utilization of standard instruments such as the tests.
Afterwards, and from the thirties to the fifties of the last century, the observational method loses importance, since, in the field of development psychology, some themes were abandoned as objects or research, as they were not subjectable to the experimental method. Binet, for example, thought that if a problem could not be dealt with the experimental method, it had to be left out because its study did not assure any certainty. With the support of comportamentist approach, the experimentation has been considered the principal methodology for the study of learning behavior, since it has been defined the only one capable of providing for certain, objective, quantifiable which can be generalized.
In this regard, Watson (1914), thought that for scientific psychology, the experimentation in laboratory were the only way to go.
Afterwards, also the cognitive approach reinforces experimental research so that the experimental project becomes the main method to study the changes taking place in the cognitive functions connected to the age.
The current of research based on observation even if has not completely worn out, remains marginal, therefore, for a long period of time, to the central themes discussed in the field of development.
These themes concern the development models and the studying methods and animate the theoretical debate. The criticism on the exclusive utilization of the experimental method affects the methods of study; after the fifties, this criticism, also given the dissatisfaction with research led in laboratory, attribute to result of laboratory experimentation, lacking of external validity and generalizableness, as well as artificiality.
Besides, criticism is supported by new theories about behavior (for example, the first generation cognitivism) which assert its intentionality and not simply its responsiveness to external stimula, which implies that the same action can indicate different things as regard to different contexts, and it is possible to indicate the meaning of the behavior only in the context (Mantovani, 1988).
As regard to the behavior , many uncertainties cannot be dealt with, through an experimental research in which many variables, extremely relevant in the reality, for the explanation of human development, cannot be controlled.

In order to explain the result of an experimental research, it is not possible to consider exclusively the experimental procedure, but even the interaction that it can have with the normal course of the development. Only a longitudinal approach, can indicate the characteristic of the individual development.
This approach is mainly used in the observational research, exactly in relation to the methodological and practical difficulties it implies (R. Trinchero-Appunti del corso di Pedagogia Sperimentale Facoltà di Scienze della Formazione, Università di Torino, 2001).
In this field, in fact, to carry out an observational procedure implies various phases, which arranged in a consequential accomplishment logic, going to the definition of the observation aims to their realization, recal different theoretical reference paradigms, specific techniques and methodologies various tipologies, times, modalities, different observation instruments and degrees of structuration.

TECHNIQUES, INSTRUMENTS AND PARADIGMS Assuming that the choice of each of these parameters depends on the objective than one wants to achieve or the problem to face, we think it right to highlight the observer's role, her/his survey instruments, the main different paradigms and theories which she/he can refer to, the various observational methods and their peculiarities.
The observer must be neutral as regard to the observed object, in order to avoid waiting that can influence the data objectivity.
The observer must be capable to cut herself/himself off her/his subjectivity, to suspend her/his judgment in order to prevent his thought categories from affecting the analysis of the reality which is observed. The observer, moreover, must have a precise observational intention, to be observe the object more neutrally possible, in order to make it more objective possible. To attain this objectivity, the observer must utilize observation as an investigation method, and systematically, that is leading it following the three main conditions of the scientific method. They concern the communicability, relating to the precision that is indispensable to describe one's action in the course of research, to allow the other researchers to follow closely the steps taken; the repeatability correlated to communication, which concerns the possibility for other researchers, to attain the same result, in a equal research situation; and objectivity, which concerns the possibility to give an only and univocal meaning to the result achieved without subjective interpretations (Notti, 2012, p. 54).
Moreover, a different involvement level or a different participation to the observation, by the observer, originates two operative procedures generally defined "participating observation" and "not participating observation".
The participating observation implies an implicit sharing of a common table of reference within a kind of accordance is realized between the observer and the observed; therefore they both know that they are "object of observation", of a research. The participant observation implies an active observer's participation into the situation in progress, an interaction into the observed group and an interaction with the observed groups participating in their turn, in a dynamic, involving dimension.
The observer, as an active part in the life of the group, commits himself/herself in "seeing a behavioural activity from the point of view of who is within a situation" (Mc Burney, 2002, p. 16).
The non-participating observation, instead, implies an external observer's position, therefore he does not interact and does not influence the situational context.
In according Wright (1960), we can subdivide the system used in a research based on observation, into "open System" and "closed System".
The open systems are those which codify the data without pre-defining categories of analysis.
The closed system, on the contrary, use pre-defined categories of analysis.
We can include, in the open systems:
- The descriptive observation "on paper" based on the observer's ability to describe the complexity of her/his observation, in a narrative form, by detailed report of the events and their relation (P. Lucisano, 2012, p.181; M. Castoldi, 2012, p. 70).
- The "shadowing, or being beside (somebody) is an observative modality by means of which the observer acts as a shadow of the observed subject, side by side with her/him.
In her/him actions, within a stated period, making a note of his behavior (Castoldi, ivi, p.72).
- The "diary, a narrative and retrospective technique, consisting in the description, by means of the language habitually used, of one's own and other's activities.
- The "Journal" or "log-book" which, unlike the diary, is enriched with the observer's further notes, in form of comments on factual data.
- The "technique of critical episode" (anecdotal record), which makes notes as rapidly as possible of the critical actions considered significant for the case in question. For example: audio and video recording, which allows a

smaller loss of information and more complex analyses, given the possibility to listen, to see, or read again (if written) the observation, for distinguishing shades of meanings and details (Lucisano, ivi, p. 182).
- "Photos" or "slide", which, as static images allow to observe non-verbal behaviours, such as the position and the posture.
- The "recording schedules" or "brief episodes", aiming to point out a specific behavior in its habitual carrying out. This instrument the observation aims to the description of an event, avoiding evaluation or interpretations, which, anyway, can be additional information. These schedules are used when we cannot anticipate a precise list of behaviours or when we want to record freely what happens, and then elaborate observation grids.
The instruments relating to closed system are:
- The "observation grids", a list of various aspects of a phenomenon, defined in operative terms. The observer has to take notes, by means of precise symbols as numbers, letters or defined signs, of the presence or absence of the phenomena-object of study, present in the list.
- The "check-list" are the most wide-spread observation-grids. For example, we can mention:

- the "system" or "categories grids", that is closed set of pre-defined categories relating to specific aspect of the behavior or the phenomenon object of observation;
- the "rating scales", which record or do not record not only or absence of the observed characteristic, but even to value its level.

In regard to the various observational theories which the researcher can refer to, as a theoretical, paradigmatic scheme, the most influential, for the research on human behavior and development, are:
the "ethological model", the "psychoanalytical model", centered on observation, the "clinical-experimental model, and the "ecological model.
According to the theory utilized, the observation will be defined ethological, psychoanalytical or almost experimental, clinical, ecological.
The ethological theory develops in the field of ethology, a science concerning the behavior or animals and its evolution.
Ethology, a naturalistic observational typology, implies an inductive observation aiming to point out the behavioral schemes both innate and genetically determined, which are characteristic of all the members of a determined species.
This theory, experimented and carried out by K. Lorenz and N. Tinbergen, was also to the human behavior analysis, with a special reference to the infantile behavior, and particularly used by the psychology of development.
In this field, the ethological observation provides for the study of the spontaneous behavior in habitual contexts of life without limits neither on the situation, nor on the response, without the utilization of instruments of survey, which can alter the spontaneous behavior.
As a consequence, the observer, using this kind of observation, must not interfere with the observed situation, but, rather, he must assume a non-participating, dissimulated observation.
If necessary, the observer, in fact, has to hide herself/himself, behind a one-way mirror or behind a screen which conceal her/him; if it is not possible, she-he must try to get into the environment in which she-he is interests. In this case, the observation starts only when the observer is aware to be ignored by subjects.
With this kind of observation, the description of the behaviours observed has to be carried out in the most precise and detailed way, without the conditioning of subjective interpretations. The final aim of this observation is the construction of the "etho-gram", that is an inventory of all behavioural schemes, rigorously defined, which makes this kind of observation purely analytical (M. Postic; J.M. De Keetele, 1993).
The instruments utilized for this kind of observation are the dictation on recording equipment, the video-recording, the behaviours check-list.
The psychoanalytic model centered on observation, though arisen from the need to observe the mother-baby relation (infant-observation), provides a precious contribution also to the observation of relationships not belonging to the sphere of infancy. This model, even though it is founded on psychology, can be utilized in any context which includes an educational interaction. The accent is on the attention that the observer pays to the behavioural aspects and the situations, for the problem analyzed, towards the exterior but, above all, on the emotional reaction of the observer, toward the inside.
Since this observational method pays a lot of attention to the relational dynamics which take place in a stated context, also from the emotional point of view, the context also has a preeminent role. The observer, who is physically and emotionally present, must be careful about the repressed affectivity of the protagonists of the observed relation.

The psychoanalytical observation can be based on three fundamental principles:
- The great attention to every details; analysis and description of all details in the child's behavior;
- Observation of the context within which the behavior, object of the research, takes place;
- The research on genetic continuity, since behaviours are considered of human evolution (Mantovani, 1998, p.106).

The instruments mainly used for this kind of data reporting are supported by recording techniques of non-structured type, that is by descriptive reports drawn up after every observational session.

The Piaget's theory, on which the almost experimental observation is based, has been carried out by Piaget in his research on pre-verbal intelligence.it is defined almost-experimental for three reasons:
- Some specific hypotheses lead this theory;
- The leading of the theory takes place in conditions which are from time to time modified by the researcher, as it happens in the classical experiment;
- The observation on which it is based are detailed continuative, and systematic as a diary.

In this kind of observation, set up by Piaget's research on babies, the subject who is observed is maintained in an habitual situation within which the researcher introduces a modification, as naturally possible, to examine the reactions that it provokes on the subject, and therefore the observer not-only examines the spontaneous behavior but also the behavior modified by some alteration.

The aim is to obtain an overall analysis of the case, in order to point out the external reality and allow the emerging of the processes characteristics, which lie below the observed behaviours.

The clinical method is used to analyze the internal logic of the "case "under examination, which is considered an individualized situation, with a story of its own, and not a "subject" with his peculiarities.

The aim of this method is the comprehension of the reasons, of the behaviours and the peculiarities of the "case", through the correlation between the collection of information of various genre and of the data obtained from it (Postic; De Ketele, 1993).

The ecological- theory at the basis of ocologic observation, centres its analysis on the relation among the living organism, and these and their environment also known as human ecology or behavioural ecology, it deals, in psychology, with the relation between the functioning of psychic apparatus and the characteristics in which the behavior is observed (D'Odorico, 1990, p.77).

By the expression "ecological perspective", we are used to indicate the dynamic interactions which occur among the researcher, the subject and the context of the research. Barker (1951), was the first to illustrate its these, by concentrating on the study of the behavior in concrete situations, persuaded that, in order to know the principles which stimulate the human behavior it is necessary to investigate the real situations of human life.

As the ethological approach, the ecological one limits itself to observe and measure the behavior without manipulation or intervention favouring the observation in natural conditions.

As regard to the structuring degree of the observation, we refer to the structured (or systematic) observation with a low degree of structuration 8or from experience).

The systematic observation has a precise objective defined "a-priori" and it is carried out on pre-designated subject, and it provides for the realization of a planned system of collection and classification of information, which, afterwards, allows the application of statistical techniques of analysis of the gathered data.

The data collected be means of this system are immediately annotated by the observer, which takes part in the situation, and catalogued, with the help of special grids, which allow to define behavioural categories analyzed in their peculiarity. This observational method is used in the educational sphere to observe the effects of an educational proposal to verify the effectiveness of intervention, to test new didactic materials.

This type of observation falls under the competence of the classic experimental pedagogic current.

In this field, the researcher pays attention in defining accurately the variables involved in its object of study and to the construction of an observational device which makes use of a guarantee of repeatability for other researchers (Postic, De Ketele, 1993, p. 80)

.In order to be systematic, the following characteristics are requested:
- The pertinence, which represents the correlation degree between the behaviours that we want to observe and the objective of the research;
- The validity, corresponding to what we are really observing and what we want to observe;
- The variability, referred to the degree which the results obtained through the observation, can reconfirm, through other observers which utilize the same instruments, at the same moment and under the same conditions.;
- The transferability, referred to the degree in which the results can be generalized, transferred from a cultural context to another, (transcultural transferability), from an observational situation to another (trans-situational transferability) or from a period of time to another (trans temporal transferability) (Postic and De Ketele, 1993).

The experiential observation, instead, focuses on the analysis of the observed subjects' attitudes, perceptions and belief, giving preeminence to the behavioural experience. The observer's action is not orientated to record the events in the very moment in which they happen, but to get, subsequently, the needed information, by means of interviews, diaries, questionnaires.
The subjects involved in this kind of research, are aware of its purposes and collaborate (Magri, Rossi, 1998).
The observer, according to the collected materials, draws up a narrative description. The peculiarity of this observational method is that of the great amount of observational data can be subsequently used for opportune classification and codification.
This kind of observation, moreover, is utilized with exploratory purposes for the collection of information in the field, in order to define more precisely, the hypotheses for a more structured research plan.
The modality of observation can refer to instruments and procedures that the observer can use to distinguish the data he is interested in.
As we have already put into evidence. There are many techniques and related paradigms of reference, according to their starting objectives and their suitability.
The scheme proposed by Magri and Rossi puts into evidence the three constitutive of the observational procedure which form an unifying element characterizing the considered concept:
- The focalization, which concerns the circumscribing of the observed problem, making explicit what we know about it, and specifying what we cannot comprehend about it, in order to decide what are instruments to be used;
- The collection of the data, that is the phase which foresees the behaviours recording and their codification, their transcription and classification into wide units of analysis, in order to analyze and measure the characteristics, the frequency, the duration, the intensity of the phenomena under observation;
- The data analysis, both qualitative and quantitative. The former is utilizable when it is possible to measure, by means of special scales, the frequency, the intensity degrees or the duration with which stated events have been recorded; the latter is utilizable when one can infer on tries process by means of which the observer provides a meaning to collected data, through a subjective interpretation of categories of events or observed behaviours.
As regards to the "times" related to the observation, you need to establish "a-priori" the duration and the frequency of the observations.
According Mantovani (1995), for example, with reference to the parameter in question, you can put into evidence two types of sampling:
- The temporal sampling, defined as a method used when the observer wants to collect information related to the frequency of one or more behaviours. In this case, one can observe subjected to intermittent intervals and uniform duration, during which the observer tries all that she/he sees;
- The events sampling, which is used when the observer is orientated to catch the aspects concerning to the sequence and presentation modalities of a stated behavior (what happens first, after, how it is structured and the characteristic of its context).

METHOD IN EDUCATIONAL CONTEXT Coming to the peculiarity of the educational method, and referring to the above, as regards to observation, we want to reason about the observational method in the didactic-educational context giving answers to questions such as: who/what to observe, and why to observe, at school or in the classroom, specifying instruments and typologies of observation.
As regard to the object of observation, it depends from the purpose of the research; outlining the object, it is possible to focus only on that given object and to obtain the most important data (De Monte, 2008).
The observation field has to be defined, or through the open techniques for example diary description, or events descriptions, when the objective is wide, the attentions is at long-range, and the times of observation are long; or through closed techniques, for example the observation by times or events sampling, used when the observation concerns one aim, the research field is limited, as regards to the time of observation and pre-selection of what one wants to observe.
In the educational field, the objectives of the research concern fundamentally the phenomena which arise from the teaching-learning process, that refer to the development areas of the pupil, such as the relational, communicative, self-awareness, cognitive, affective areas, and the context of the process.
In this sense, observation must provide information on the environmental circumstances, on the verification of physical and psychic development, on the development of the ego, on the affective state evolution.
To define the context/observational field related to the school setting, we need to consider the variables which come into play.

According the pattern for, the teaching process proposed by Dunkin/Biddle(1974), these variables can be distinguished into context/variables, process/variables and product variables.
The first variables concern the physical characteristics of school setting, the formation experiences of the teacher, as well as her7his capacities and motivations as regards teaching; the general characteristics of the pupil.
The other variables concern the teacher's behavior in the class, her/his relation with the class; the behavior of the students in the classroom, their learning, their relation with the teacher and the schoolfellows; the various contextual relations pupils/pupils, teachers/teachers, teachers/pupils, and, finally, the teaching-learning path, and all its variables, such as objectives, methods, instruments, space organizing.
The product variables concern the learning, the attitude towards school, the pupils development of relational capacities, the teachers' professionalism modification.
In order to describe completely the peculiarities of the setting of the teaching-learning process, you need to examine not only the school/class environment, but even the setting-cultural connotations which characterize the school and which are to be considered for the elaboration of specific formative paths.
In this way, an observational profile sets up; in fact the construction of an observational profile implies, the physical description of a subject, her/his way of presenting herself/himself her7his affective tone; (smiling, wary, taciturn, talkative) the description of the context of life, which must point out the environmental factors that can influence the subject's behavior as well as the familiar educational context and the educational context.
As regard to the verification of the psychophysical development, the observation concerns:
- The physical factors; for example sleep and hunger, in order to collect data about the instincts regulation and body functions;
- The kind and the level of affective relation that the subject has attained, in order to collect data on the development of social relations;
- The way the subject enhances her/his value or denigrates herself/himself, hes/his way to put all her/his energies and abilities, which make her/him more autonomous, in order to point out her/his levels of self-esteem;
- The presence or absence of aggressiveness, if it excessive or different, in order to as regards to the ascertainment of the development of the ego, the observation concerns:
- The memory the capacity of synthesis, the language, the regulation of one's own actions the reality exam, the motricity control, in order to collect data about the level of these abilities, which can be socially acceptable, or acceptable only for the fulfilment of the pupil's immediate need;
- On the capability to bring some tasks of daily life to an end, in order to point out the data concerning general autonomy;
- On the capacity of bringing news tasks to an end, or acquire new abilities, for the ascertainment of the data concerning specific autonomy;
- On the reactions carried out by the pupil in unpleasant situations caused by her/his inner drives or by environmental situations, or really menacing or perceived as threats, in order to point out data the modality of defense.
As regard to the evaluation of the affective states development, observation concerns:
- affection and emotion such as cheerfulness, sadness, fear, the situation which causes them, the intensity and the stimula which provoke them, in order to point out data concerning the relation between progressive and regressive tendencies.
As regards to the observer, in the specific case of the class setting, it is the teacher which plays the role of the observer. Assuming that she/he is adequately formed for the competences implied is this role, she-he must develop the principal competence of the subject, that is objectivity.
There is no doubt that the dichotomy objectivity/subjectivity of observations in school setting represents an important problem. In her/his observation, the teacher privileges the collection of data with a low degree of structuring.
In this sense, the teacher by using an observation of experiential kind, supported by survey techniques, prevalently manual, exposes herself/himself to the risk of an excessive personalization and individualization of observation modality. Nevertheless, it is right to remember that "only the collection of information with low degree of structure can aim to the comprehension of the collected information since: the scientific nature is not only the structure, but even strict intersubjective control of observational procedures; and this control, even if is more difficult trough a less structured information, is all the same possible" (R. Trinchero,2002) the choice of the involvement during the observation, follows up the characteristic of observation.
Assumed "ex-ante" the objective of observation, the teacher can decide consequently if she/he must assume the role of participating or non-participating observer.

If the objective of observation is that of comprehending the educational situation from a point of view internal to the teaching/learning process, she/he will be a participating observer. The focus of this kind of observation are the relations.
In the school setting, it is used to observe the dynamic-affective elements.
The teacher can make use of this kind of observation, in order to:
- Consider the existence of affective elements into a pupil's development;
- Consider if learning depends on affective, cognitive and motivational elements;
- Consider if the pupil establishes with the teacher and the other pupils relations which involve her/him from the emotional and affective point of view.
In the objective is, instead the relation between two pupils, the teacher will be the non-participating observer.
He/she, must catch useful elements as regards the situation in which the two pupils' relation takes place, before her/him, but which does not involve her/him.
The focus of this observation is on the behaviours. It is used in order to observe interactive and social behaviours, linguistic, logic, mathematical abilities, and functions concerning memory perception and language.
As regard "why" one observes, the reason are numerous; among them we can take into consideration, as concerns the observation at school:
- A descriptive function, used to describe the situation or the phenomenon in question;
- An euristic function/or diagnostic function: the observation aims to the emerging of pertaining hypotheses and then to their further control;
- A formative function (an observation to act, on the basis of what observed, and an action, in order to form);
- An evaluative function: in order to evaluate and decide the action. The action, then, will be, on turn, evaluated and observed, for a new decision (Lucisano, 2002, p. 176).
In the evaluation sphere, the observation aims above all to point out the dynamics of formative process, as much crucial for the pedagogical quality as demanding a direct examination, and the context of acting (Castoldi, 2012, p. 76).
The observation with conoscitive aims describes the characteristics of examined object and the conditions in which it shows itself without alternation, in order to provide all the information concerning it, on a qualitative and quantitative level.
For example, in the educational praxis of a classroom, a teacher can make use of the observation to point out the data concerning the teaching context, in order to get information on the environmental, cultural and social features, which condition positively or negatively the learning or the behavior of a stated pupil's group.
The observation used methodically and systematically, instead, performs the euristic and verifications, since it adds the pure knowledge of the observed object to the intervention on it, in order to modify, in a controlled way, the entities of some features or variables, or to introduce news ones, for obtaining predicted, and in advance effects.
A teacher, after observing, in a class, numerous aggressive behaviours in the group of her/his pupils, can ask herself/himself the causes of this problem and hypothesize that it can depend on some aspects which can influence it as possible concomitant causes of the observed behaviours, for example one's own communication style, class activities spaces and times.
Concentrating on these aspects, he/she can make use of observation, to allow the emerging of the reason of aggressiveness. If, through observation, an example of aggressive behavior emerges, in correspondence with a cognitive pressure, the teacher's intervention can modify the activity times, corroborating her/his hypothesis.
The observation used in order to point out adequate and effective relational modalities, and to project educational intervention within which the person plays a central role in the learning process, has a formative function.
The observation utilized for the knowledge of capacities and behaviours, based on the collection of behavioral, social, cognitive and effective data, has an evaluation function. The collection of these data and their consequent codification allows to have basic measurement of students.
These measures can be a starting point of didactic activity, as well as the basis for the evaluation of learning, maturation and mental processes development.

CONCLUSION: In the educational praxis, observation allows to increase the level of knowledge of the pupils' behavior, following precise hypotheses; to comprehend the meaning of stated behaviours, to abandon randomness and improvisation in favour of an attitude towards research; to carry out more conscious, educational and didactic proposal as well as precise didactic and educational strategies of intervention; to avoid that personal expectations or preconceived ideas may condition the interpretation of events; to distinguish facts

from comments, judgment, evaluation; to make use of more objective information, to have a confrontation with the colleagues on the research hypotheses, on what and why is to observe, on the sharing of data; to acquire or share an intellectual language.

And notwithstanding the great bulk of knowledge implied, the didactic-educational context cannot ignore observation.

Carrying out an observation in the didactic-educational context implies, in fact, the knowledge of the theoretical paradigms of reference, the capability to choose among them, a model to follow for each prearranged objective, techniques and methodologies for every chosen modes. For the formation of a teacher, the knowledge of a theoretic establishment and the acquisition of operational techniques for the work in the educational field cannot be set aside.

In these terms, observation occupies a fundamental role in the educational field, since it is also one of the aim elements of the educators' professionality.

With reference to presidential decree 8 March 1992 n. 275, about the accomplishment of didactic autonomy in the school field, teachers are, in fact, personally involved in the formation project, which implies a specific professionality of theirs, since, starting from the directions delineated in the phase of the central planning, they must interpret and adapt them to the subjective needs of pupils, and to the reality of the context in which they work, projecting didactic courses.

To their institutional task, traditionally conceived as "transmission of that given knowledge", indispensable for the personal and cultural formation of students (Capperucci, 2008), we must add the task to program, project and plan the didactic experience, in order to convert the educational aims into operational possibilities which are didactically controllable, measurable and conductible (R. Tammaro, 2011).

Projecting educational intervention, carrying them out by means of adequate instruments and methods, verifying the result achieved, and if necessary, re-project the works, with new hypotheses and objectives; these are the actions that a teacher/educator must perform concretely, nowadays, in order to guide the pupil in her/his growth. This implies the necessity to master the observational techniques, and the capability to apply them to the situations that teacher must face from time to time, when a choice is requested.

It is evident that, in a systematic research context, after establishing times and modalities for survey and codification, a plan of observation is drawn up, and after a training on the utilization of the more or less instruments for survey, we can foresee that the observational work will go on without great obstacles. On the contrary, it is also evident that carrying out a continuative, dynamic operation in the didactic context, implies a number of variables, many of them unpredictable, which have inevitable repercussion on recording procedures and data cataloguing, that escape often to scientific criteria. In fact, the object under observation is not inert, but, it has a life of her/his own, a mind of her/his own, an individuality in relation, in its turn, with the sociological context conceived as the whole of circumstances and actions into which the pedagogical action gets.

Nevertheless, in this context, a scientific method cannot be excluded and teacher and educators must come into possession of it.

It is self-evident, therefore, to propose the utilization of research-action protocol, in the didactic context.

If, on the one hand, the rigour and the systematic nature of the research lead to the certification of reliable data, on the other hand, the experience acquired by teaching, plays a fundamental role in education.

The knowledge of the main techniques and procedures for a formative intervention cannot be sufficient if they are not applicable to practice.

Therefore, insofar as the research-action is involved in the empiric knowledge of problems provided by the didactic-educational operators, as regards to what takes place in the context; and to involve the subjects protagonist acquainting them with an attitude which assumes the research as a professional approach, it is structured as an operational context where it is possible to bridge the distance between experimental research and didactic action.

In these terms, the research-action represents the practical and privileged place where one can apply the scientific knowledge. If, on the one hand, it maintains a classical scheme of pre-experimental research which justifies its legitimacy, on the other hand, its nature of applied research, which feeds on the relation among researchers, teachers and interaction environment, that are enriched, in this way, with a possibility of situations discovery, encourages the achievement of new result (A. Notti, 2012).

Following this perspective, we consider that the guarantee of the scientific nature of collected data is not given by a series of accurate and methodical information, denoting their statistics meaning, but we need to pay attention to the use of their results in a context which continually evolves.

It is again implied, the need to shorten the distance between theory and practice, remodulating their meaning for a context within which it is difficult to drawn their lines.
Therefore, observation can be a precious contribution insofar as it, carried out in the context, can refute scientific propositions and approach to the problems faced daily by those who operate in the field, so nourishing a virtuous circle between experience and research.

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The effect of VE Smart Response System Activities using ECAE Students' Own Mobile Devices on Students' Perception and Performance

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Smart phones and tablets are widely used by ECAE college students and they carry these tools with them all the time; inside and outside the classroom. This study aimed to integrate students' Smartphones and Tablets - Bring Your Own Device (BYOD) in inside and outside classroom activities to engage the students in the teaching and learning process. The study also aimed to measure the impact of those activities on students' perception and performance.

The inside and outside classroom activities in this study were implemented using the Smart Response System (VE Response) with the use of the students' own mobile devices. This study used VE response to create quizzes the students to answer them using their own devices. Some of these quizzes were part of the in-class activities and some were remotely sent to the students to answer them from anywhere using their own devices.

The sample size is 20 female students of BE.D 4. The data collection tools included questionnaire, interviews, field notes and the students' results from the quizzes. Results of the study showed that using the VE response to deliver quizzes to the students inside and outside the classroom helped students to learn, improved their understanding to the course content and gave them good feedback regarding their knowledge of the course. The results also showed that students have positive perception and attitude toward using these kinds of activities inside and outside the classroom.

The Politics of Technology Transfer and the Challenges of Development in Nigeria in the Age of Globalization

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Abstract

Technology is the key to economic development. One wonders whether the technologically advanced nations are really interested in transferring technology to less advanced nations which, if successful, would make them more competitive and self-reliant. Is it naive on the part of the technologically less advanced to expect genuine transfer of this type of knowledge? At the moment technology transfer into Africa, particularly in Nigeria continues to be in the form of consumer technology which only allows people to learn what technology to consume and how to consume it. Only a new partnership in a new era of cooperation could make government and its people agree to transfer technological information which can make a difference. Thus, the main thrust of this paper is to assess the Politics of Technology Transfer and the Challenges of Development in Nigeria in the Age of Globalization. Materials for this study have been drawn mainly from secondary sources found in libraries and archives in Nigeria; academic and other resources available in the internet, local and international publications (books and learned journals). The strategy of content analysis was used to systematically analyses secondary data in view of the historical cum contemporary nature of the study. It then concludes with suggestions for possible solution.

Keywords: Politics, Development, Globalization, Technology Transfer, Nigeria.

The Second Language Influence on Foreign Language Learners' Errors: the Case of the French Language for Algerian Students learning English as a Foreign Language

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Abstract: Various researchers have concentrated on those errors which demonstrate the influence of one's native language to second language acquisition. Some would consider them as inhibitory while others pointed out that they are facilitative. The present study shed light on another sphere of interference errors that occur in tri-lingual societies. The scope of the study was narrowed to focus on the role performed by the French language in the frequency of errors made by the Algerian students in their English as Foreign Language (EFL) learning. The study adopted a contrastive approach to discover whether this role is inhibitory or facilitative. The plain task was to give students a text to translate from French to English(version A) .The students were then asked to translate the same text from Arabic to English(version B).A chart was designed to compare the frequency , the type and the degree of severity of errors in both versions of translation. The analysis of the results in the chart showed that the students made less number of errors in the version (A) translation compared with version (B).Hence, the role of the French language in The EFL learning for Algerian students seems rather facilitative.

1-Introduction:

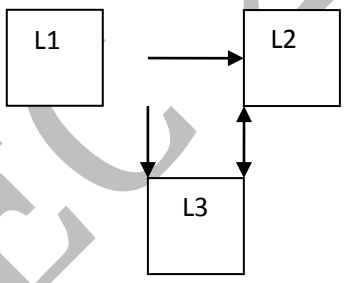
Language transfer (also known as L1 interference, linguistic interference, and cross meaning) refers to speakers or writers applying knowledge from their native language to a second language. There has been much debate upon the importance of the second language interference. Scholars still argue if this interference is beneficial for both teachers and learners or not. According to some scholars, the transfer can be positive when knowing one language can aid in developing skills for a second language. Alternatively, others claim that the transfer can be negative when understanding one language complicates the understanding of another language. The present paper will make the scope larger when it tests the learners' competence that would exceed one second language learning or what is best described as *multilingual acquisition* , i.e. "the acquisition of languages other than the first or second" (Cenoz, 1997).More precisely the study is devoted to depict the interference of both Arabic (students' mother tongue) and French(students' second language) in English (students' foreign language) in the case of Algerian EFL students .The study contrastive analysis hypothesis postulated the existence of positive transfer, resulting from similarity between languages(French and English), and negative transfer , stemming from difference between languages (Arabic and English).

2. Theoretical development of error analysis

Before tackling the practical side of the study scope we find it important to highlight some theoretical issues that have characterised the development of error analysis since the introduction of the Second Language Acquisition approach.

2.1. Acquisition of multiple languages

Chomsky brought to the fore the notion of *universal grammar* claiming that human learning in general and language acquisition in particular are explainable in terms of an innate human capacity aiding the generation of an infinite number of sentence patterns. Hence, the innate learners' rule formation capacity is resorted to in another language acquisition, i.e. the learners form hypotheses about target language rules and test them in practice. Cenoz (1997) points out that although multilingual acquisition is often considered as a variation of bilingualism and SLA, it is in fact more complex than the latter because it depends not only on the factors and processes involved in SLA but also on the interactions between the multiple languages being learned. It is upon that "bridge" of such interactions that target surface or deep structure of the multiple language influence and get influenced either by negative or positive change. Moreover, Cenoz(1997) explains that there is also more diversity and complexity in multilingual acquisition if we consider other factors such as the age when the different languages are acquired, the environment in which each of the languages is acquired, or the typological distance among the languages involved .More importantly the interactions between the L1 ,L2 and L3, which may be envisaged as a triad ,are reciprocal; whereas, those between L1 and L2, L1 and L3 are probably best visualized as unidirectional if L1 is the learner's native language because whatever influence L2 and L3 might exert on the mother tongue it might be less significant when compared to the influence of L1 on L2 and L3.



Multilingual acquisition of language

According to Cenoz (2OOO) there are at least four possibilities with L3 acquisition orders: i) the three languages are acquired one after the other (L1→L2→L3); ii) L2 and L3 are acquired simultaneously after L1 (L1→L_2/L_3); iii) L1 and L2 are acquired simultaneously before L3 (L_1/L_2→L3), and iv) the learner is in simultaneous contact with the three languages $L_1/L_2/L_3$).The present paper aims how the four orders affect the Algerian students'learning process of English as an L3.

2.2. Contrastive analysis

In the 1950s, American linguist Robert Lado began to study errors systematically and developed theories about errors via contrastive analysis. Contrastive analysis hypothesis stated that the principal barrier to second language acquisition is the interference of the first language system with the second language system and that a scientific, structural comparison of the two languages in question would enable people to predict and describe both of the

problems and the supporting aspects of the second language learning. Such theories were deeply rooted in behaviourism and structuralism and, thus; they held that human language learning was to change old habits and to build new habits. Moreover, errors occur when learners could not respond correctly to a particular stimulus in the second language. Since an error may serve as a negative stimulus which reinforces "bad habits", it should not be allowed to occur. So, in the classroom teaching, they placed more emphasis on mechanical pattern drills and attempted to correct any errors or mistakes wherever they occur.

2.3.Interlanguage and its features

Although it proved some efficiency in detecting the second language learners' errors, the contrastive analysis had some weaknesses in that it emphasises the interference of the outer environment of language study, but the language learners themselves are totally neglected. While interlanguage intended to explore learning strategies based on the learners' errors, and it has become the basis of error analysis.

What is interlanguage? The term was firstly adopted by Selinker(1972) from "interlingual". It refers to the separateness of a second language learners' system that has a structurally intermediate status between the native and target language learners. A number of terms have been coined to describe the perspective which stressed the legitimacy of learners' second language system. Corder (1971) used the term "idiosyncratic dialect" or "language learners' language". Nemser(1971) called it "approximate system". Despite labelled differently, each of these designation share the concept that second language learners are forming their own self-contained independent linguistic systems. This is neither the system of the native language nor the system of the target language, but falls between the two. In the interlanguage legitimate system the learners are no longer looked on as producers of malformed, imperfect language replete with mistakes, but as intelligent and creative beings proceeding through logical, systematic stages of acquisition creatively acting upon their linguistic environment. Another important feature is that this system is dynamic and it is based on the best attempt of learners to produce order and structure to the linguistic stimuli surrounding them. Finally, it is a linguistic system which reflects the psychological process of learning and the psychological process of foreign language learning in particular.

3. Error analysis and treatment:

In order to analyze learners' errors from a proper scope, it is crucial to make a distinction between "mistake" and "error". Errors are made when learners of L2 produce incorrect language because they do not know the correct form, while mistakes are made when learners produce incorrect language although they know the correct form. Learners can correct their own mistakes, but by definition, they cannot correct errors. According to Brown (2000), a "mistake" refers to a performance error in that it is a failure to utilize a known system correctly. While an "error" is a noticeable deviation from the adult grammar of a native speaker and that reflects the interlanguage competence of the learner. This recognition process is followed by the error description process. We compare learners' sentences with the correct sentences in target language, and find the errors. Then we come to the next step which is the stage of finding the sources of errors.

4.Categorization of learners' errors

The following perspective is an overall presentation of the main types of errors that may occur in learners' language transfer. The learners' errors can be categorized in terms of various criteria. One type of that categorization is what Corder refers to as *expressive* and *receptive errors* which are manifestations of expressive and receptive behaviour and depend upon knowledge of the "formation rules" of a language. "*Inadequate knowledge of these rules will therefore show itself in both sorts of behaviour. But it is much easier to detect imperfect knowledge in the case of expressive behaviour. Expression leaves traces transient, but recordable, in the case of speech, permanent in the case of writing*." (Corder, 1973: 261).

Generally speaking, language errors can be classified according to: a. linguistic levels (i.e., pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, and style), b. form (e.g., omission, insertion, and substitution), c. type (systematic errors/errors in competence vs. occasional errors/errors in performance), d. cause (e.g., interference, interlanguage), e. norm vs. system and f. modality (i.e., level of proficiency in speaking, writing, listening speaking).

To delve into deeper issues,three main processes interfere in the errors that EFL learners make: a. *transfer of rules* from the mother-tongue, b. *redundancy reduction* by omitting elements and c. *overgeneralization* of foreign language rules.

4.1. Transfer of rules

Language transfer (also known as L1 interference, linguistic interference, and cross meaning) refers to speakers or writers applying knowledge from their native language to a second language. It is most commonly discussed in the context of English language learning and teaching, but it can occur in any situation when someone does not have a native-level command of a language, as when translating into a second language. In transfer rules errors the EFL learners tend to use their previous mother tongue experience as a means of organising the foreign language data .Such rules deriving from existing habits prevent correct speech from being established. Transfer errors are "interlingual" since they come from the interaction between the first and second or foreign language.

4.2. Redundancy reduction

This is a tendency by EFL learners to eliminate many items or add unnecessary items, either by ignorance or intensively, which are redundant to conveying the intended message. For instance, in the case of a learner of English language as a foreign language we may meet utterances, such as: "No understand", "return back" etc. It is rather a simplified code of communication or reduced language systems used by foreign language learners especially in earlier stages of the learning process.

4.3. Overgeneralization

In the foreign language rules (and where belongs the majority of 'intralingual' errors) the learner while trying constructing rules which predict how the different items will behave, sometimes, his/her predictions are wrong, probably for one of two main reasons: *a*- an exception to the general rule or because *b*- a new category and rule must be constructed. In either case, the learner's initial error is due to overgeneralization of the rule which causes the wrong prediction. In the case of overgeneralization, it is his/her previous knowledge of the foreign language that the learner uses. Lee (1990) elaborates on the following classification of learner errors:

● *Grammatical (morphosyntactic) errors* where the stress is on the need for grammatical accuracy in both speech and writing. This may hinder communication but errors at the sentence level often reflect performance "mistakes" for which immediate teacher correction is not necessarily appropriate.

● *Discourse errors* are dependable upon the observance of the rules of speaking and writing and reflect learners' cultural and pragmatic knowledge of language use.

● *Phonologically-induced errors* are manifested in wrong pronunciation and/or intonation; in the case of English studied as a foreign language such errors necessitate timely correction on the part of the teacher because vowel length, voiced and voiceless last consonants, word stress, etc. may have a meaning-differentiating function, as in *live/leave*, *leave/leaf, import(n)* and *import(v)*, and so on.

● *Lexical errors* are linked with errors belonging to the other linguistic levels which may also hamper communication and intelligibility.

As the focus of the present paper will only tackle the linguistic issue of the language transfer, the plain task is to categorize learner errors on the basis of the linguistic levels testifying their manifestation in the different aspects of the language learning interference.

4.4. Phonological interference

Pyun (in Mehlhorn, 2007) claims that language learners' interlanguage owes phonological knowledge to L1 rules, L2 (first foreign language) rules, L3 (foreign language being studied) rules, and "interrules", the latter described as "bridges" between the already acquired languages and L3.This is manifested in speaking and reading and is usually indicated by recourse to word stress, intonation and speech sounds typical of French which influence the acquisition of English. This can clearly illustrated in the following examples :

1. The initial "h" is not pronounced, e.g.: *hemisphere* [`emisfiə] instead of [`hemisfiə], *hotel* [o`tel] instead of [həu`tel], etc. Occasionally, the non-initial [h] sound is also omitted, as in *alcohol* [`alkool]. In French, the letter "h" is always silent.

2. The "-ure" ending in polysyllabic words is pronounced as [juə], e.g.: literature [literə`tjuə] instead of [`litritʃə], again with a change of word stress. Compare, for example, with the pronunciation of the French *voiture* ("automobile, car").

Because the actual contrastive analysis of the present study will be on a written corpus we shall not depict all possible errors that are rooted to the phonological interference since such kinds of errors cannot be depicted in the learners' target written corpus after all.

4.5. Orthographic interference

This occurs at the level of writing where words' spelling are altered under the influence of French. The following examples can illustrate such alteration:

1-The addition of an extra "-e" at the end of words, e.g.: *closenesse* instead of *closeness*, *groupe* instead of *group*, *seniore* instead of *senior*, *Greeke* instead of *Greek*, etc.

2-The adoption of a French suffix such as *–ique, -eur,* and *–oire*, e.g.: *electrique* instead of *electric* .

4.6. Lexical interference

It is manifested in speaking and writing and is represented by the borrowing of French words which may or may not be converted to sound more natural in English. Francophone learners of English tend to use French words in order to fill in the existing gaps in their knowledge of English vocabulary, e.g.:*langues* instead of *languages*,*fautes* instead of *mistakes* ,*tache* instead of *task ect* ...

4.7. Grammatical interference

L2 influences L3 in terms of word order, use of pronouns and determiners, tense and mood: There are modifications to word order due to the influence of French. , most often illustrated in the placement of adjectives after nouns in noun phrases. In French, most adjectives go after the word they modify.e.g:*factor important* instead of *big factor, image clear* instead of *clear image ect*....The use of definite articles with proper nouns is a French language feature which is sometimes transferred by the francophone learners when uttering English words .e.g: *The professor Brackert teaches in Frankfurt.* Among the other kinds of grammatical interference from French to English is also the use of a different tense .e.g: *I study here for a year* or *he has left yesterday* and the wrong use of the relative pronoun .e.g: *Here is the student which you met her last week* or *the people which arrived.*

5. Method of data collection and analysis

Our study specifically is based on a survey of university students having French as their second language and studying English as a foreign language in ELT department at Chlef University preparing their first year of Master Degree. The method was simple in that we gave a short passage of about 100 words to 25 students to translate first from French into English; we called that version(A) ,then we asked them to translate the same passage from Arabic to French and we referred to it as version (B).the target students were chosen at random as that we aimed to test their abilities in translation for a short text that dealt mainly with the concept of “bilingualism”; a linguistic issue that would both raise their interest and match appropriately the scope of the study . As we have focused on the written form of the language, we have not dealt with the spoken language e.g. pronunciation, intonation word stress, sentence stress ect... and we wish to target this case in other studies. After that the handouts were collected, we started sorting out errors committed by the students in both versions as it is clarified in the two tables below:

Language Features	Sample transfer error in English	Frequency of errors
ARTICLES • Definite article used for generalization.	• …that rely on the representations of *the* individuals…	(2 times)
NOUNS, PRONOUNS, ADJECTIVES, ADVERBS • The wrong noun • Wrong affixation • Wrong adjective • Wrong adverb • Redundancy	• …built on representations of the *persons… Billinguality* additive • ...in order to develope *axtra knowledgement*.....in Educational powerful *programmation*..... • ....Studies that shows that is *necessare* to impose.... Billinguality *additive* • *even* the conditions does not encourage,the progress of ... • *...the representations* of individuals....	(2times) (3 times) (1 time) (4 times) (1time)
SENTENCE FORM , WORD ORDER • Wrong placement of adjectives	• …Studies that seem necessary to make *available* to the education… ...so-called competence *additive* bilingualism.... ...in Educational *powerful* programmation....	(3 times)
VERBS , TENSES • Wrong verb agreement • No-ing (gerund)	• …can pave the path to the success of all tasks which *has*.. • …who are capable *to use* two languages…. .	(4 times) (2 times)

Language Transfer Errors from French into English (version A) Table 1:

Language Features	Sample transfer error in English	The frequency of errors
ARTICLES • No definite article with definite items. • Definite article with words that carry general meanings	• … Arabic/French bilinguism is not … • …Which aims to form *the* bilingual people who…	(6 times) (4 times)
VERBS AND AUXILIARIES • Be is omitted. • Wrong verb endings/subject-verb agreement • Placing the verb at the end of the sentence	• ...but also a case study that necessary... • …large investigation that *go* beyond this competence….. …. The progress of bilingual individuals *allow* individuals..... ....the conditions *does* not..... .....Studies that *shows*..... • ....that can make any task for language learning *succeed*.....	(3 times) (5 times) (4 times)
WORD ORDER AND SENTENCE STRUCTURE • Adjective placement • Redundancy	• ... to impose this in *Educational powerful* programmation.... ....develope competence called Billinguality *additive*..... Studies that seem necessary to make *available* to the education sector….. • ....develop the efficiency of the language known *as double or Bilingual* .	(4 times) (3 times)
NOUNS, PRONOUNS, ADJECTIVES, ADVERBS. • Adjective restatement • Mis-use of the possessive case Using an adjective instead of an adverb • Wrong placement of adverbs • Wrong word • Wrong noun	• ...Even if *all* the conditions needed are not *all* there.... • …its impact on Algerian*'s* personality… from the simple notion to *her* effectness on the Algerians personalities ….. • ...,but also a case study that *necessary* requires.... • …the current trend aims to…,*also* it aims to develop….. • ...The existing *tend* in Algeria aiming…. • *The programmation*.....	(6 times) (4 times) (1 time) (3 times) (1 time) (1 time)

Table 2: Language Transfer Errors from Arabic into English (version B)

It is worth mentioning that we relied on the *Language Guide to Transfer Errors* (Wigan Council) that covers more than twenty languages, including Arabic and French common errors depicted in EFL learners, in sorting out the different students' errors.

The error analysis in both language transfers shows that the students made more errors in the second version of translation (from Arabic into English) than the first one (from French into English).This could be attributed to the similarity of the morpho-syntactic features that both of the French and English language share. Historically speaking, French and English do not belong to the same origin. The former is part of the Romance subgroup of Indo-European languages, whereas the latter belongs to the Germanic branch. Since the two languages have been in contact at different stages of their development and for quite long periods of time, the origin of over 70% of the English vocabulary can be traced back to French and Latin, the ancestor of all Italic languages. . At first glance, this simple historical fact suggests that the students are not likely to encounter such difficulties in studying English as a foreign language. This is, however, a superficial idea because it turns out that similarities between languages may actually constitute differences in disguise. . In other words, similarity of form does not always presuppose similarity of function. In fact, students still face some difficulties in being more accurate in their English language usage. For instance, lexically speaking, they tend to use French words in order to fill in the existing gaps in their knowledge of English vocabulary (lexical interference)e.g:*necessaire* instead of *necessary*.Furherrmore,an error like *programmation* is due a language interference which has a direct relation with one of the French language own way of forming noun by adding the *ation/tion* suffix to the end of some word roots.Concerning grammatical interference, There are modifications to word order attributable to the influence of French, most often illustrated in the placement of adjectives after nouns in noun phrases.e.g: *competence additive* .In French, most adjectives go after the word they modify. Such word order is not typical of English where the adjective often precedes the noun. Concerning word order at the sentence level, the students tend to place the verb before the subject English where the word order is fixed and follows the *subject/verb/object* pattern. With regard to the second version of translation (from Arabic into English), there has been depicted also some features of language interference errors such as using the wrong possessive case in expressions like *its impact on Algerian's personality… from the simple notion to her effectness….* . The use of the pronoun "her" in such a statement is attributed to a sort of Arabic language interference where such pronoun can refer both to the feminine and the neuter gender. Starting the sentence clause with the adverb *even* instead of the conjunction *eventhough* to start a concession or contrast sentence is much attributable to the Arabic language interference.

As part of the teaching role, it is fundamental for the EFL teacher to look for the most efficient ways to bring feedback and correction the students' mistakes and errors. However, the teacher should know when to interfere for such correction. First, we are confronted with a

dilemma—fluency versus accuracy. If the purpose is mainly communicative, it is advisable to delay correction. Some teachers believe that the correction is determined by the type of errors committed. For instance, if they are pronunciation or grammatical errors, immediate correction is preferable, for post-correction cannot make learners remember anything. When the whole class is familiar with a word, but only one of them is singled out for being corrected, he or she would feel awkward. So, we can see that when to correct is very complicated. Both of the teachers' intuition and the feedback from the students are equally important. Furthermore, the EFL teacher should know how to correct the students' committed mistakes in a tactful way. According to James (1998), it is sensible to follow the three principles in error correction. Firstly, the techniques involved in error correction would be able to enhance the students' accuracy in expression. Secondly, the students' affective factors should be taken into consideration and the correction should not be face-threatening to the students. Lastly, the class manager should be aware of the type of errors that need urgent and immediate correction. Burt (1975) made a distinction between "global" and "local" errors. Global errors hinder communication and they prevent the learner from comprehending some aspects of the message. Local errors only affect a single element of a sentence, but do not prevent a message from being heard. Thus, the teacher's focus should be much on the correction of global errors.

Conclusion

Despite the limitations of the of the study namely the contrastive analysis in depicting all L2 and EFL learners errors since it focuses only on the outside environment of the learners and neglects the language learners themselves ,the focus on learner errors is nevertheless useful to language teachers as a means of enhancing teaching methodology. An awareness of the types of errors learners tend to commit is necessary for language teachers so that they are able to properly and timely correct inappropriate and unacceptable utterances. Concerning Algerian learners of English as a second foreign language, it must be noted that even if orthographic interference is successfully dealt with, by means of dictations or plenty of written assignments, phonologically-induced interference and lexical interference postulate graver problems to the teacher compared with that of the French language. Thus, the teacher should be skillful in managing the correction of the learners' errors. In other words, he or she should know exactly what errors should be corrected, when to correct errors and how to correct them.

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Thoughts on Bourdieu and Marx's Social Capital and Open Distance Learning

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Abstract:

This paper explores the use of the concept "social capital" as theoretical lens in understanding Open Distance Learning (ODL) from a Bourdieusian and Marxian perspective. It departs from the supposition that concepts of social capital and ODL are intimately connected. In this paper, I problematise social capital in the ODL context; and argue that the dynamics of social capital in ODL are not only influencing students but are also capable of changing the structure of educational outcomes, high throughput rate and social reproduction. This paper invokes Bourdieu and Marx's social capital in the search for answers to a broadening range of questions being confronted in the ODL field, more specifically on the challenges and politics of access. Among others, it sketches Bourdieu's social capital as ontology, truth and method; presents social capital as a power relation construct; and critiques ODL through of social capital.

SAKARYA
University
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Qatar

Rola koubeissy, University of Montreal Cecilia Borges, University of Montreal Annie Malo, University of Montreal

Title of the presentation: Teaching practices to support immigrant students in language acquisition

Abstract

In the last years, many children immigrate with their parents to Quebec in Canada. Many of these new little arrivals commenced their struggle for adaptation in a multiethnic context of a primary classroom in Quebec, where French is the prime language of instruction. Unfortunately, most of these new students have no or little French language capabilities causing them substantial academic challenges. This presentation highlights the results of a qualitative research regarding teaching practices to support new immigrant students to integrate in their regular classes. The Cultural Historical Approach as an analytical framework allows to study the interactions between the students and their teachers. Additionally, it discusses the tools introduced by the teacher during the continuing support process. The findings show that the teacher refers to intercultural education to support an immigrant student in writing tasks in French. The teacher employs multicultural tools such as the student's first language to assist him in writing texts in French.

TV Shows as Sources of Authentic Language Input And SLA in Informal Settings

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Second language acquisition cannot take place without having exposure to language input. With regard to this, the present research aimed at providing empirical evidence about the low and the upper-intermediate language learners' preferred type of audiovisual programs and language proficiency development outside the classroom. To this end, 60 language learners (30 low level and 30 upper-intermediate level) were asked to have exposure to their preferred types of audiovisual program(s) outside the classroom and keep a diary of the amount and the type of exposure. The obtained data indicated that the low level participants preferred cartoons and the upper-intermediate participants preferred news more. To find out which language proficiency level could improve its language proficiency significantly, a post-test was administered. The results indicated that only the upper-intermediate language learners gained significant improvement. Based on the findings, the quality of the language input should be given priority over the amount of exposure.

Key words: TV shows, Authentic language input, Exposure, Second language acquisition,

Introduction

The growth of the application of technology and its rapid development in transforming the process of learning is unbelievable (Mayya, 2007). There are many internal as well as external factors which influence SLA. Among them, the language input that learners receive in SLA is one of the external factors which plays a fundamental role. However, while the important role of language input in SLA has been advocated by various language learning theories, there has been a controversy in the field of language acquisition between those theories that attribute a small or no role to language input and those attributing it a more important role (Ellis, 2008).

Language input has also been considered to be a major source of data for language learners to construct their competence or mental representation of the language (Patten & Benati, 2010). Indeed, language acquisition process is dependent upon the availability of appropriate input. Considering the fact that some sort of language input is necessary to acquire the language in-and-outside the classroom, various audiovisual programs have the potential to be utilized as sources of authentic language input for SLA.

Taylor (1994) defined authentic language material as any material in English which has not been specifically produced for the purpose of language teaching. Similarly, Nunan (1999) defined authentic language materials as spoken or written language material that has been produced in the course of real communication and not specifically produced for the very purpose of language teaching.

In the last few years, various audiovisual technologies have dominated the world by massive developments in providing language learners/teachers with sources of authentic language input for SLA. Indeed, audiovisual technologies have provided many possibilities for teachers to construct activities for language learners. Accordingly, language learners can have access to various authentic language input through different technologies such as computers, TV, and CDs/DVDs for language learning particularly outside the classroom settings. In the same line, the integration of different audiovisual programs such as news, films, comedy, cartoons, and songs as sources of authentic language input into language learning has attracted the attention of many researchers.

In view of the above, the present research aims at findings out the relationship between greater exposure to a particular type of audiovisual program and language proficiency development in informal settings.

Review of the related literature

In the 90s, the possibility of using audiovisual news reports as language input for lower proficiency level language learners has been scrutinized by Mackenzie (1997). Without providing empirical evidence, Mackenzie (1997) rejected the idea that because the newscasters speak very fast, the content is very multifaceted, and the vocabulary is very difficult, audiovisual news cannot be integrated into low levels of language learning situations. In contrast, with the careful selection of audiovisual news items and applying some simple techniques such as selecting the content of the news reports based on the language learners' interest and background knowledge, news reports can be used even at elementary or intermediate levels (Mackenzie, 1997).

More recently, Bahrani and Tam (2011) conducted an experimental research to gauge the effectiveness of exposure to audiovisual news broadcasts materials and non-news materials on improving the speaking proficiency of intermediate language learners. The research was carried out with 60 intermediate language learners who were assigned to two groups. During the experiment, the participants in the first group were exposed to authentic materials from audiovisual news while the second group participants were exposed to non-news materials. The findings indicated that exposure to audiovisual news promotes intermediate language learners' speaking proficiency more than exposure to non-news materials. According to Bahrani and Tam (2011), the intermediate participants showed their enthusiasm in the creative use of various vocabularies, sentences, and structures in talking about the topics during the interviews (speaking test) in the post-test.

In short, the review of the literature on the use of audiovisual news as a source of authentic language input for SLA reveals that most of the studies were descriptive and examined the pedagogical value, the possibility of using news at all levels of language learning, and the selection criteria without empirical evidence.

Movies have been also regarded as an important source of language learning for language instructors because it is an authentic source of material (Kaiser, 2011). In fact, movies provide language learners with oppourtunities of exposure to the real language uttered in authentic settings (Stempleski, 1992). The spoken language of movies often includes various types of speeches such as the speeches of various educational levels, the speeches of children and non-native speakers, slang and jargon, rural and urban speeches, and a range of regional dialects that language learners will encounter in the target language country (Kaiser, 2011). However, the review of the quantitative studies regarding the incorporation of movies as a source of authentic language input for language learning is limited.

Cartoons as authentic language materials have also been considered as excellent teaching tools because they not only add humor to a topic but also illustrate the idea in a memorable way. In an anecdotal study conducted by Clark (2000), it was highlighted that cartoons can engage the attention of the learners and present information in a non-threatening atmosphere. Besides, cartoons have the potential to reinforce thinking processes and discussion skills (Clark, 2000). Another study was carried out by Doring (2002) focusing on the effect of exposure to cartoons on language learning. The results of the study revealed that the language learners who had exposure to cartoons could produce oral answers that were very proactive and interesting in different discussions held in the classes. Moreover, the discussions were rich and the students had high confidence. It seems that the high confidence that the language learners acquire is due to exposure to cartoons which create low affective filter atmosphere for learning.

Rule and Ague (2005) conducted a study providing evidence of the students' preferences to use cartoons in language learning. Accordingly, cartoons are preferred because they create a high degree of motivation to recognize and produce humor for the students, enhance the memory, and make connection between the new materials and the prior knowledge through analogy. However, Rule and Ague (2005) did not go further to provide empirical evidence on the effect of exposure to cartoons on language development.

A review of the related literature in the area of the incorporation of various songs as another type of authentic material in language teaching provides limited empirical evidence. Schoepp (2001) anecdotally proposed songs in foreign language classrooms to lower anxiety and increase motivation, provide physiological benefits, guide lesson planning and practical classroom, and enhance cultural awareness and sensitivity.

In short, wide arrays of audiovisual programs are available as authentic sources of language input for SLA in EFL and ESL contexts. However, the related studies are mostly anecdotal. The quantitative studies have also been mostly investigated the formal language learning setting. Indeed, informal language learning setting which has a great potential for SLA has not been investigated. More importantly, language learners' exposure to their preferred type of audiovisual program and language proficiency development has not been investigated.

Research questions

The present research was set to answer the following questions:

1. What type of audiovisual program is watched most by the low/upper-intermediate level language learners in informal settings?

2. What is the correlation between the low level language learners' amount of exposure to the most viewed audiovisual program and their language proficiency development (if any improvement is gained)?

3. For the upper-intermediate level language learners', what is the correlation between the amount of exposure to the most viewed type of audiovisual program and their language proficiency development (if any improvement is gained)?

Methodology

Participants

Initially, 134 language learners aged from 21 to 26 majoring in Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL) including both males and females from Malaysia went through the research voluntarily. Then, a smaller population of 60 participants was selected based on a sample International English Language Testing System (IELTS) pre-test. The 60 selected participants were divided into low level (N=30) and upper-intermediate level (N=30) based on the scores which they obtained in the pre-test.

Instruments

The two instruments that were utilized in order to accumulate the necessary data for the present research were a set of two parallel IELTS language proficiency tests and a self-report sheet. Prior to the main data collection, the sample IELTS language proficiency tests were verified to be parallel to ensure the internal validity of the findings. Both tests were also verified in terms of reliability.

To obtain quantitative data on the type and the amount of the low and the upper-intermediate participants' most preferred type of audiovisual program in informal settings, a self-report sheet consisting of news, films, cartoons, songs, documentary films, series, game shows, talk shows, speeches, and sport programs as 10 different types of audiovisual programs was prepared and given to the 60 selected participants after the pre-test. The validity of the self-report sheet was also verified through a pilot study.

Procedure

The present research employed quantitative method and pre-post tests design. The first step to take before the study was carried out was to verify that the two sample IELTS language proficiency tests were parallel to assure the internal validity of the data obtained from pre-post tests. Parallel tests are two tests of the same ability that have the almost the same means and variances when administered to the same group following a short interval (Bachman, 1990).

Accordingly, both sample IELTS language proficiency tests were administered to 20 trial language learners majoring in TESL with a short interval (one week). Then, the means and the variances of both tests were calculated separately (Table 1).

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics related to the administration of the two tests to the same group

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
First Test	20	4.00	7.00	5.433	0.673	0.424
Second Test	20	4.00	7.00	5.254	0.745	0.502

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The statistical analysis of the data obtained from the administration of both tests to the 20 participants showed that the means and the variances of both tests were almost the same which indicated that the two sample IELTS tests were parallel. Moreover, the reliability coefficient of the two tests was calculated as 0.943 using the Cronbach's Alpha formula.

The second instrument to be verified was the self-report sheet. To this end, all the 20 trial language learners were asked to have exposure to various audiovisual programs outside the classroom setting for one week and report their preferred type and amount of exposure to various programs by filling out the self-report sheet. In relation to the format and entries, the researchers asked the participants to report any possible difficulty or problem they might face while filling out the self-report sheet. The input extracted from the analysis of the participants' self-report sheets indicated that it could be used for collecting the necessary data to answer research questions one.

After verifying the instruments, the actual data collection started with the selection of the participants. To do so, one of the parallel IELTS language proficiency tests was given to a population of 134 language learners including both males and females majoring in TESL to select 60 participants initially. Then, 30 participants who obtained 4 or 4.5 out of 9 in the overall band score were selected as low level and 30 participants who obtained 6 or 6.5 out of 9 in the overall band score were selected as upper-intermediate level. The selection criteria were based on the IELTS band score categories.

Following the selection of the participants, the participants of both proficiency levels were asked to have exposure to their preferred audiovisual programs outside the classroom (for eight weeks) and keep a diary of the type and the amount of the program(s) they watch. At the end of the study, the second IELTS test was administered to all the participants. The data obtained from the pre-post tests and the self-report sheets provided answers research questions two and three.

Results

In order to provide answers to the research questions, the data obtained from the pre-post tests and the self-report sheets were analyzed and tabulated using SPSS.19 statistical analysis software.

Research questions 1

In relation to the first research question about the low level language learners' most preferred type of audiovisual program, a one way repeated measure ANOVA was conducted to assess whether there were significant differences between the mean amounts of exposure to each type of audiovisual programs in the low proficiency level. The results indicated a significant main effect of program. $F (2.840, 68.160) = 199.974$, $P<0.001$, partial $\eta 2=0.893$ which was a great effect size. This indicated that the mean amounts of exposure to various types of audiovisual programs were not equal (Table 2). Accordingly, low level language learners preferred cartoons more than other types of programs.

Table 2: Low level language learners' total amount of exposure to each program during the period of the study

Type of program	*News*	*Films*	*Documentary films*	*Songs*	*Talk shows*	*Game show*	*Sport programs*	*Series*	*Speeches*	*Cartoons*
Amount	6450	9485	2350	3462	260	346	650	1750	238	**18038**

(minutes)										

Low level	*N*	*MEAN*	*SD*	*t-test*
Pretest	***30***	***4.09***	***.53***	***_0.25***
Posttest	***30***	***4.28***	***.46***	p>0.05

With regard to the intermediate level participants, a one way repeated measure ANOVA was also conducted to assess whether there were significant differences between the mean amounts of exposure to each type of audiovisual program in intermediate proficiency level. The results indicated a significant main effect of program. F (3.142, 43.201) = 185.205, P<0.001, partial η2=0.749 which was a great effect size. The results indicated that the mean amounts of exposure to various types of audiovisual programs were not equal (Table 3). As a result, the intermediate level language learners preferred various news programs more than other types of audiovisual programs.

Table 3: Upper-intermediate level participant' total amount of exposure to each program during the period of the study

Research questions 2 and 3

To answer the second and the third research questions and find out the relationship between the low/upper-

Type of program	*News*	*Films*	*Documentary films*	*Songs*	*Talk shows*	*Game shows*	*Sport programs*	*Series*	*Speeches*	*Cartoons*
Amount (minutes)	**16685**	8548	1380	3580	220	120	550	870	1180	4805

intermediate level language learners' amount of exposure to cartoons/news and their language proficiency development, the data obtained from the administration of the pre-post tests to the low/upper-intermediate level language learners was first analyzed by means of a paired sample t-test to find out whether the participants in each proficiency level could improve their language proficiency. Then the correlation between the low/upper-intermediate level language proficiency improvement and the amount of exposure to cartoons/news was calculated separately by the means of correlation coefficient.

In relation to the raw scores obtained from the pre-post tests by the participants in the low level group, there was a minor increase in the mean score in the post-test. A paired sample t-test was conducted to find out the significance of the improvement. According to the results of the paired sample t-test (Table 4), the value of the t-observed was not statistically significant (p>0.05).

Table 4: Descriptive statistics related to the low level participants IELTS pretest and posttest results

Considering the second research question, the correlation coefficient between the amount of exposure to cartoons and the low level participants' language proficiency improvement was low and not significant (r=0.122, p=0.906).

In relation to the scores obtained from the pre-post tests by the participants in the upper-intermediate level, there was a bigger increase in the mean score in the post-test compared to that of the low level. To find out whether the increase in the mean score was significant, a statistical analysis of a paired sample t-test was conducted. The analysis of the paired sample t-test (Table 5) showed that the t-observed was statistically significant (p<0.05) which was indicative of the fact that the increase in the mean score was significant enough to lead to significant language proficiency improvement.

Table 5: Descriptive statistics related to the upper-intermediate level participants IELTS pretest and posttest results

Intermediate level	***N***	***MEAN***	***SD***	***t-test***
Pretest	***30***	***5.53***	***.50***	***_3.20***
Posttest	***30***	***6.25***	***.46***	(p<0.05)

The amount of exposure to news broadcast significantly correlated with the upper-intermediate level significant language proficiency improvement (r=0.429, p=0.002).

Discussion

While comparing the amount of exposure of the low and the upper-intermediate levels participants' to their preferred type of program, it is found that the low level language learners' total amount of exposure to cartoons as their preferred program was 18038 minutes and upper-intermediate level language learners' total amount of exposure to news as their preferred program was 16685 minutes. However, regardless of the greater amount of exposure, the low level language learners' language proficiency improvement was not significant. It can be hypothesized that merely greater amount of exposure to various sources of authentic language input may not contribute a lot to SLA.

The reason behind the difference in the language proficiency development of both proficiency levels may be due to the quality of the language input embedded in the type of audiovisual programs rather than the quantity. Although both cartoons and news programs are pedagogically valuable authentic language materials which have the potential to be used as sources of authentic language input, the type of language input embedded in cartoons may be, to the most extent, modified or simplified to ease comprehension. In contrast, authentic audiovisual news consists of more unmodified type of language input than modified one.

While comprehending modified or simplified language input is easier and requires less cognitive processing because of the type of data which is presented in a way to facilitate comprehension, it may not contribute a lot to SLA. In contrast, although the language input embedded in the type of unmodified input such as news requires much more input processing for comprehension, it may contribute much more to SLA than modified input.

The fact that the low level language learners of the present research showed greater interest in viewing cartoons more than other types of programs can be supported by what Rule and Ague (2005) put forth regarding the high degree of motivation which is created through viewing cartoons as a type of authentic material in non-threatening atmosphere. In the same line, the low level participants of the present research might have watched cartoons more because they might have had very few problems comprehending the language of cartoons. However, the problem with this type of simplified or modified input may be that it may not include those linguistic aspects which the low level language learners need to acquire to enhance their language proficiency and go to a higher level of proficiency in short term. As Gass (1997) put forth, simplified input is created on the assumption to facilitate comprehension rather than causing acquisition.

In contrast to cartoons, audiovisual news broadcasts include more unmodified input, a type of authentic language input which is not simplified or modified for the sake of comprehension. While having exposure to unmodified input rather than modified one, language learners may experience more difficulty comprehending some parts of the input. However, language learners benefit may more from unmodified input because it includes much more linguistics aspects which they had not acquired. Comprehending the new linguistic aspects embedded in unmodified input require much more input processing effort which can enhance language proficiency. This is supported by White's (1987) incomprehensible input hypothesis.

In her incomprehensible input hypothesis, White (1987) underscored the point that when language learners come across language input that is incomprehensible because, for example, their inter-language rules cannot analyze a particular second language structure, they have to modify those inter-language rules to understand the structure. In this way, the incomprehensible input enhances the process of SLA.

Conclusion

It is without a doubt that in any form of language acquisition input is essential to the success. Although a lot has been written on the role and importance of input in second language acquisition, limited studies have provided empirical data on the source and the type of language input. Considering this point and with the impressive developments in technology and the accessibility of different audiovisual programs which can provide authentic language input, the present paper aimed at providing further empirical support on low and intermediate language learners' preferred type of audiovisual programs as authentic sources of language input and language proficiency enhancement.

Accordingly, it was found out that while the low level language learners' preferred type of audiovisual program was cartoons, intermediate language learners preferred news more among other types of programs. The results of the study were indicative of the fact that the low level language learners' amount of exposure to cartoons was more than intermediate level language learners' amount of exposure to news. However, the higher quantity of exposure to cartoons as a preferred source of authentic language input did not cause more improvement in language proficiency of low level language learners. This was indicative of the fact that the quality of the type of exposure contributes more to the language proficiency enhancement than the quantity of the language input.

In a nutshell, the results of the study may be important to language teachers, practitioners, and institutions for investment in audiovisual technologies for language learning by exposing the language learners more than before to the most effective types of authentic audiovisual materials.

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Uzaktan Eğitimde Bulut Bilişim Alt Yapısının Kullanımı: Hitit Üniversitesi Örneği

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Abstract: IT investments until the last 5 years, the supply of local hardware and software products, was based on setup and management principles. This approach to IT return of the success rates and cost figures have begun to show that this is not a successful scenario. In recent years, server virtualization, which of the two approaches that can eliminate these problems and cloud computing (cloud computing) concepts are already marked. The number of web-based applications and services along with broadband internet development is increasing day by day. Web-based presentation of this application and in terms of service and access methods, cloud computing is a superior technology with each passing day increases the effectiveness and intensity of use. Distance education is an indispensable advantages in terms of teaching methods. These two concepts are formed by combining a much more efficient system. Hittite, which starts on new investments and developments such as the University of the university as a result of a subsequent effort to combine these two technologies have emerged Huzem-cloud approach. In this study, Huzem and cloud systems will be discussed during the assembly process Huzem-Cloud architecture combining into a single structure. For this purpose, distance education for every student connected to 20 GB worth of storage space with a circuit providing control input received with LDAP authentication system is built on a structure that was created in the virtual classroom.

Key words: Distance Education, Cloud, Authentication.

1. Giriş

Türkiye ‘de üniversiteler, her yıl milyonlarca lira değerinde kaynağı ve işgücünü sunucu temini ve yönetimine ayırmaktadır. Buna rağmen insan kaynakları, finans, ders yönetimi ve uzaktan eğitim gibi modüller halen eski ve/veya elle yapılan sistemlerle yürütülmektedir. Çoğu üniversite özellikle donanım kaynaklarını değişen kapasiteye göre ayarlamakta zorlanıyor ve yeni kurulan üniversite her şeye aşağı yukarı sıfırdan başlamakla karşı karşıya kalmaktadır.

Yaşamımızın hemen her alanına girmiş bulunan bilişim teknolojilerinin, hem günlük işlerimizi hem de iş ve eğitim faaliyetlerimizi gerçekleştirmedeki desteği yadsınamayacak derecede önemli bir role sahiptir. Bilginin yayılma hızının artması, bilgiye ulaşımın kolaylaşması, bilgi ve iletişim teknolojilerinin hızlı gelişimi, eğitim ve öğrenme ihtiyaçlarını farklılaştırmakta ve alternatif modeller oluşturmaktadır. Son zamanlarda adını sıkça duymaya başladığımız yenilikçi teknolojilerden biri olan Bulut Teknolojisi (Cloud Computing) de bilişim teknolojileri sektöründe yenilikçi servisler oluşturmaktadır (Armbrust ve diğ., 2010).

Günümüzde bulut bilişimin sağladığı avantajlardan dolayı, bu teknolojinin önemi ve kullanımı hızla artmaktadır. Kullanıcıların beklentilerine ve ihtiyaçlarına en kısa sürede ve istenilen ölçüde cevap vermeyi hedefleyen bulut teknolojisi; iletişim, haberleşme, eğitim gibi hızla büyüyen alanlarda farklı alternatifler sunmaktadır.

Bulut teknolojisinin, son zamanlarda popüler olmaya başlaması sebebiyle, eğitim alanında da yapılan uygulamalar giderek artmaktadır. 2008 yılında faaliyete geçen Open Cirrus projesi, araştırmacıların, bulut bilişim altyapısı üzerinde, çalışmalarını yürütmelerine imkân sağlayan bir sınama ortamıdır (Campbell, 2010). HP, Intel, Yahoo gibi kuruluşların destek ve işbirliği ile hayata geçirilen Open Cirrus, dünya üzerinde farklı coğrafik konumlarda yer alan veri merkezleri ile hizmet vermektedir. Open Cirrus, yapılan araştırmaları teşvik etmek ve çalışmalara güç katmak, araştırmacılar arasında deneyim ve bilgi paylaşımını sağlamak, ortak çalışmalara zemin hazırlamak, araştırma ve geliştirme süreçlerine hız kazandırmak amacındadır.

2. Kavramsal Çerçeve

2.1. Bulut Bilişim

Bulut Bilişim, ortak kullanılan kaynaklar üzerinde, ihtiyaca göre ölçeklenebilen, anında kullanıma hazır,

kaynak ataması ve yönetimi kolay yapılabilen BHT-Bilişim ve Haberleşme Teknolojileri servisleri olarak tanımlanabilir.

Armutlu ve Akçay 'a (2013) göre, çeşitli bilişim uygulama ve servislerinin, internetteki bir sunucuda bulunup, internete bağlı herhangi bir cihaz ile bu uygulama ve servislerin çalıştırılması olarak tanımlanan "Bulut Teknolojisi", ortak kullanılan kaynaklar üzerinde, ihtiyaca göre ölçeklenebilen, anında kullanıma hazır, kaynak ataması ve yönetimi kolay yapılabilen bilgi ve iletişim servisleri şeklinde de ifade edilebilir (Akt. Sarıtaş ve Üner, 2013).

Bulut platformları; hemen her türlü elektronik cihazın bağlanabildiği, Web servisleri üzerinden donanım ve yazılım gibi mevcut BHT kaynaklarının dinamik olarak paylaştırılabildiği ve ölçek ekonomisinin avantajları ile yaygın hizmet sunan servis sağlayıcılardan oluşan İnternet ortamını ifade eder (Yapıcı, 2010).

Bulut Bilişim, düzenli ve ölçeklenebilir bilişim teknolojilerinin sağladığı olanakların dağıtıldığı ve gerçek bir zamanda İnternet teknolojilerini kullanarak bir servis olarak tüketildiği bir çeşit programlamadır. Bulut servisleri, sadece İnternet ya da ağı kullanmaktan çok, birisi İnternet'teki ya da ağdaki servisin ya da kaynağın dağıtımı için sorumluluk aldığında var olur. Üç çeşit bulut servisi vardır:

- Müşteri İlişkileri Yönetimi gibi iş uygulamalarını içeren bulut uygulamaları, ağda konferans bağlantısı ve e-posta gibi iş birliği araçları.
- Uygulama geliştirme servisleri, aracı yazılım, bilgi girişi, birleşme ve süreç otomasyonunu içeren bulut platformları.
- Sistem ve ağ kontrol yazılımı, güvenlik yazılımı, aynı zamanda yürütme ve depolama servislerini içeren bulut altyapısı.

2.1.1. Bulut Servis Modelleri

Aşağıda kısaca anlatılmaya çalışılan 4 bulut servis modelinden bahsedilmektedir (Şanlı, 2011).

1. **SaaS – Bulut yazılımı:** Servisi sağlayanın yazılımı bulut altyapısı üzerinde çalışır ve tüketicideki çeşitli cihazlardan web tarayıcısı gibi thin client ara yüzüyle ulaşılır. Tüketici sadece kullanıcıya özel yazılımın yapısal ayarlarını sınırlı olarak değiştirebilir.
2. **PaaS – Bulut Platformu:** Tüketici servis sağlayıcı tarafından sunulan yazılım dilleri ve araçlarını kullanarak bulut altyapısı üzerinde kendi yazılımlarını geliştirebilir ve sadece kendi geliştirdiği yazılımlara ve yazılımın barındırılması için gerekli çevre birimleri üzerinde kontrol ve yönetime sahiptir.
3. **IaaS – Bulut alt yapısı:** Tüketiciye depolama, ağ ve diğer ana bilgisayar kaynaklarına erişmesi ve işletim sistemi dahil yazılımları geliştirip çalıştırabilmesi sağlanır. Tüketicinin bulut altyapısı üzerinde yine yönetim ve kontrolü yoktur, ama işletim sistemi, depolama, kullanılan yazılımlar üzerinde yönetim ve kontrole sahiptir ve firewall, yük eşleyiciler gibi ağ parçalarını seçme hakkı vardır.
4. **Cloud as a service – Servis olarak Bulut:** Tüketiciye ticari ürünler, servisler ve çözümler internet üzerinden gerçek zamanda sağlanır.

2.1.2. Bulut Yayılma Modelleri

Private Cloud - Özel Bulut: firmanın kendi oluşturduğu ya da kiraladığı buluttur. Bulut altyapısı yalnızca firma için çalışır, firmanın kendisi tarafından ya da 3.cü parti tarafından yönetilir.

Community Cloud - Topluluk Bulutu: Belirli bir toplulukla paylaşılan buluttur. Bulut altyapısı birkaç organizasyon ya da firma tarafından paylaşılır, böylece aynı amacı paylaşan, aynı güvenlik gereksinimleri olan, aynı tarzda idare edilen organizasyonlar, firmalar desteklenir. Organizasyon, firma ya da 3.cü parti tarafından yönetilir.

Public Cloud - Herkese Açık – Kamu Bulutu: Kamuya satılmış mega-ölçekte altyapıdır. Bulut altyapısı herkese ya da büyük endüstri gurubuna açıktır ve bulut servisini veren bulutun sahibidir. Servisi veren yazılım ve saklama-storage gibi kaynakları sağlar ve internet üzerinden halkın erişimine açar. Herkese açık buluta örnek; Amazon Elastic Compute Cloud (EC2), IBM'in BlueCloud‟u, Sun Cloud, Google‟ın AppEngine‟i ve Windows Azure Servis Platformu verilebilir.

Hybrid Cloud - Karma Bulut: iki veya daha fazla bulut modelinin kompozisyonudur. Bulutlar kendi özelliklerini kaybetmeden yazılımın ve verinin taşınmasına izin verecek şekilde standardize edilmiş ya da özel teknoloji ile bağlanmıştır.

2.2. Uzaktan Eğitim

Dünyada 3. kuşak üniversitelerin yeniden yapılanma sürecinde öğrenme ve öğrenci merkezli eğitim

anlayışı öne çıkmakta üniversitelerin eğitim ve araştırma işlevlerine ek olarak yenilikçilik ve girişimcilik işlevlerinin de kazandırılması amaçlanmaktadır. Günümüzde internet teknolojilerinin hızla gelişimi ve kullanımlarının giderek artması bilgiye ulaşma, paylaşma ve yayma konusunda önemli destekleri olabilmektedir. Bu teknolojiler bilgi toplumuna giden yolda çok önemli rol oynamakta ve toplumsal dönüşümü sağlamaktadır. Türkiye'nin eğitim ve okullaşmada gelişmiş toplumların uzağında kalmaması için eğitim seviyesinin yükseltilmesi gerektiği her zaman söylenmesine rağmen bunun gerçekleştirilmesi konusunda hızlı hareket edilmemektedir. En büyük eğitim kaybının orta öğretimden yükseköğretime geçişte olduğu görülmektedir ve bu kayıp %78 oranında büyük bir orandır. İşte internet teknolojilerinin eğitimde de yer alması bu açığı kapatabilmek için önemli bir fırsat olarak görülebilir. Aynı zamanda genç nüfusumuzun eğitilmeye gereksinimi, çalışan kesimin eğitimlerine devamının sağlanabilmesi, yerleşim yeri olarak eğitim kurumlarından uzaklıkları dikkate alındığında uzaktan eğitim kaçınılmaz görülmektedir. Geleceğin okulu mekândan bağımsız uzaktan eğitim teknolojileri ile yapılabilen okullara dönüşecektir. Sanal eğitim ortamlarına yönelmek, gelişmiş ülkelerle olan eğitim düzeyi farklılıklarının artmamasını da sağladığından ayrı bir önem kazanmaktadır. Ancak uzaktan öğrenmenin koşulu, öğrenmeyi öğrenmiş olma becerisini gerektirdiği de açıktır. Bu nedenle uzaktan öğrenme ancak öğrenme alışkanlıklarını kazanmış olanlarla gerçekleştirilebilir, bu ise orta öğretim ve lisede kazandırılması gereken en önemli özelliklerden biridir, zira öğrenme yaşam boyu devam edebilen bir süreçtir ve kendi kendine öğrenmenin kazandırılması ile devam edebilir (Balaban, 2012).

Uzaktan Eğitim Sisteminin Bileşenleri:

- Yazılım Teknolojileri
- Öğrenme Yönetim Sistemi
- İçerik Yönetim Sistemi
- Sanal Sınıf Sistemi
- Öğrenciler
- Eğitmenler
- Donanım ve Ağ Altyapısı
- Sınav Ölçme ve Değerlendirme

3. Tasarlanan Sistem Modeli

3.1. Hitit Bulut: Hitit Bulut sistemi; açık kaynak kodlu bir sistem olan OwnCloud yazılımının hitit web sunucusu üzerinde çalışmasıyla oluşturulmuştur. PHP + MYSQL alt yapısını kullanan açık kaynak kodlu bir yazılımdır. Daha sonra web ara yüzü, masaüstü yazılımı veya mobil uygulamalar ile dosyalarınıza erişebilmek için kullanılan yazılımdır.

Web ara yüzünde dosya depolayacak kullanıcılara hesap oluşturabilir ve yetki verilebilir. Yetkili kullanıcılara istenilen kota verilebilir. Kullanıcılar arasında dosya paylaşımı yapılabilir. Ldap modülü ile kullanıcı doğrulamasıyla kullanıcılar sisteme login olabilir.

3.2. Hitit Uzaktan Eğitim Merkezi: Hitit uzaktan eğitim merkezi, üniversitenin tüm birimlerine yeni başlayan 1. Sınıf öğrencilerinin zorunlu ortak derslerden Türk Dili ve Atatürk İlkeleri ve İnkılap Tarihi derslerinin uzaktan verildiği bir uygulama ile 2013 yılında faaliyetlerine başlamıştır. ÖYS moodle kullanılmaktadır.

Moodle Öğretim Yönetim Sistem yazılımının temel özellikleri:

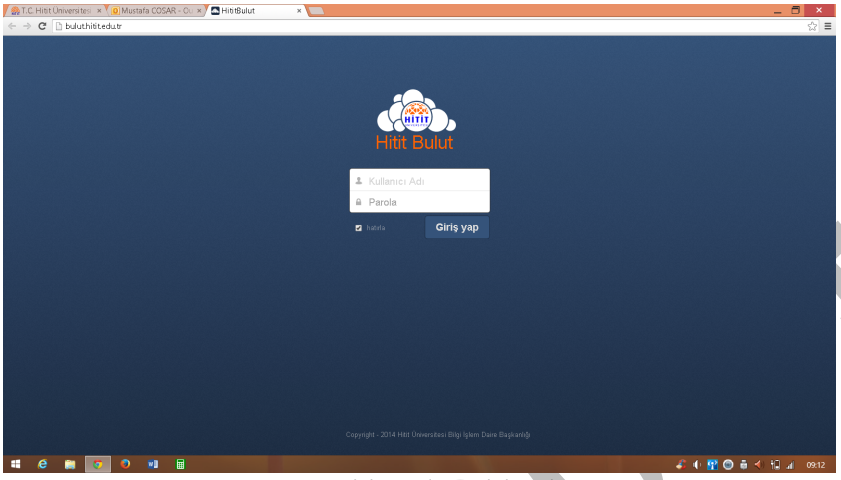
- Öğrenme iletişim araçları olarak tartışma formu, dosya alış verişi, e-posta, takvim ve not tahtası ve gerçek zamanlı sohbet imkanına sahiptir.
- Verimlilik araçları olarak dersin takvim üzerinde ilerleme durumu görüntülenebiliyor. Programda öğrencilere yardım ve yönlendirme desteği öğrenciler görüşme ve tartışmalar içinde arama yapabilirler.
- Öğrenci kullanım araçları olarak öğrencinin kendini değerlendirmesi için öğrenci kişisel sayfaları bulunmaktadır.
- Yazılımın destek araçları olarak kimlik denetimi, kurs yetkileri düzenleme, sunucu hizmetleri ve kayıt entegrasyonu bulunmaktadır. Sistem kimlik denetimi için temel kullanıcı ismi ve şifresini kullanır. Yöneticiler için farklı grup rollerinden erişim olanakları vardır. Bunlar; yöneticiler, eğitmenler, öğrenciler ve konuklardır.
- Eğitmenler, öğrencilerin kursta kullanılmak üzere sınırlandırılmış metin dosyalarını kaydedebilir veya öğrenciler kendi kayıtlarını yapabilir.
- Eğitmenler özel tarihlere tartışmalar veya kurs etkinlikleri koyabilirler. Sistem eş zamanlı olarak kurs tarihlerini kurumsal takvime göre ayarlar.
- Eğitmenler soruları çoktan seçmeli soru, çoktan yanıtlı soru, hesaplama, kısa cevaplı ve karşılaştırmalı soruları otomatik olarak oluşturabilirler. Soruların her bir cevabı ayrıntılı geri bildirim ve izlenimi içerir.
- Eğitmenler kurs içeriğine erişen her öğrencinin IP adresi, tartışma formları, kurs değerlendirmeleri ve

ödevleri raporlandırabilir ve bunu ne sıklıkta olacağı ayarlanabilir.

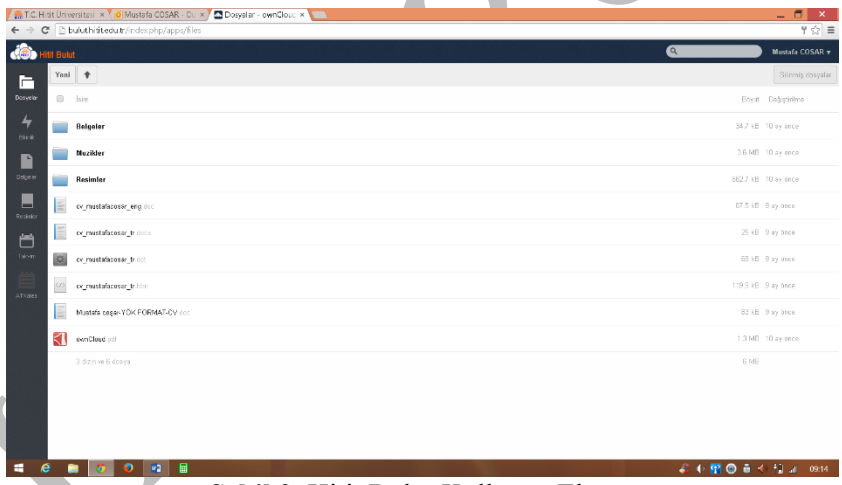
- Yazılımda üç çeşit kurs kalıbı bulunmaktadır. Bunlar Haftalık düzenlenen etkinlikler, konularla düzenlenen etkinlikler ve sosyal içerikli tartışmaların yapıldığı kurs tipidir.

3.3. HUZEM-Bulut:

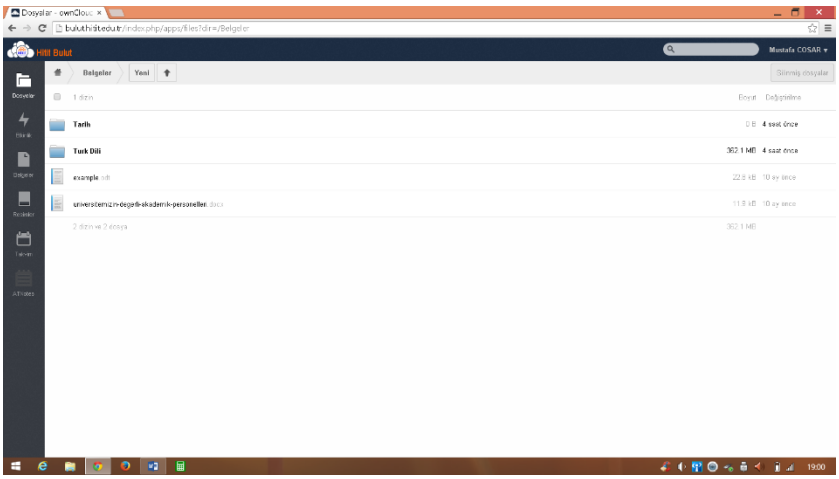
Açık kaynak kodlu owncloud üzerinden ders kaynaklarının paylaşımının sunulduğu bir platform olan Hitit HUZEM-Bulut mimarisi düşük maliyetli ve erişim kolaylığı sayesinde uzaktan eğitim kullanımı sunulmuştur. Aşağıdaki şekillerde de görüldüğü LDAP giriş kontrolleri ve ders ortamları görülmektedir.



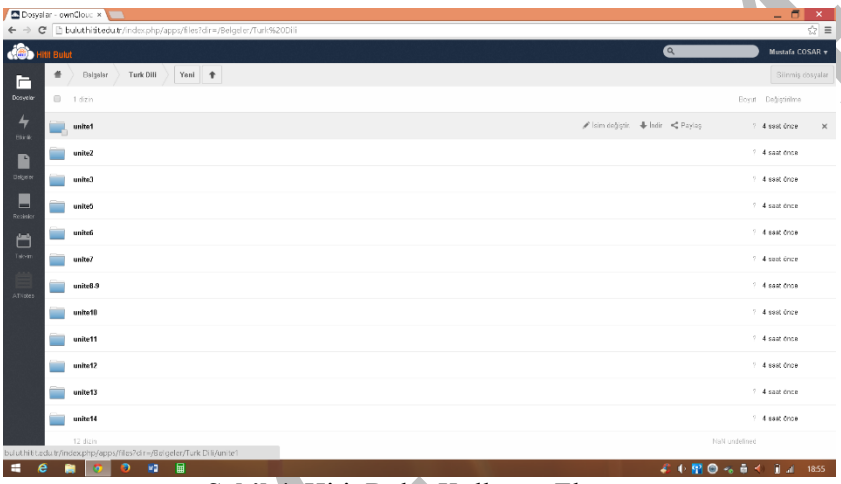
Şekil 1. Hitit Bulut Giriş Ekranı



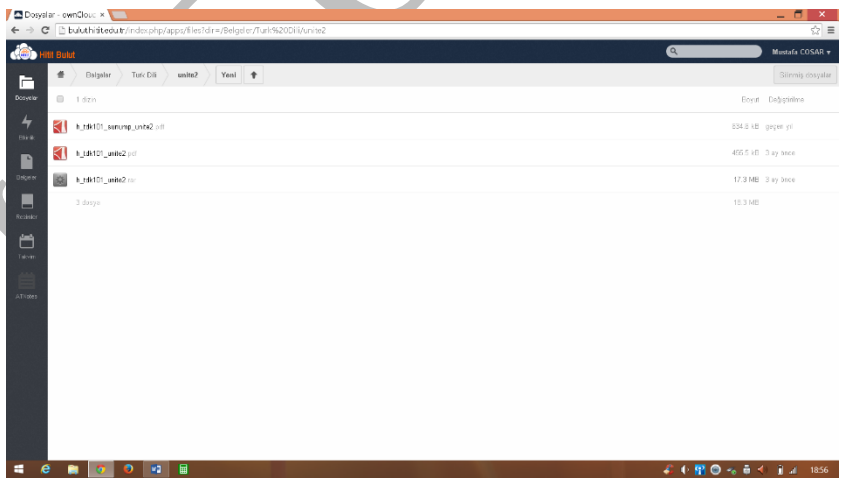
Şekil 2. Hitit Bulut Kullanıcı Ekranı



Şekil 3. Hitit Bulut Kullanıcı Ekranı



Şekil 4. Hitit Bulut Kullanıcı Ekranı



4. Sonuçlar

Özellikle 2007 yılından sonra kurulmuş olan üniversiteler teknolojik gelişmeleri takip edebilmeleri ve ucuz maliyetlerle kendilerine kurabilmeleri açısından bulut bilişim çok fazla avantajları olan bir teknolojidir. Uzaktan eğitim uygulamalarının bu servis ve teknoloji üzerinden verilmesi daha da fazla artılar sunmaktadır.

Ayrıca, Bulut Bilişim tabanlı mobil öğrenme yapısının oluşturulmasıyla hem standart oluşturulmuş hem de internete erişilebilen her türlü ortamdan her türlü cihazla eğitim ortamı sağlanmış olacaktır.

5. Kaynaklar

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UZAKTAN EĞİTİMİN TERCİH NEDENLERİ, BEKLENTİLER VE BİR UYGULAMA

Dünyada olduğu gibi ülkemiz açısından da dikkat çekilmesi gereken noktalardan biri, işsizlik oranlarının artmasına karşın, nitelikli işgücünün yetersiz oluşudur. Uzaktan eğitimin, bu konuda da ihtiyaçlar doğrultusunda, kurumsal ve mali yönlerden desteklenmesine ihtiyaç vardır. Uzaktan eğitime yeterli miktarda destek verildiğinde ve etkin bir biçimde uygulandığında, çalışan ya da herhangi bir mesleki eğitimi olmayan bireylere mesleki ve teknik eğitim verildiğinde iş alanlarında çalışan bireylerin daha nitelikli, iş arayan bireylerin ise belli bir meslek dalında nitelikli eleman olması sağlanabilir.

Eğitimin görsel işitsel ve etkileşimli canlandırmaların eğitim ortamına katkıları olduğu bilinmesiyle uzaktan eğitimin önemi ortaya çıkmaktadır. Bununla birlikte mesleki ve diğer sosyal bilimlerde uzaktan eğitimin mümkündür. Bu çalışma sosyal bilimlerde uzaktan eğitim alan öğrencilerin, uzaktan eğitimi tercih nedenleri, uzaktan eğitimin finansal boyutu ve eğitimin sonucunda beklentilerini ortaya koymak amacıyla yapılmıştır. Araştırma Muğla Sıtkı Koçman Üniversitesi'nde uzaktan eğitim alan öğrenciler üzerinde yapılmıştır. Araştırma verilerine öğrencilere yapılan bir anket ile elde edilmiştir.

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Value orientation preference of children, adolescents and young adults via quantitative optics

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Abstract: Value orientation has remained a valid issue of pedagogical theory. Along with other factors value preference significantly influences a human´s formation, his/her education and lifelong activity. It is therefore necessary to explore and based on the acquired knowledge to influence the formation of value orientation of children and adolescents also through the educational process of a school and through direct or indirect influence of a teacher. This article presents a quantitative view which subsequently allows for an adequate adjustment of further educational activity of a teacher or a school.

Key words: Teacher, children, adolescents, values, value orientation.

Introduction

In everyday life value orientation of adolescents is reflected in their opinions and attitudes towards themselves and toward their surroundings. It also influences their overall behavior and actions. The area of values and value orientation becomes urgent mainly in connection with an increasing rate of juvenile crime compared with the overall crime rate in a society, decreasing age of persons with socio-pathological behavior in educational environment of schools, in connection with a preference of materialistic and consumeristic way of life and with the crises of family. It is necessary to emphasize the importance of prevention of socio-pathological behavior and to say that this prevention is more effective and economical than an attemt to eliminate or fight against it. Therefore, every school and its educational influence plays an important role in the primary prevention and a teacher´s behavior itself and his/her influence becomes a preventive measure that could forgo delinquent development of our children and adolescents also through influencing their value preference and value orientation. "Following elementary moral qualities represent basic moral, universal and thus multicultural values: respect, generosity, compassion, pride, honesty, faithfulness, trust, consideration, solidarity, politeness, humility, tolerance, diligence, mutual help, obedience, friendship, truthfulness, broad-mindedness, decency, responsibility, self-control, ambition, patience, well-disposition, correctness and others (Žilínek, 1997, p. 45). A value orientation can´t be changed in a directive way. Teachers must identify themselves with positive values, believe in them and act accordingly. It requires a teacher who is able to present and motivate pupils and students toward respecting and asserting of all-human moral values.

Today, value as a term becomes one of the most complex and at the same time the most problematic notions. It is being continuously discussed in philosophy, psychology, sociology and pedagogy. At present, it is used as a conscious or unconscious category of the thing that is considered desirable in society, in relationships, in family and in education. P. Ondrejkovič (1998, p. 356) states that value "influences the behavior of an individual or a group as well as the whole societies, it is a source of motivation and preferences of action, mainly in cases of alternative behavior. Value is generally considered a relational category, most often a relationship between a subject and an object."

"The term value orientation principally means a tendency of a personality toward certain value attitudes" (Ondrejkovič,

1998, p. 197). The value orientation of a personality is reflected mainly in its actions and behavior. Through it we can assume an individual´s social role or status, his/her communication competencies, axiological processes and the degree of the development of personal competencies. Value and value orientation are closely connected with the axiological processes of a personality which couldn´t be detached from emotions and motivation. Value orientation manifests itself in the basic attributes of behavior: in motivation, readiness to act and in an act manifested in the activity itself.

Quantitative view of value orientation of children and adolescents

An educational process of any school plays an important role in the formation of value preferences and the value orientation of children and adolescents. If we want to effectively influence the process of its formation it is necessary to know the values that children prefer, the values they consider significant in different stages of their lives. Acquiring knowledge is, however, a complex process and it can be realized by using various methods and procedures. Ch. Peirce (in Chráska, 2007) introduces four basic methods of inquiry. The first is the method of tradition. In our lives there are many facts we consider true only because they were traditionally, arising from a historical concept, considered true in the past. By a frequent reproduction of these "truths" their validity has increased and it is often striking how many people insist they are true despite being exposed to new facts which contradict the old ones. The second is the method of authority when a person accepts certain facts as true only because they are being presented by a person who he/she considers a reputable authority. Hence, "truths" are facts that are presented by reputable personalities of a society or are generally accepted by the public. Another method of acquiring knowledge is the method of priority where the criteria of true knowledge is its "compliance with the brain" assuming that humans are naturally drawn to the truth. The last is the method of science. If the human knowledge is acquired using scientific approach, we will formulate new facts which are, compared to the previous methods, independent from the personality, opinions and attitudes of the inquirer (the "a priori" method), from the set scientific theories (the method of authority) and from expectations (the method of tradition). Based on the above we can conclude that the inquiry of values and value orientation must also be approached in a scientific way. Pedagogical methodology offers three approaches - inquiry realizations – the quantitative approach, the qualitative approach and the mixed approach – the combination of methods and procedures of both approaches. Based on the issue at hand we chose the quantitative approach as we are interested in the meaning, the position and the role of education in the process of value formation and value orientation of children and adolescents. By using our research we were searching for answers to several questions relating to value preference of children and adolescents, their attitudes toward values and to the detection of the weight of motivational means – incentives aimed at the improvement of performance at socially beneficial work as educational process is reflected in the professional and personal feature of a human. Most of all we were interested in "What values do children, adolescents and young adults prefer these days"?

To obtain the quantitative view of value preferences, attitudes and motivational factors we chose a method of questionnaire survey. We used standardized questionnaire of J. Vonkomer (2002). The questionnaire is named HO-PO-MO (first two letters of Slovak words hodnota = value, postoj = attitude and motivácia = motivation – translator´s note) and it serves as the means of finding out value orientations, attitudes towards values and performance motivators. It enables detection and deeper understanding of the direction of a personality´s activity. The questionnaire consists of three relatively independent structures. Due to the limited scope of this study we are going to include only the results of the "HO" structure which offers information about preference and value orientation of an individual. It shows the level of: a/ educational value orientation, b/ esthetic value orientation, c/moral value orientation, d/ economic value orientation, e/ social value orientation.

The administration of the HO-PO-MO questionnaire was realized by the members of the organizational team in years 2011 – 2012. To ensure higher return of questionnaires the administration was realized in groups directly in the selected educational institutions. Oral instructions during introduction of the questionnaire as well as the presence of administrators not only improved the return of the questionnaires, but also prevented wrong and incomplete filling of the questionnaires. In total 959 respondents filled the HO-PO-MO questionnaire. Based on the type of questions the respondents were divided into three categories. The first category – children - consists of respondents of elementary schools. The survey was realized in three basic schools and in total 325 questionnaires from pupils of the second level of basic schools were collected. The second category, high school students, consists of students of secondary grammar schools and vocational high schools. In total 321 high school students in all four years of study filled the questionnaires. The last category consists of university students. 321 students in the bachelor level of study studying the Teaching of

Academic Subjects returned the questionnaires. Our concentration on future teachers was intentional as this occupation plays an important role in the forming of value orientation of children and young people.

We sorted out the marked responses according to categories and processed them mathematically in order to get answers to the formulated questions. We were mainly interested in the value preference of children, adolescents and university students these days. Through the "HO" part of the questionnaire we obtained information aimed at recognizing the value orientation of children and adolescents. The respondents´ task was to write point values to alternative answers from 1 (the least important) to 5 (the most important). By calculating the average scores we found out which of the 5 categories of values were preferred by the respondents. These were:

Educational values - positive perception of education and knowledge as an important aspect of each individual´s life in existing social conditions and of his/her work and social self-realization that aims at ensuring an adequate quality of life.

Esthetic values – are characterized by the feel for beauty, by positive attitude toward art, by an attempt to develop one´s own abilities of making one´s life and one´s surroundings more beautiful, by development of culture and by conservation of the cultural and historical heritage of a nation.

Moral values – are oriented at an attempt of each individual to do good deeds, to be helpful, cooperative, are characterized by positive character traits, by the preference of fair and equal access of all members of society toward opportunities, by refusing corruption and promoting the dignity for all in everyday contact.

Economic values – represent an attempt to secure an adequate amount of financial means which leads to the fulfillment of material and mental demands; to a certain point there is an obvious preference of materialism and consumerism.

Social values – are connected with an active life in conditions of existing social environment, with an attempt to deal with arising difficulties and with an interest in an adequate contact with others, with a high social feeling, empathy, altruism and a help to other members of a social environment.

In accordance with a Confucius saying that "one picture is worth a thousand words", we are going to present the collected value preferences in a picture form. Figure 1 shows the value preferences in the first category – the category of children.

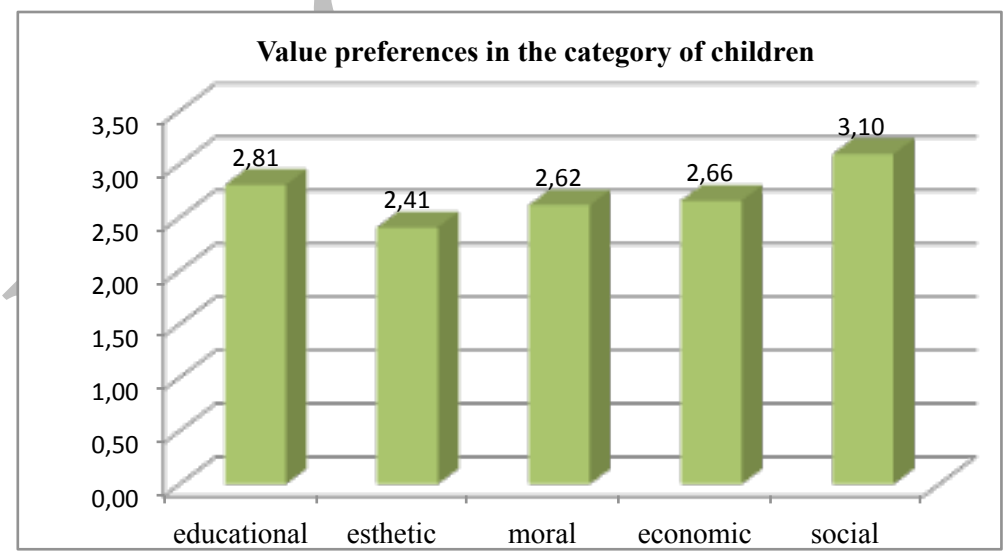

Figure 1: Value preferences in the category of children

The above figure shows that children prefer social values (3.10). We think that this preference is strongly influenced by the period of childhood when after "leaving" the family and entering the school environment children seek and enter into

interpersonal relationships – friendships which are characterized mostly by a common activity. For older children (6. – 9. grade of elementary school) sharing common activity satisfies their need of belonging to a group and cooperating in a group. The preference of social values is also caused by a positive identification of a child with an authority – parent, teacher, other adult. We, of course, suppose that these authorities present the importance of social values in a human life. The second dominant category in the value preferences is the category of educational values (2.81). The importance of these values rises mainly when children realize the value of the educational process and its results presented in a final evaluation and in a monitoring process, but also when they reach higher levels of education as well as when they are motivated by parents who are interested in their children´s better professional future. Less preferred are economic, moral and esthetic values. Although we have expected the moral and esthetic values scoring higher even in this age group, we think that this is a result of a currently preferred need of attaining as high a standard of economic security for families and individuals as possible.

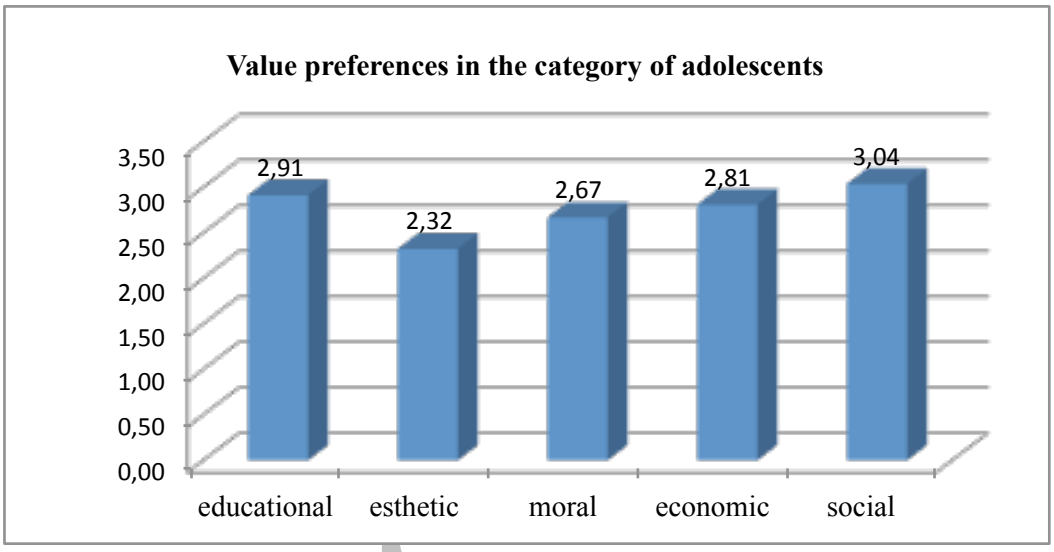

Figure 2: Value preferences in the category of adolescents

When compared with the value preferences of children we see a strong similarity. Adolescents also prefer social values (3.04) and educational values (2.91). Through relationships with their peers people in this age group satisfy certain basic psychological needs. These are the need of stimulation, orientation and meaningful learning as well as the need of emotional security and the need for knowledge. Therefore we think that the results of our survey were strongly influenced by the developing period of adolescence, but also by a positive influence of certain educational factors, mainly the personality of a teacher. The fact that educational values scored high is also probably caused (mainly in the final year of high school) by the increased feeling of importance of getting better education as a means of attaining higher professional role and social prestige, especially by continuing the education process at a university. The order of the other value categories is also a result of the influence of the surrounding society which displays a clear preference of materialism and consumerism mainly in media but also in human relations.

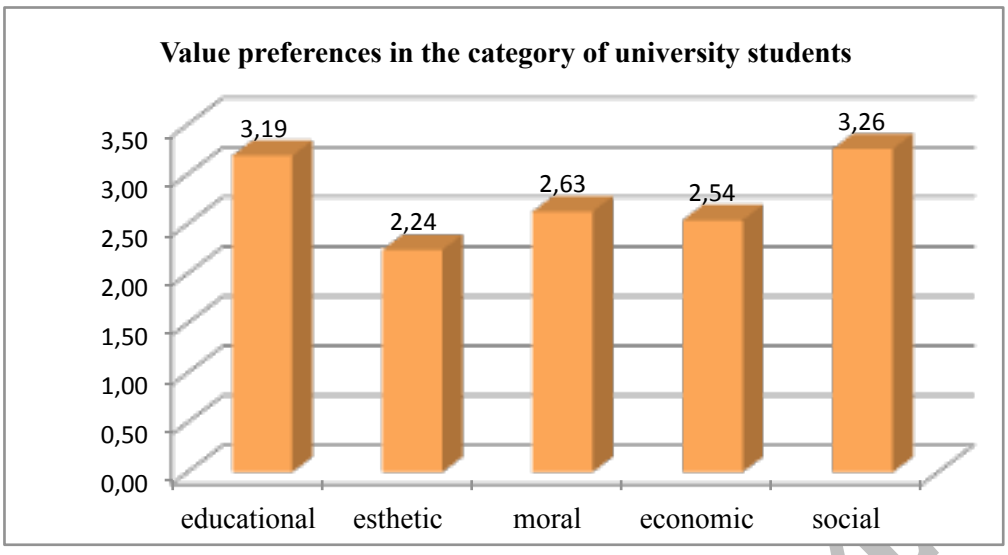

Figure 2: Value preferences in the category of university students

In contrast with the two previous categories in the category of university students we can see a shift in the preference of moral norms which score higher than the economic and esthetic values. Social and educational values reached the first and the second place, but with a smaller difference between them. The preference of social values is on one hand connected with the fulfillment of social needs by forming relationships and finding one´s own identity in a new social environment, where its members themselves are in new roles in which they need to perform and satisfy certain expectations connected to these roles. These expectations then result in the preference of educational values as the new role of a university student is a role of a studying and developing personality on its way to a professional readiness and future occupation. Similarly, we can assume that the preference of educational values is to a certain point connected with the motivation for the chosen subject of study. The choice of this particular study program also foretells the other value preferences, mainly the shift in the position of the moral values. Because we gave the questionnaire to future teachers it seems obvious that these individuals would prefer moral values to economic ones. It has become a generally accepted knowledge that teachers´ inadequate financial reward makes it difficult for these professionals to secure a high standard of living. The preference of moral values should be perceived as a positive sign as it leads to a higher standard of educational process and thus to a positive influence on the value formation of pupils.

Conclusion

An important finding resulting from the analysis of the value preferences is the fact that the values representing a humanistic and democratic orientation of a young person´s personality (social, educational and moral values) scored highest in our survey. It is thus apparent that families and schools educate children and the young along the lines of democracy and humanism. We should however ask questions like why is juvenile crime on the rise or why are certain social-pathological behaviors (bullying, drug addiction, aggression etc.) becoming more common in our schools? The answer isn´t a simple one, but we think that there is a strong influence of the media, information –communication technologies, unfairness and disrespect of human life which children often encounter in a social environment and a failure of communication and interpersonal relationships. It is also possible that respondents answered in a way which they thought was expected of them and thus presented their views in a rather distorted way. Nevertheless, what remains an important fact is that the orientation of young people to social, educational and moral values is an asset for the whole society and its development.

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Future of Online Education in Crisis: A Call to Action

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Abstract: Online education is growing rapidly and there is little doubt that it will continue to expand until it one day encompasses the majority of higher education course offerings. Higher education leaders agree that online education will continue to grow even in the face of a slight recent decline (Allen & Seaman, 2013). As the rise of online education began, concern also rose as to whether the quality of higher education would suffer as a result of this new fast tracked course of academia. The quality of education in general is in question. The average degree standards are lower in America (Cote & Allahar, 2011). Today in higher education it is almost unacceptable to expect students to be solely just that, students (2011). Working full time, while carrying a full load is becoming the acceptable norm (2011). This type of student is more often the student that elects an online education. Despite the current drawbacks, online education is still the best prospect for the future provided the barriers of faculty assessment and course design are addressed. Fear of student evaluations and administrative disapproval are causing grade inflation while simultaneously influencing course design. Instructors are designing courses that allow the student to easily pass the course, which in reality is a disservice to everyone involved. This literature review provides evidence to justify a warning to acknowledge the paradox of current faculty assessment practices and the codependent relationship with course structure, to ensure the future value of higher education.

Keywords: Online learning, online education, higher education, grade inflation, faculty assessment, student evaluations, cheating, online exams, exam proctoring

Introduction

The rapid growth of online learning (OL) demands careful attention to the academic vehicle of higher education. Higher education (HE) in general is a slow moving machine. Therefore when anything begins to accelerate out of contextual manner, caution should be taken to carefully attend to the details and direction of the force. OL has been growing at a rate well beyond that of overall HE (Allen & Seaman, 2014). The Babson Survey Research Group has been tracking online education (OE) for more than a decade. There have been eleven reports to date. These reports serve as useful barometers to keep a pulse on the trend of OL in the United States (US). The survey group collects data from more than 2,800 colleges and universities (2014). The latest report however reported a leveling out of the growth curve. Over the past few years online growth has been decreasing (2014).

Despite the seemingly temporary deceleration of OL growth in the US, OL is still considered to be the way of the future. Institutions are including OL in their long term strategies significantly more today than they did in 2002 when the survey's first began (2014). Online classes will continue to grow faster than traditional classes as they have been doing for so long (Thiede, 2012). The number of online students that are taking online courses remains at a steady normative of students taking at least one online course per year (Allen & Seaman, 2014). Interestingly it is found that the greatest increase of OL is occurring in the institutions that are classified by Carnegie as Doctoral Research Universities (Allen & Seaman, 2013).

It is questionable as to whether the push by institutions to increase OE is simply a way to increase their enrollment (Turyel & Griffen, 2014). Unfortunately the consideration of that possibility brings into question the resulting quality of HE and whether it may suffer in a race to increase enrollment.

Administrators hold a very positive outlook on the future of OE (Allen, Seaman, Lederman & Jaschik, 2012). The increase in administrators that are in favor of increasing OE has jumped significantly in the past decade. The Babcock Survey Group found that the percentage of administrators that considered OE important to the future of the institution went from less than half in 2002 to almost 70% in the 2012 survey (Allen & Seaman, 2013). The survey reflects that administrators believe that an OE is just as good as a face to face education; nearly 77% (2013).

Caution must be taken in the fact that OE means financial gain for institutions, which quite often is in the interests of the administration. Shorter courses are offered online to benefit the institution financially (Shaw, Chanetzky, Burrus & Walters, 2013). For the institution, OE provides growth opportunity and is cost efficient (Bristow, Shepherd, Humpreys & Ziebell, 2011). The danger is that administration may begin to see OL courses as more prosperous than face to face courses (Kay, 2013). That perspective can lead to downsizing of tenured faculty and departments.

Even considering the pitfalls of OE becoming a money machine for HE institutions, it still remains one of the best prospects for the future provided certain precautions are taken and prospective pitfalls are admitted and addressed. Online education provides the best prospect for the future value of HE as long as the following barriers are conceded and addressed; methods of faculty assessment and course design. This study will focus on the best ways to proceed into the future of OE by constructing a literature review of current trends in OL in HE, methods of faculty assessment, current course designs of OL in HE and best practices and recommendations for the future of OE.

Literature Review

Current trends in OE.

A current trend in OE is that the perception of students, faculty and administrators do not acquiesce. In fact research shows that students and faculty perceive their roles in almost an opposite way (Community College Research Center (CCRC) pt.2, 2013; Wachenheim, 2009). Students perceive online classes as the "easy way out" (2013). One student was quoted as describing face to face classes as "real learning" (2013). Students report that they feel instructors should be active in their learning experience, while instructors see their role as more of a facilitator or guide (2013).

The CCRC study found, as well as other researchers, that students expect instructors to be "on call" all the time including weekends (CCRC pt. 2, 2013; Mulig & Rhame, 2012). Faculty however, views their availability in quite the opposite way. They believe they should not be on call especially on weekends (2013). Students feel that faculty are responsible to motivate them, while faculty feel that students should be independent learners and self motivated (2013).

The administrators perspective is also quite different from the faculty perspective (CCRC pt.2, 2013). Allen & Seaman (2014) report that according to the findings of the Babcock Research Survey, academic leaders believe that OL is the positive way of the future for HE. Faculty have been reported to be more pessimistic about OE (Allen et al, 2012). Allen et al (2012) reported that almost 2/3's of faculty believe that learning through online courses is inferior to that of face to face classes. Wilkes, Simon & Brooks (2006), also report that faculty believe that face to face classes promote better learning than online classes.

Another current trend in OE is the debate over cheating. Students cheating when taking online courses is vast and increasing (Harmon, Lambrinos & Buffolino, 2010). On the contrary, in one study to investigate student's perspectives, students reported that they cheat less in online courses (Simonson, Hudgins & Orellana, 2009). As reported in the Babson Research Survey, students perceive online courses as easier (CCRC pt. 2, 2013). Kirtman (2009) studied student perceptions of online courses. They compared student's performance in online courses to performance in face to face courses (2009). The same teacher was used for both forms of instruction. Online learners did significantly worse on the midterm than the face to face learners, however the difference disappeared on the final exam (2009). It can be concluded that the students initially expected the course to be easier and once they performed poorly on the midterm they learned that the course was not as easy as they expected and put forth a greater effort for the final exam.

There is a trend to produce massive open online courses (MOOC). These courses allow hundreds of students to enroll and the institution gains considerable funding for these types of courses. Problems arise such as how to grade all the assignments and give the students the personal attention they are used to from online courses. Currently only 5% of HE is offering these MOOC courses (Allen & Seaman, 2014). However over nine percent say that they plan to offer them in the future (2013). The increase in these types of courses may solely be for the financial benefit because though there is an increase in the number of academic leaders that say they plan to offer them, less than ¼ of academic leaders actually believe MOOC is a good method of online instruction (2013). The problem with the small intimate courses is that faculty load will be higher with each faculty member teaching fewer students. Most HE leaders were found to be in expectation of OE reducing the costs to the institution.

Methods of faculty assessment.

One of the common practices of faculty assessment is student evaluations. The problem with student evaluations being used for that purpose is that they do not reflect a teacher's effectiveness (Svanlin & Aliner, 2011; Stark & Freishtat, 2014; Kamenetz, 2014). Svanlin & Aliner (2011) conducted a study of 220 online students and they found that the student's evaluation were more dependent on student's success, personal motivations and the amount of effort on the student's part. In other words, students will evaluate a teacher higher when they do well in the course themselves or when they get a higher grade. The highly motivated student that makes a concerted effort in the course will typically rate the teacher higher.

Stark & Freishtat (2014) found that students typically fill out the evaluations in detail when they fall into either of the extremes. If the student is pleased with their grade and worked hard through the course, the self satisfaction is reflected in the instructor's evaluation (2014). The same is true for the other extreme. If the student earned a lower grade and lacked effort and self motivation, they are eager to blame the instructor and complain (2014). Anger is a very motivating emotion. Stark & Freishtat (2014) also point out that statistically, conclusions cannot be drawn from such small samples. The typical class size is small for current online courses, especially fast tracked courses. Small sample sizes are not justifiable in measuring anything including performance of a professional. Secondly, it is counterintuitive to expect any kind of meaningful evaluation of a professional by a non-professional (2014).

Students are however, in a good position to report a professor's availability or their own boredom or excitement. For example, a student may complain that a professor was not available enough to help them through the course because the instructor did not answer emails on the weekend. Their perspective is that it wasn't enough, but the institution's perspective is that it is fine. Part time instructor's are not expected to work all through the weekends, just like face to face professors are not expected to work all weekend, or hold weekend office hours.

Better evaluation tools would be the materials the instructor uses in the course such as the instructor's syllabi, the lectures, the assignments, materials created to enhance course exams, samples of student's work that professors have graded and grading rubrics. Furthermore, teacher's ongoing behaviors may be observed easily by the institution. For example, is the teacher revising work? Does the teacher take time to record video? Does the teacher give research supervision online, such as teaching proper APA style and giving feedback on it? And probably most important, is there a normal grading curve?

Grade inflation.

More instructors are part time without the security of tenure and may need their positions desperately enough to be more lenient in online courses (Kamenetz, 2014). Kemenetz (2014) found that professors who hand out easy A's get higher student evaluations. Grade inflation is a growing problem in HE (Schutz, Drake & Lessner, 2013). Grade inflation lowers learning standards, lowers the value of education and causes the student to feel entitled thus lowering their efforts (2013). Students gain a false sense of achievement and they then reward the instructor with a favorable student evaluation. Schutz et al, (2013) conducted a study comparing tenured faculty (who feel a greater sense of job security) to adjuncts and found that adjuncts inflated grades significantly more than tenured faculty. More than likely these results reflect the fear that adjuncts have of administrators letting them go.

Barr, Kadiyah & Zussman (2009) conducted what is now known as the famous Cornell study on grade inflation. They studied 500 students and found that grade inflation is steadily increasing, and students were choosing classes with the highest median grade average. These results reflect the desire of students to have an instructor that is willing to give away high grades easily. Since this study Cornell stopped posting the average median grade (2009).

Wellesley College implemented anti-grade inflation policy (Butcher, McEwan & Weerapana, 2014). They found that student evaluations were tied to lenient grading. Once the policy lowered the grade inflation, student evaluations dropped significantly (2014). The problem is that faculty are now trying to satisfy both students and administration, while trying somehow to hang on to some shred of ethical value. Kay, 2013 reports that teachers are enticed into planning easy assignments that are merely feel good or fun for the students. The problem is, we as faculty and HE institutions are supposed to be preparing these students for the real world where hard work and effort will be expected. We are also preparing professionals. If students do not really learn and retain the education that our devalued diplomas say they hold, would you really want that so called "accountant" doing your taxes. Or would you like these graduates to be your "lawyer" representing you in court, or worse, have that graduate as your surgeon? It may be tempting to look at simple psychology courses as something that is not really harmed if they student learns the information or not, until they are operating as a professional social worker counseling a teenager contemplating suicide. Suddenly what they are supposed to be an expert in becomes very important to society in general.

Higher average grades in a class are reflective of an instructor that is turning out students that are not really learning the material for any permanent amount of time if at all. Higher average grades in a class lead to less effort of students (Babcock, 2010). Lower average grades on the other hand lead to a greater effort on the student's part (2010). Khanlarian & Singh (2014) describe today's online learner as lazy wanting to do the least amount of work to complete the task. For example most discussion board assignments require a student to make comments to at least two of the peer posts each week. Most students log into the discussion board at one small point during the week and make sure to get their two meaningless posts up and counted for. What learning occurred there? The researchers also found that today's online students do less work and ask for lots of help from the teacher (Babcock, 2010). What would happen in the case of an MOOC class? Would the instructor be responsible for motivating and hand holding each student? It would be impossible. The online student must be self-motivated and self-directed.

Grade inflation harms the student, the individual institution and most of all HE in general. It devalues the student's degree, it devalues the education that comes from that institution and may eventually ruin their reputation and most important it destroys the value of a HE in general.

Therefore it must be concluded that student evaluations must be reconsidered as to what they are used for. Certainly they give insight into the student's perspective, however they are nowhere near an assessment tool for a professional's performance especially the instructor that gave them a grade. If anything at all, it is a conflict of interest. Perhaps administration could put in more effort to really look at all the work the professor has put in to building and improving the course.

Current course designs of OL.

The social aspect.

Online instruction has developed some structures that appear to be a given such as discussion boards. Originally academic leaders and faculty were worried that online courses take away the social and interactive element that face to face courses provide and those aspects of face to face courses are indeed important (Aksal, 2011). Aksal (2011) constructed an evaluation tool to assess online learning and they found that social interaction is highly important. Social interaction can be implemented into online courses however, what is really lost in online courses compared to face to face courses is the built in discipline of having to put aside a certain time for the course each week. OE looses that forced structure of having to make an effort for the course and with fast courses there is the loss of time to take the material in.

Discussion boards offer very little value to online courses (Sebastianelli & Tamimi, 2011). In a study by Tucker (2012), they examined the social interactive constructs of OE. They found that discussion boards are worthless (2012). The responses were generally brief and didn't reflect scholarly thought (2012). Most of the time the responses did not add anything to the topic (2012). They also found chat sessions to be worthless (2012). Students that type slow ended up going silent in the sessions, or reported feeling left out of the conversation (2012). When they compared discussion boards with face to face class discussions, they found that class discussions promoted student retention and learners perceived the instructor as prompting an atmosphere of community (2012). They also found that instructors in the face to face classes received higher student evaluations (2012).

Group projects are another effort to socialize online coursework. Capdeferro & Romero (2012) found that group assignments cause students frustration. It violates the very reason many of the online students take their courses over the internet. They don't have time to conform to everyone else's schedule. Also the other

students in the group don't always do their part. Online learners appear to prefer riddance of group assignments (2012).

Course length.

Course length recently is a paradigm of change in the structure of online courses. Institutions have found ways to generate more income by faster turnover. Accelerated courses are online courses that are completed in less than the traditional 16 week course. Course lengths vary anywhere from 5 to 8 weeks in duration. The research is in the middle on this issue. Shaw, Chametzky, Burrus & Walters (2013) found that 16 week courses were not found to facilitate learning any better than 8 week courses. The only problem with this example is, there were no exams given in the online course, just 18 homework assignments and a final grade generated from the homework assignments.

Ferguson & DeFelice (2010) compared five week courses to 16 week courses. The five week course received higher satisfaction ratings from the students with regard to student to student communication (2010). The students in the 16 week courses expressed higher satisfaction with student to professor communication (2010). The perceived learning was higher in the 16 week course, however the students in the five week course had significantly higher grades (2010). It was not reported however, whether the students in the five week course had proctored exams or even if they had exams (2010).

Mensch (2013) compared student grades in three week, five week and 14 week courses. They found that students in the three week course had significantly better grades. However when examining the grading distribution, the three week course had a grade compression clustered around A's making the average grade an A (2013). This clearly indicates grade inflation by the course instructor. The research did not report whether exams were proctored or timed, or even if there were exams. The researchers admitted that there was a possibility that the three week course was probably made easier because it was short.

Flexible course lengths may offer the most promise for varying the course length. Zucca (2013) found that adults that were given a flexible time limit to work on the material performed well. They could finish the course faster if they wanted to, as in five weeks, or they could take the full 16 weeks to complete the course. Learning was better in all cases when students were allowed to set their own pace within the bounds of the 16 week traditional course time.

Proctored exams.

In each of the cases of course acceleration, it is expected that students will retain the same information in a very condensed time compared to the traditional 16 week course, whether online or face to face. In each of the studies presented here, the terms of examination or grade assessment were not made clear. Grade assessment is important for to the retention of information and actual learning. Students do cheat when exams are not proctored (Harmon & Lambrinos, 2008). Online students take advantage when exams are not proctored. Two different classes were compared. One class was administered a proctored exam. The other class was not. Three of the previous exams during the semester were unproctored. The class receiving the unproctored exams were not warned they would receive a final proctored exam. They did significantly worse than their previous exams (2008). Furthermore, they did significantly worse on the final exam than the other class who was receiving proctored exams throughout the entire semester (2008). The indication here being that if students do not think they are really going to be tested on their knowledge, without notes or books to help them, they will not make the effort to learn the material. It has to be concluded that no real learning has occurred.

Wachenheim (2009) compared the performance of students in both online and face to face classes on a proctored final exam. They found that the face to face class performed significantly better than the students in the online class (2009). However when comparing students taking a proctored exam to students taking a non-proctored exam the students taking the non-proctored exam performed significantly better, indicating cheating (2009).

Some course designers of online courses believe that letting students retry an answer over and over until they get the correct answer on weekly quizzes will help them better retain the information and promote learning. Wachenheim (2009) found that not to be true. Weekly quizzes were also given to in class students but they weren't allowed to use books or redo the answers until all were correct. The online students were allowed to use books and re-submit answers until the correct answer was found. If the hypothesis is true that retrying until you find the correct answer on weekly quizzes promotes learning, then the online students should have learned more than the students in the face to face class. This however was not what the researchers found. When the proctored final exam was given the in class students performed much better than the online students (2009). The

researchers concluded when exams are not proctored online students will cheat and when exams are not proctored online students really do not experience learning (2009).

Further Harmon, Lambrinos & Buffolino (2010) found a correlation between assessment type and cheating. Courses with non-proctored exams affect the credibility of the institution (2010). According to Mayadas, Bourne & Bacsich (2009), it is common practice to take the final exam under a proctor. However that may not be the case today with the recent findings that adjunct professors grade inflate more than professors (Schutz, Drake & Lessner, 2013; Barr, Kadiyah & Zussman, 2009).

Online student profile.

It's possible that students learn from the instructor's leniency that effort is not required. Allen & Seaman (2013) report that today's online students lack discipline. Students in classrooms were found to put more time into a course than students online put into a course (Brown & Liedholm, 2002). It is possible that the academically stronger student gravitates to the face to face method of instruction. Research does show that academically stronger students tend to gravitate towards face to face classes (Driscoll, Jicha, Hunt, Tichavsky & Thompson, 2012). They found that online classes were perceived as easier, therefore they attracted the weaker students (2012). Overall GPA's of online students are found to be lower (Turyel & Griffen, 2014). Withdrawal is also higher with online students (2014).

Recommendations for Quality Online Education

Improvement begins with the institution and the administration. The institution should create readiness activities for students to determine the probability that they will be successful in online courses (CCRC pt.2, 2013). Institutions should make sure that faculty receive professional development (CCRC pt.2, 2013). Entrance requirements may be a course of action to ensure quality of OL and administer a connotation of greater effort and value of the OE, such as minimum grade point average standards to be eligible to enroll in online courses (CCRC pt.2, 2013).

Institutional responsibilities.

Institutions must have a teaching plan and a reliable technical delivery system (Institute of HE policy, 2000). Khanlarian & Singh (2014) found that students are frustrated when there are IT issues. Student frustration is important because frustration is correlated to student's success (2014). There should be a centralized tech system in place that both students and faculty may rely on (2014).

The institution should show an interest in the faculty by actually reviewing instructional materials periodically while minimizing their reliance on student's evaluations. The Institute of HE policy (2000) suggests that minimal standards should be used for development, design and delivery. Technical assistance should be available to the instructors and instructors should receive training and assistance in technology for the courses (2000).

Instructor evaluation should be based on the syllabi, the lectures, the assignments, the materials used to enhance the course, the assessment methods used in the course and samples of the student's work, that have been graded by the professor. Instructor or faculty evaluations should not be rooted on student evaluations (Svanlin & Aliner, 2011; Stark & Freishtat, 2014). In a research university it is even more important to evaluate an instructor's grading rubric to ensure that they are properly preparing students for academic level research and writing skills.

At the conclusion, institutions will eventually be held accountable for students actually learning and retaining information for the college credits they bestowed upon their graduates (Brazina & Ugras, 2014).

Faculty responsibilities.

Faculty should ensure daily communication. They should provide feedback in a reasonable efficient time (Barr & Miller, 2013). They should express high expectations and embrace cultural diversities (2013). Their instructions should be very specific with the use of rubrics given in advance, preferable in the course guide (Thiede, 2012). Therefore students will have a good concept of what the instructor is looking for when grading an assignment. The assignments should cause students to engage in research, discuss the course material with others and force them to take an analytical approach (Thiede, 2012).

Exams should always be proctored or timed allowing no more than 2 minutes maximum per question (Institute of HE policy, 2000; Wachenheim, 2009; Barnes & Paris, 2013; Mayadas, Bourne & Bacsich, 2009;

Stanley, 2006; Harmon & Lambrinos, 2008; Kirtman, 2009). The use of proctored test sites is best. However, sometimes that is not possible therefore timed exams are essential. Timed exams that allow 24 or 48 hours for the students to look up the answers are not considered "real" exams. That type of "exam" is really nothing more than a homework assignment.

Exams should be single entry online. Students should not be permitted to save the exam and come back later to finish it. Exams should be changed each semester (Barnes & Paris, 2013). If possible lock the student's browser during testing (2013). The questions should be changed each semester (2013). Questions on exams should concentrate more on conception rather than general knowledge (Wachenheim, 2009).

Student responsibilities.

Students should make the strongest effort in an online class. Students should be self-motivated and operate as self-directed learners. Students must take OE seriously and apply themselves accordingly. Students must realize that they will not benefit from the least amount of work possible (Khanlarian & Singh, 2014). Research shows that better note taking in class results in better grades (Nakayama, Mutsuura & Yamamoto, 2014). Unfortunately it is found more and more that students prefer courses that require the least amount of effort and time (Marshall, Greenburg & Machun, 2012). Student effort was found to be one of the best indicators of success in OE (Firmin, Schiorring, Whitmer, Willett, Collins & Sujitparapitaya, 2014). The entire online environment is weakened when a professor's time is consumed by students who do not put forth a copious effort to succeed.

Conclusions

OE is the fastest growing segment of HE and it is a positive academic direction. However, there are cautionary situations that must be addressed immediately. There are two paths presenting themselves in front of OE as it approaches its future. One path will degrade HE in general and devalue education in the US considerably. The US is currently the country with the most successful online programs in the world (Mayadas, Bourne & Bacsich, 2009). With the US leading the future of OE, it is important for change to begin in the US.

The other path is to sustain a strong and vital growth in HE that not only maintains integrity but strengthens HE. The possibility presents itself to elevate HE to a level of value higher than it has ever been. But to do that, there are barriers that demand extraction. The use of student evaluations for any sort of faculty performance indicator must be eliminated. Student evaluations may still be collected but the use and value should be placed elsewhere.

True exams must be required of all faculty. Proctored or limited timed exams must be used. Some studies report success with the use of web cameras, however complaints of costs have impeded that form of assessment becoming common (Barnes & Paris, 2013). Administrators must give clear guidelines of exam expectations and monitor grading curves. Faculty should have a normal grading curve in the course. Faculty that have an average grade of "A", should be evaluated closely.

The design of online courses should include a social aspect but not as the most important standard for success. Success should be surmised on the premise that learning has occurred. It is not just assumed learning that is considered acceptable, but learning with some form of verification. OE must include clear communication between the student, faculty and institution which starts with a clear and detailed course guide that is approved by the institution, endorsed by the faculty and understood by the student. Grading rubrics and high expectations married to strong student effort and motivation will result in a strong education in the US and the world. As educators, we are in agreement that the most important objective of what we do is to induce or facilitate learning in the student. Cote and Allahar (2011) stated it very well when they said "Simply handing someone a credential, without the personal and intellectual resources to back it, is to shortchange that person" (p. 119).

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An Overview of International Education in Higher Education from a Macro Perspective

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Abstract: Expansion of globalization triggered more people from various walks of life to demand university education, gave rise to the number of higher education institutions and popularization of international education programs. It is a requirement to analyze globalization, internationalization and the international opportunities all shareholders of higher education institutions can benefit in Turkey and around the world. Depicting the present situation, this study is a descriptive survey which involves the results of local and international studies on globalization, internationalization and international education. It also includes the findings of various articles, thesis and books published in different countries. In this study, the effects of globalization, internationalization and their impact on education are examined from educational, cultural and financial aspects. The second part of the study introduces the international opportunities in tertiary education and their application in Turkey.

Keywords: International education, globalization, exchange programs

Introduction

Financial, social, political and cultural developments changed agricultural society into an industrial society and with the advent of new technologies, the world has turned into an information society. Due to the improvements in technology and mass media, social changes and international interactions have gained speed. Therefore, globalization has become inevitable and has given way to transition from information society to communication society by creating a world beyond borders.

Although globalization is defined in various ways by different scientists, most of these definitions focus on the financial aspect of the term. According to Lubers, the word global dates back to 1600s, but the term globalization is a new one (Özkan, 2006). Hirst and Thompson define globalization as a growing flow of commerce among countries and an open international economy which includes investment of capital. However, sociologist Peter Berger describes globalization as the cultural face of a financial based process. Similarly, Giddens explains it as a financial, political, technological and cultural concept (Özkan, 2006). As these definitions indicate, the political and cultural aspects of globalization are inevitable howewer much the term originally refers to the financial issues. Therefore, focusing only on commercial facet would be misleading.

Globalization is often confused with internationalization, but is in fact a completely different phenomenon. While internationalization refers to the significance of international commerce and relations, globalization refers to global economic integration of national economies into one global economy. Although

the relations among nations become constantly necessary and important, the basic focus of internationalization is still the nation. However, globalization is the annulment of national boundaries for financial reasons primarily by free trade and free capital mobility (Daly, 1999). Therefore, the difference lies in their focus. While globalization highlights an economic process, cross-border sharing, common market and dependence; internationalization enhances world view, multicultural approaches and attitudes.

Having different aspects, globalization has brought about new concepts such as competitiveness, global education, global culture, global economy, global policy, democratization, indigenization, privatization and marketization (Şentürk, 2007). In line with the aims of this study, we will focus on the term global education. Global education is a process which enhances the knowledge, skills and behaviours required for surviving in a world of pluralism, international dependence and international financial competition (Özkan, 2006). We aim to highlight relationships and interaction among countries and train new generations who are aware of ethnic values, cultural pluralism and are capable of living in new environments.

Impact of Globalization and Internationalization on Education

A nation's human capital can be a more significant determinant of its long-term financial success than any other resource. Therefore, this resource must be invested in and used efficiently to develop returns. Although there is high rate of unemployment around the world, there is also scarcity of skills and talents in global economy, which slows economic growth down if it is neglected. In fact, according to the 2013 Human Capital Index, the countries which are ranked in top 10 are those which invest in education pillar (Zahidi, 2014). Since human capital is attained through education and effects not only one nation but also the whole world, all the educational institutions around the world should take the importance of it into consideration. In this sense, international education and mobility of students and academic staff play an important role. The more all the shareholders of tertiary education internationlize, the more and better talents and experiences they will possess, which will generate a rich human capital all over the world bringing about economic balance.

As a result, like many other institutions, higher education institutions have started to evaluate their missions and responsibilities in search of preparing their graduates as global citizens and professionals in today's world. Therefore, they base their policies on internationalization which Knight (1994) defines as a process of integrating an international dimension into the teaching, research, and service functions of the institution (Jackson, 2008). It is obvious that education plays a crucial role in the process of globalization, for training skillful individuals who can adapt to new challenges becomes essential with the increase in international relations. International education helps developing students' worldview, global identity, intercultural sensitivity (being flexible and tolerant with values and modes of behavior, open-minded, and willing to try new things, especially food) and communicative competence (foreign language proficiency, communication styles).

International Opportunities in Higher Education

Education affects societies in terms of political, social, economical and cultural aspects by providing service to individuals throughout their lives. Therefore, organizing the educational services according to the modern developments in line with the needs of individuals and societies are among the priorities of all the countries in the world. The most important issue of the modern age is human capital for it maintains

economical growth and social development and currently, the most powerful countries in the world are those which invest in human capital. Human capital can be expressed as the stock of competencies, knowledge, social and personality attributes, including creativity, cognitive abilities, embodied in the ability to perform labor so as to produce economic value. It is of utmost importance to invest in human being for increasing their abilities and qualifications during the process of becoming an industrial and information society.

When we look at the developed countries in the world, the common features of them are having high-grade universities which are active in international cooperations and research- development technologies. Since investment in education is rewarding for both individual and society, contribution of education in financial growth and the increase of national income are inevitable. Training individuals who can keep up with the technology and contemporary life is only possible through a quality educational system which is rational and universal.

Being aware of these positive effects of internationalization, higher education institutions aim at increasing the opportunities through which students can benefit outside their home countries through bilateral, multilateral agreements, joint projects, dual diploma programs, student and faculty exchange programs, multiple varions of study and residence abroad programs, internships or service learning in a foreign country, intercultural curricula, multilingual curricula, foreign language education, area or cultural studies, international or comparative education programs, offshore campuses and distance learning activities. In line with these goals, higher education institutions not only motivate their students and staff to participate in international programs but also develops their promotional activities by enhancing their organizational images, attending international educational fairs, and visiting foreign countries to establish new contacts. Apart from these, higher education institutions extend their opportunities with the help of grant programmes, volunteer programmes, strategic partnership programs such as

- **Mevlana Exchange Programme granted by Higher Education Council of Turkey,**
- **Erasmus + Exchange Programme granted by European Union,**
- **Fulbright scholarships supported by the USA government,**
- **Humboldt Foundation scholarships supported by German Government,**
- **Jean Monnet scholarships,**
- **Research and study scholarships supported by different countries**
- **Student competitions in which students can present their inventions or research results,**
- **Interrail programs which enables students travel around Europe with a rail pass**
- **Work and Travel.**

With the constant increasing number of universities around the world, the number of students participating in study abroad (SA) programs has been increasing dramatically. The trends in international students tends to be on the rise in the following years because the number of students enrolled outside their home has risen from 0.8 million worldwide in 1975 to 4.3 million in 2011. This number worldwide more than doubled, with an average annual growth rate of almost 7% between 2000 and 2011 (OECD, 2013).

According to the 2007 OECD reports there were 2.7 million students enrolled in higher education outside their home countries in 2004. It is estimated that this number will rise to about 7.5 million by 2025 (Verbik, L. and Lasanowski,V., 2007). Most of these students will be engaged in year abroad programs and short-term sojourns or internships, ranging from a week to 3 or 4 months (Jackson, 2008). However, a more recent study done by OECD (2013) indicates that nearly 4.3 million students are enrolled in tertiary level education outside their home country. Australia, the United Kingdom, Switzerland, New Zealand and Austria have, in descending order, the highest percentage of international students. Among these, Asian students represent the 53% of foreign students most of whom are from China, India and Korea. OECD countries host more international students than they send abroad for university education. Some 83% of all foreign students are enrolled in G20 countries, while 77% are enrolled in OECD countries. These proportions have remained stable during the past decade.

This study also shows that three out of four students studying abroad prefer OECD countries. Australia, Canada, France, Germany, the United Kingdom and the United States together attract more than 50% of all foreign students around the world. Europe is the top destination for university students enrolled outside their home country. It hosts 48% of these students while North America hosts 21% of all international students. In the case of Oceania, the number of international students in have tripled since 2000 although the region hosts less than 10% of all foreign students. The numbers of international students are rising in Asia, Latin America and the Caribbean, which reflects the internationalization of universities in different countries (OECD, 2013). These results might cause from the effect of exchange programs such as Erasmus Exchange Program as it included only European countries until 2014.

Erasmus Student Mobility will be more reinforced through Erasmus+, the new EU programme for education, training, youth and sport to be started in 2014, which will provide the students with the opportunity to study abroad during the next seven years. According to a statistical report published by European Commission, 3244 students from 11 countries spent a study period abroad under the Erasmus Programme in 1987. 25 years later, in 2011-12, the Programme is nearly 80 times larger, with more than 250,000 students and 46,000 staff spending a mobility period abroad (European Economy, 2009).

However, this situation might change with Mevlana Exchange Program, which is supported by Turkish Higher Education Council and in accordance with todays global academic perception, Mevlana Exchange Programme students and academic staff will have the opportunity to study at a University that they desire in any part of the world except those involved in Erasmus Program. It is not limited with a region, area or certain part of the world.

As in the case in many other countries, globalization has affected the political, financial, social and cultural resources of Turkey, which also has placed Turkey into interaction with the world in terms of education (Çetinsaya, 2014). This is partly due to the geopolitical location of Turkey. Being at the juncture of two continents, Turkey is within easy reach of many countries, which is an advantage to draw students from different parts of the world. This location also provides students with a rich cultural atmosphere and natural beauties, which gives them the opportunity to have fun and extend their knowledge as they study. Turkey is also an appropriate place where the international students can experience the mixture of a variety of cultures blended with both western and orientalist elements. Therefore, students from all parts of the world regardless of their nationalities, origins, religions, languages and etc. are most welcome in Turkey and Turkish hospitality. For this reason, government and higher education institutions should analyze the potentials of the country to intake international students and take necessary precautions accordingly. They can establish consortiums with other universities and contact with international organizations in order to promote Turkish higher education universities abroad. Moreover, international students can prefer Turkey as the cost of living is not so expensive as it is in the most popular countries.

With over 180 higher education institutions, over 140,000 academic staff, around 5.5 million tertiary students and increasing public finance support regardless of the global financial crisis, higher education in Turkey has certain advantages in the context of internationalisation in tertiary schools. These institutions have been experienced in participating in and benefiting from the educational facilities, funding and grants of European Union (Çetinsaya, 2014). On account of this, from now on it is even more easier to comply with the requirements of international education, propose new projects that can develop global teaching opportunities and bring about exchange of students and staff among the colleges.

Conclusion

In this sense, institutions of higher education are reevaluating their goals as they try to answer the following question: how can they best meet their students' expectations in terms of providing international

programmes for them and upgrading their academic skills in today's diverse world? As a response to this question, higher education institutions are trying to keep up with increasingly interconnected world by encouraging students to receive education outside their home countries due to their ever-increasing cooperations with partners all over the world. The popularity of exchange programs in foreign universities has grown considerably in recent years, also in the universities of Turkey have made profound efforts to attract students from different countries. With these international programmes, students have the opprtunities to learn about other cultures, to upgrade their international perspectives and skills and to develop their crosscultural understanding.

As it is a new concept in higher education, internationalization should be considered with more sound and organized strategies in order that Turkish universities can be more effective. Therefore, it should be handled as a government policy and all the plans and legislation should be prepared accordingly. In doing this, it is of utmost importance to maintain quality. In this regard, both the old and newly established universities should do their best in order to offer the best quality education so that it would worth for international students to come all the way from different parts of the world.

It is expected that student mobility will grow, however, institutions are in a competition to accept talented and self-funded students. Therefore, they should improve their recruitment efforts which can be implemented in a shorter time and with reasonable budgets. This is to be done with an awareness of global mobility trends and investment in analysing the decision-making process of their prospective students. (Choudaha and Chang, 2012) For this reason, it is important for these instituions to follow the changes and developments not only in global education but also in the various aspects of higher education.

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The Effect of Distance Education And Formal Education Students' Demographic Characteristics on The Level of Motivation, Personal Development And Usage of Computer During The Process of Education

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Abstract : In this study, the effect of distance education and formal education students' demographic characteristics on the level of motivation, personal development and usage of computer during the process of education has been researched. Students who received education in the Distance Education Centre and the students of Vocational High School who had formal education in Kırıkkale University during the fall semester of 2012-2013 year make out the sample of this research. Survey questions have been prepared by seeking the opinions of experts about the demographic characteristics, motivations, levels of personal development, cases of communication and usage of technology, capabilities about the usage of computer, training costs and usage of time and the capabilities about usage of operating systems and office programs of students. The survey has been conducted in order to get data and these data have been stored in the data base. The data of the students who have completed the survey in full have been analyzed by using the SPSS data analysis packaged software, and the results have been given as charts. The results about whether there is a significant relation between the students' demographic characteristic and types of education and the other factors that have been identified have been given in the analyses part of the paper. In the conclusion part of the study different proposals have been submitted separately to distance learning and formal education unities by interpreting about the charts that have been obtained..

Key words: Distance education; E-learning, Motivation

Pre-service teachers' learning styles: A case study in Turkey

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Abstract

This study examines pre-service teachers' learning styles and explores the association between their learning styles and various demographic variables, including gender, teaching program, grade level, general grade point average, and type of high school graduated. Participants were 1321 pre-service teachers (446 male, 875 female), studying in a middle sized public university (353 grade 1 (26.7%), 395 grade 2 (29.9%), 313 grade 3 (23.7%), and 260 grade 4 (19.7%)), located in the Mediterranean region of Turkey. Data were collected during the fall semester of 2013-2014 academic year, from the following teacher education programs; Computer and Teaching Technologies (N=109), Music Education (N=73), Arts Education (N=55), Science Education (N=173), Elementary Mathematics Education (N=137), Early Childhood Education (N=121), Elementary Education (N=332), Turkish Language Teaching (N=169), and Foreign Language Teaching (N=152). As data collection instrument, Kolb's Learning Style Inventory was utilized, which consisted of 12 items with four options that included four learning styles according to how learners perceive and process information; as divergers, assimilators, convergers, and accommodators. Results revealed that pre-service teachers had mainly converging (n=690, f=52.2%) and assimilating (n=350, f=26.5%) learning styles. Only a few of them preferred accommodating (n=149, f=11.3%) and diverging (n=132, f=10%) learning styles. In addition, the relationship between pre-service teachers' learning styles and the demographic variables were explored by conducting chi-square tests for independence. The results of the statistical tests revealed that there were significant association between pre-service teachers' learning styles and their gender (X^2 (3,1321)=14.83, p=.002, Cramer's V=.106), their teaching program (X^2 (24,1321)=47.94, p=.003, Cramer's V=.110), their grade level (X^2 (9,1321)=17.03, p=.048, Cramer's V=.066), and their general grade point average (X^2 (12,1321)=22.91, p=.029, Cramer's V=.076). However, there was no significant association between their learning styles and type of high school graduated (X^2 (15, 1321) =11.44, p=.72).

Keywords: Pre-service teachers, learning styles, learning style inventory, gender, teaching program, grade level, grade point average, high school

The impact of learning styles on pre-service teachers'attitudes toward teaching profession

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Abstract

This study examines the impact of learning styles on pre-service teachers' attitudes toward teaching profession. Data were collected during the fall semester of 2013-2014 academic year, from a total of 1321 pre-service teachers (446 male, 875 female), studying in a middle sized public university located in the Mediterranean region of Turkey. Participants were attending to the following teaching programs; Computer and Teaching Technologies (N=109), Music Education (N=73), Arts Education (N=55), Science Education (N=173), Elementary Mathematics Education (N=137), Early Childhood Education (N=121), Elementary Education (N=332), Turkish Language Teaching (N=169), and Foreign Language Teaching (N=152). As data collection instruments, Learning Style Inventory (Kolb, 1999) and Attitude Scale towards the Profession of Teaching (Ustuner, 2006) were used. One-way between-groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to explore the impact of learning styles on pre-service teachers' attitudes toward teaching profession. Participants were divided into four groups according to their learning styles, as converging, accommodating, assimilating, and diverging. Results revealed that there was a statistically significant difference at the $p<.05$ level for the four groups: $F(3, 1239)=6.17$, $p=.0001$. Despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was quite small. The effect size, calculated by using eta squared, was .0147. Post-hoc comparison using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean attitude score for convergers (M=138.59, SD=21.76) was significantly different from divergers (M=129.73, SD=24.89) with mean difference=8.85, p=.001, and from assimilators (M=134.50, SD=24.95) with mean difference=4.09, p=.049. The mean attitude score of accommodators (M=134.96, SD=25.12) did not differ significantly from any of the other groups.

Keywords: Pre-service teachers, learning styles, attitude, teaching profession, learning style inventory

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Brick and Mortar University on the Way to Virtual University

Abstract

Nowadays existence of every university is based on internet. In educational settings it is used for storing results and students' data, communication inside an organization, between an organization and students, teachers and students, between peers. Even brick and mortar universities are indeed semi- virtual organizations. It is no longer a question of using internet or not, it is a question of what it is used for. It is a profound dilemma especially for universities that have a reputation and long tradition of higher education. Internet lowers the costs of educational practices but how to preserve high outcomes of learning? What are the barriers that are needed to be overcome? How does it effect the academic level of students, faculty members and the institution by itself? Could all of the fields of study be offered as an online course? Presented is a sample of Art Education.

Key words: virtual university, blended learning, entrepreneurship in learning communities

Introduction

The Internet has transformed learning into a different level and has changed the character of a typical student, faculty and factors of universities. Gradually brick and mortar institutions offering higher education have implemented online collection of students' results. In 2000 to 2003 it was still rather a rare practice. Next step was offering online courses that soon has become very popular."The number of students taking at least one online course has expanded at a rate in excess of the growth of overall higher education enrollments" (Storey and Tebes 2008, p. 3) *Paule Chau* (2004) wrote in *„Online higher education commodity"* that "E- learning has developed and impacted all different fields of studying: business, criminal justice, health administration, psychology, accounting, information technology, pedagogy, art and design etc." Ongoing digitization of education is unquestionable in all levels: associates, bachelors, masters, doctorate degrees. All types of institutions of higher educations: profit and non profit, public and private, traditional brick and mortar are dependent on the internet. Universities have evolved from using internet to store data to offering online courses finally into Virtual Organization as itself. Internet lowers the costs of educational practices but how to preserve high outcomes of learning? It is the main question for brick and mortar universities today. But there are others: What are the barriers that are needed to be overcome? How does it affect the academic level of students, faculty members and the institution by itself? Could all of the fields of study be offered as an online course? It could be presented on example of Art Education. Answers to these questions will allow the command of the main thesis of the article contained in the question: Is a Virtual University able to educate students on the same level as a brick and mortar University?

Blended learning

How do online courses affect universities? To examine the financial effect we will look closely at the University of Phoenix that is the biggest private university in America with a peak enrollment of almost 600,000 students in 2010. Although the numbers have drastically changed since then, mainly due to change in the economical environment, it is still an interesting case to analyze. University of Phoenix has targeted working adults as big potential market. Carnevale and Olsen (2003) claim that there are an ‘‘estimated 70 million working adults [who] have never earned a college degree’’ (as cited in DeFleur and Adams 2004, p. 151 in *„Online higher education commodity”, Paule Chau 2004)*

With such a big number of people that are not able to attend regular university lectures, the University of Phoenix developed online courses. Which are much more accessible and cheaper for university. It is worth to look at numbers. In the year 2006 net earning of Phoenix University was 2 millions $ and in the following 3 years has increased almost one million up to 2.9 millions $, what has noticed by *Paule Chau.* This financial success in figures was mainly caused by offering online courses for adult students. The present financial crisis that the University struggles with has not changed that it is still the biggest private for-profit Institution that offers higher diplomas. After closing 115 brick-and-mortar locations they have still a nationwide network of 112 locations in 36 states, the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico and total enrollment of 328 0000 students. According to *New York Times (2012,p.A22): “*Enrollments at the University of Phoenix and in the for-profit sector over all have been declining in the last two years, partly because of growing competition from other online providers, including nonprofit and public universities, steady drum roll of negative publicity about the sector’s recruiting abuses, low graduation rates and high default rates.” To conclude three – quarters of their students were studying online and they were offered to move to nearby sites to continue their education in different institutions. This study shows that e-learning is still growing but wrong procedures of recruitment might be a threat for a bad publicity what effects monetary success of the institution.

What are the admission requirements to enter the University of Phoenix ? The University has targeted students that are working adults. Most of them finished their high school years earlier. All of their scores gained in the past might not be representing their ability to perform now and succeed as university students. More adequate is their current working experience as a criteria to enter the University. What has made the boom in number of enrollments of the University of Phoenix. On the other hand it was a threat for the level of academic achievements of graduate students. This easy admission made the room for abuse and further failure in substantive education of University of Phoenix. How ever it is not a risk for the growth of online courses. They are still a very attractive alternative to the traditional face to face learning but it is a threat for their academic level of achievements. Now every institution that offers higher education needs to incorporate online learning.

‘‘Based on a report by the Sloan Consortium, a consortium made up of institutions and organizations with the mission of integrating online education with mainstream higher education, in 2007 there were approximately 3.94 million online students, which marks a 12.9% increase from 2006 (Allen and Seaman 2008, p. 5)

Entrepreneurship in learning communities

Nowadays existence of every institution is based on the internet. In educational settings it is used for storing results and other students' data, communication inside an organization, between an organization - students, teachers - students, between peers. Even brick and mortar universities are indeed semi- virtual organizations. It is no longer a question of using the internet or not, it is a question of what it is used for. It is a profound dilemma especially for universities that have reputation and long tradition of higher education. Among an abundance that give on -line courses it is a threat that substantive level might drop as shown on example of mentioned before the University of Phoenix.

To give frame for this discussion we will focus on particular elements of functions of organizations that provide higher education. We will skip issues of protection and safety of storing data and the communication within educational settings. Internet lowers the costs of educational practices but how to preserve high outcomes of learning?

S.Hrastinski and J.Jaldemark after analyzing researches that had been conducted before (e.g., Fredericksen et al. 2000; Hiltz et al. 2000; Rovai 2007; Woo and Reeves 2007). are emphasizing that computer based communication between peers and teachers in educational realm has a positive effect. Face to face interaction is no more necessary to stimulate an intellectual growth of students. The easiness of access to information has changed the role of teachers from a person that stores knowledge in their head and has a monopoly on specialist's books to a guide that shows students reliable resources. Although the computer based communication has desired impact on studious growth of students it "is automatically and in most cases unintentionally built into mental functioning" (*S.Hrastinski, J.Jaldemark , 2011)*

How does it affect students psychology and their performance. What are the factors that decide whether the studies will be completed? Do students gain an overall understanding of their realm of study or do they gather unrelated to each other pieces of information. We will investigate this issue further on.

To examine challenges that occur in front of universities offering online courses We need to compare profile of an traditional and an online student. Face to face education offered a physical venue where learning was taking place. Students were gathered together were they could exchanged their ideas get an advice and mental support. Studying was a major task in their life and they could dedicate to it almost completely. They had common goal what made them feel as part of a community. All of these elements create environment for learning in brick and mortar universities. Thus people taking online courses are usually mature in their age. Apart from working often they have families to take care of. Their time is much more limited and they are isolated from other peers. "In fact, it has been argued that individual success or failure can depend on whether students feel like insiders rather than outsiders" (S.Hrastinski, J.Jaldemark, 2011) Therefore success of online seminars offered by semi or fully virtual universities lays significantly in creating and sustaining communities, where students could be able to get an advice, ask content related questions and receive emotional support. The feel of companionship would support their motivation to complete the studies. Crucial role of success of virtual or semi virtual universities is to create learning communities. Collaborative projects done through electronic media promote social communications that support learning outcome. Stefan Hrastinski and Jimmy Jaldemark (2011) have analyzed how online students interact on project group forums in relation to three aspects: social support,

information exchange, task management. It varies according to the internet tool being used and size of the team working together. To make it most effective and meaningful here are some suggestions to follow :

- „Encourage information exchange by establishing requirements and by giving students reasons to participate". Asking questions to prove their critical thinking skills.
- „Encourage shared task management among students." To avoid particular students to dominant the whole flow of discussion.
- „Encourage social support by organizing social events and by enabling private means of communication. Some students need more private means" to feel related to a group therefore more engaged in the project. Effectiveness of communication is also related to the comfort of knowing partners of discussion.

Further examining aspects of collaborative work : already Ling and Ku in 2006 found "that whether group members had similar or different backgrounds did not seem to have an impact on the degree of learning in an on - line course." *Chou, Pao-Nan* (2012)

Group projects support individual learning advanced concepts, moreover being exposed to comments of people from different backgrounds deepen the understanding of subject and possibilities of implementation the knowledge. Presence of a mentor on such online group assignment may intimidate some participants but it is a guarantee that substantive outcome will be placed. *Chou, Pao-Nan* (2012) wrote:"Spatariu et al. (2007) reported that a discussion leader's intervention would improve the quality of argumentation in online discussions."

Online tools of communications are mostly text related in order to create a complex learning there is a great need of planned live human interactions through internet during the course of study. Otherwise there is a threat that text might be misunderstood and wrongly interpreted. Another obstacle for online studying is the need of a social community of peers than for sure enhances learning. Chou and Pao -Nan (2012) have analyzed use of 5 different online tools that give variety of different stimulus in order to create motivated and effective learning environment.

They've examined cost effective (for free) online tools for seminars:

6. Blogging that encourages students to reflect on the subject, it could also storage description and requirements of course.
7. Skype conferences that help to avoid misunderstanding of text. Planned verbal life interactions might stimulate participants and minimize gaps in knowledge about the subject.
8. Podcasting the course instructor would need to prepare audio or video supporting aids to implement streaming of information.
9. Facebook in order to facilitate social support and create a learning community.
10. Wiki platform for the project so the course's mentor may observe and stimulate discussions.

All of the above online tools need to be launched by a university and operated by the course's instructors. It requires time to change teaching aids into online materials. So knowledge previously storage in instructor's head needs to be transformed into a online text or audio or video materials. Lack of face to face sessions creates a need of involvement in internet social medias in order to build a sense of community which

increases workload for the course's instructor. It involves different process of learning. Rohan Jowallah (2012) wrote: view this change as the “demonopolisation of teaching” which is the shifting from the ‘teacher focus approach’ to the ‘student centered learning approach’. Therefore, it will be imperative for universities to consider how they will use new technologies to enhance online pedagogy to improve support for research students.”

Creating an online course of study requires entrepreneurship and innovations. It is far different from just giving a lecture. The instructor needs to organize from the scratch the whole process of participant's learning. Though there were made different researches on online group projects, dynamic of every group is different and unexpected issues will appear also related to specific for the realm of subject. The course's instructor needs to be not only a lecturer as in the traditional brick and mortar universities but mentor and coordinator. Technology based group projects facilitate a bigger flow of content related exchange of information. It means that the instructor needs to be highly qualified in the field as well as proactive. While the duration of the project instructor’s role is to supervise work being done and check if it leads in the right direction. It might need redesigning the the whole project and task management. The coordinator needs to have manager’s skills of dealing with people and the whole group. “ These proficiencies will require online tutors to be creative teachers who are supportive of the learner, skilled in monitoring the learning environment, able to motivate and stimulate the learner, and able to create critical learning interaction between themselves and their students” (R.Jowallah 2012) Along with the strong learning community there needs to be provided diversity in ways of delivering knowledge by greatly flexible and critically thinking instructors.

And further “ highlights this importance by stating that the humanized classroom leads to improved learning experiences, student accomplishment, and student retention. “ (*R. Jowallah 2012)*

Online courses on example of Art Education

Art education is the field that needs practice of craftsmanship in variety of techniques. To master these techniques there needs to be time to explore media. It can not be studied just by reading someones experience it requires to be done physically. It is hard to be an expert in ceramics when you have never touched the clay and used the kiln. However it doesn’t mean that ceramics can not be offered as an online course. It would required a visit in ceramic art studios to experiment with the real medium. Students from all over the world before entering the course of study would need to researched if they would have access to an equipped art studios like: metal engraving, jewelry making, ceramic studio, photo studio, video studio, tailor studios, etc.. Technicians would be involved in the process of learning. Final result would be sent by post or just shown through video or sent by internet. Reflections done on internet, could be a proof of authentic and authorship of the projects. Part of the whole assignment could be gathering information of specifics of the medium as itself. It would require a variety general frames of the learning procedure but would give freedom of choosing field of study. So the learning would rely much more on participant's than the university. The University and instructor's role would on designing procedures and requirements to be fulfill, as well of method of assessing the project. Many universities that provide art education organize outdoor trips for painting. It could be an opportunity to build life community. All the knowledge based

courses like Art History might be enriched by the access to locally find artifacts. Students from Greece might be encourage to study and prepare video about art of ancient Greece. That would be shared with students from different parts of the world. It would make the study very meaningful and involving in their own cultural heritage. Methodology of teaching might be taught by showing video examples of successfully conducted lessons. Online courses of specific subjects that requires physical activities can be possibly successfully conducted. However the experience and knowledge gathered though the studies is far more specific so it is more recommended for higher then bachelor diploma. To be an expert of the field university students need to first gain general knowledge.

Conclusion

A Virtual University is an institution that offers higher diplomas however the profile of their students is far different. Success of virtual universities lays significantly in creating and sustaining supportive learning environment. It requires creating a community where students can get emotional support, and opportunity for peer learning. The feel of companionship that will motivate them to complete the studies. Presence of a supervisor for the online projects is a guarantee that substantive outcome will be placed. What means that course's instructor will need to be much more involved in students' process of learning. His role will change from a lecturer to manager . However face to face interaction is no more necessary to stimulate an intellectual growth of students. Online tools of communications are mostly text related in order to create a complex learning there is a great need of planned life human interactions through internet during the course of study. Otherwise there is a threat that text might be misunderstood and wrongly interpreted. Along with the strong learning community diversity in ways of delivering knowledge and many content base interaction and greatly flexible critically thinking instructors the outcome of studies is highly possible to be highly successful.

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EĞİTİM BAĞLAMINDA KUR'AN NASIL OKUNMALI VE NASIL ANLAŞILMALI*

Muhammed Aydın

Kuran; Allah'ın, Hz Muhammed aracılığıyla insanlara indirdiği ilahi kelamıdır. İnsanlar Kuran vesilesiyle ilahi hitaba muhatap olmuşlar ve bir insanın nasıl bir hayata sahip olması gerektiği hususunda bilgi sahibi olmuşlardır. Bu bilgiye sahip olmanın doğal bir sonucu olarak Kuranda var olan hükümlerden de sorumlu tutulmuşlardır. Kuran'da var olan hükümlerin doğru anlaşılabilmesi için de temel prensip olarak Hz. Muhammed'in (sav) sünnetine ittiba edilmelidir ki Kuran'ın hükümleri doğru anlaşılabilsin ve açıklanabilsin. Bununla birlikte Kuran'ın doğru anlaşılabilmesi için gerekli olan bir diğer husus ise onun nasıl okunması gerektiğidir. Kuran, Allah'ın kelamı olduğu için kendine has bir okuma üslubu olmalı kendine has bir anlaşılma tarzı olmalıdır. Yazımız bu minvalde olacak ve Kuran'ın nasıl okunması ve anlaşılması gerektiği hususlarına değineceğiz.

Kuran Nasıl Okunmalı

Kuran Allah'ın kelamı ve indirdiği vahyi olduğu için onu okumaya da Allah'ın emrettiği şekilde besmele ile başlanmalı ve okunmalıdır.[14] Besmele çekerek Kuran'ı okumak kişiyi vesveselerden uzak tutar ve Allah'la muhatap olduğunun bilincinde olmasına yardım eder. Hz. Peygamber (sav) yaptığı her işe besmele ile başlardı. İnsanların dikkatini çekip bir konuşma ilka edeceği zaman yüksek sesle besmele çeker öyle konuşmaya başlardı. Hz. Süleyman (as) Belkıs'a göndermiş olduğu mektuba besmele ile başlamış ve öyle teslim olun demiştir.[15]

Besmelenin önemini hem ayetlerle hem de sünnet kanalıyla anlamak için vermiş olduğumuz bu örneklerde Müslümanın yaptığı her işte besmele çekmesinin ehemmiyetini görüyoruz. Hal böyle olunca yapılan işlerin en önemlilerinden olan Kuran'ı Kerim'i okumaya besmeleyle başlanmasının ehemmiyeti daha iyi anlaşılır.

Kişinin Kuran okumaya besmeleyle başlaması onu Allah'a yakınlaştırması ve bunu bilinçli yapmasına yardım etmesinin yanında niyetinin de samimi olduğunu belirten bir fiildir. Müslüman bir kimse yaptığı işlerde samimi olmalı ibadetlerinde günlük yaşantısında bütün fiillerinde niyetinin sahih, salih olmasını gözetmelidir. Bundan dolayı Kuran okumakta ki daha genel olarak ibadetlerinde ki niyetini doğru tutmalıdır. Hz. Peygamberin de "Ameller niyetlere göredir"[16] hadisini kendimize kaynak aldığımızda sadece o işi yapmış olmanın sevap kazanmaya ve Allah katında makbul olmasına yetmeyeceğini anlıyoruz. Bilakis bunların gerçekleşmesi için gerekli olan temel esasın niyet olduğunu görüyoruz.

Kuran'ı okumaya başladığımız zaman dikkat etmemiz gereken bir diğer husus ise vesvesedir. Bu şeytanın insanı yaptığı ibadetten iyiliklerden alıkoyması için yaptığı bir oyundur. Şeytan insanları Allah'ın yolundan alıkoyacağını onların yoluna oturup o yoldan

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[14] Nahl 98
[15] Neml 30
[16] Sahih-i Buhari 1, Ebu Davud 2201

uzaklaştıracağını biz ayetle biliyoruz.[17] Şeytanın insanları Allah'ın yolundan alıkoyması kolundan tutup uzaklaştırmak ya da bir başka fiziksel müdahaleyle mümkün değildir. Onun, bunu yapması için kullandığı ise vesvesenin kendisidir. O yüzden Müslüman kimse şeytanın oyunlarına karşı daima açıkgözlü olmalı, dikkat etmeli ve bundan Allah'a sığınmalıdır.[18] Vesveselerden uzak bir şekilde Kuran okuyabilmek için ise yukarıda da belirttiğimiz gibi ilk olarak niyetimiz doğru olmalı ve zihnimizden günlük olayları uzaklaştırıp ona odaklanmalıyız. Ancak bu şekilde kendimizi şeytanın vesveselerinden koruyabiliriz.

Allah Kuran'da birçok ayette insanın tedebbür[19] ve tefekkür[20] etmesini, akletmesini[21] ister. Allah'ın insanın düşünmesini istemesinde birçok hikmet vardır ki bu hikmetlerden bir tanesi Allah'ın varlığının her şeye işlenmiş olmasıdır. Tefekkür ve tedebbür halinde bulunan bir kimse bu fiillerinin doğal bir neticesi olarak akledecek ve kainata, çevresine baktığında üstün bir yaratıcının varlığına şahit olacak ve bu da onu Allah'ın varlığını kabul etmeye götürecektir. Çünkü var olan hiçbir şey yoktur ki yaratıcısı olmasın. Nasıl ki bir iğnenin bile bir imalatçısı var bunca büyüklükte ki evrenin yıldızların gezegenlerin de bir yaratıcı vardır. Çevresi hakkında daima tefekkürde bulunan kimse her yerde Allah'ın yaratmasını O'nun azametini görecektir. Bundan dolayıdır ki Allah kendi azametinin bilinmesi farkında olunması için insanın daima tefekkür halinde bulunmasını istemektedir. Tefekkürde bulunmak ise nisyan ile malul olan insanın daima Allah'ı hatırlamasına her şeyi yaratanın o olduğunu akıldan çıkarmamasına bir vesiledir. Allah'ın azametini unutmamak onun tek sonsuz ve her şeyin yaratıcısı olduğunu unutmamanın yolu da buradan geçer.

Tedebbür konusunda ise şunları söyleyebiliriz; Tedebbür, Allah'ın ayetlerini okurken durup dikkatli ve etraflıca düşünmek onunla amel etmek ve ondan ders çıkarmaktır. Tedebbür için Müslüman kimse ayetleri okuduğu esnada bütün bedeniyle uzuvlarıyla ona yönelmeli ve okuduğu ayetlerin Allah'ın Hz. Peygamber yoluyla kendisiyle yaptığı bir konuşma olduğunun idrakinde olmalıdır. İbn Kayyım tedebbür için; Kişinin bir işin başına ve sonuna iyice bakması ve tekrar tekrar bu fiili yapmasıdır. Bundan dolayı da tedebbür tefeğğul kalıbında gelmiştir, demiştir. Aynı şekilde İbn Kayyım tedebbür için "Kuran'dan faydalanmak istiyorsan kalbini okumaya ve dinlemeye ver çünkü O, Allah'ın Hz. Muhammed (sav) aracılığıyla seninle konuşmasıdır" demiştir.

Bunun dışında tefekkür, tedebbür ve akletmede ki bir diğer incelik; İnsanla hayvanlar arasında ki çizginin akıl olduğudur. İnsanları hayvanlardan ayırt eden onların akletmesi ve düşünce sahibi olmalarıdır. Bütün bunlardan dolayı insan kendisine akıl verdiği için Allah'a devamlı şükretmeli ve devamlı bir zikir halinde bulunmalıdır.

Tedebbür, tefekkür ve taakkul konusuna yüzeysel olarak değindikten sonra Kuranın bu düsturlar üzere okunması onun anlaşılması için de önemli bir anahtardır. Çünkü Allah insandan hayatının her anında düşünmesini ve vermiş olduğu aklı kullanmasını istemektedir. Tedebbürsüz ve tefekkürsüz okunan bir Kuran da bu düsturlar olmaksızın düz bir yazı olacak

[17] Araf 16,17
[18] Nas 4,5
[19] Nisa 82, Muhammed 24
[20] Ali İmran 191, Araf 176, Nahl 69,
[21] Bakara 164, Rad 4, Nahl 12, Ankebut 63

ve okuyana bir anlam ifade etmeyecektir. Allah'ın kelamını anlamak ve onu yaşamak için insanın bunu hissetmesi ruhen ve bedenen bunu yaşaması ancak tedebbür ve tefekkürle mümkündür. Kuran okurken her ayette her kelimede durup düşünmeli ilahi maksadın ne olduğunu anlamaya çalışmalıyız.

Kuran okunurken dikkat edilmesi gereken bir diğer husus ise yukarıda anlatılanlarla da irtibatlı olarak, kişinin kalp gözünün açık bir şekilde Kuran'ı okumasıdır. Kuran'ı Kerim'i okuyan bunu sadece dilin dönmesinden ibaret tutmamalı okuduğu ayetleri hissetmeli hayatında bunları tatbik etmelidir. Aksi takdirde hayata yansıtılmayan bir Kuran o kişinin imanının da tahkiki olmadığını gösterir. Tahkiki bir iman Kuran'ın sünnet ışığında okunmasını ve yaşanmasını gerektirir.

Allah Kuran'da bildirdiği üzere Peygamber'in (sav) kalkıp Kuran'ı Kerim'i yavaş yavaş yani tertil üzerine okumasını emretmektedir.[22] Bir başka ayette yine Kuran'ın Hz. Peygamber'in (sav) kalbine yerleşsin diye azar azar indirildiği ve yavaş yavaş okunduğu zikredilmektedir.[23] Bu ayetten de anlaşılacağı üzere Kuran'ı okurken yavaş okumanın esas olduğunu görmekteyiz. Çünkü o, yavaş okunmayıp üstün körü bir şekilde süratle okunduğunda verilmek istenen mesaj alınamayacak salt bir okumadan ibaret olacaktır. Kişinin bundan dolayı Kuran okurken ayetleri yavaşça okuması ve verilmek istenen mesajı almak çaba sarf etmesi güzeldir. Bu şekilde okunduğu takdirde Kuran'ı Kerim kendisini her seferinde o kişiye daha fazla açacak ve manalarına daha kavi bir şekilde mazhar olacaktır.

Kuran'ı Kerim'i her okuduğunda kişinin alacağı ders her seferinde farklıdır. O öyle bir kitaptır ki kendisini referans alan yüzlerce yıl boyunca binlerce eser ortaya çıkmıştır ve çıkmaktadır. O bitmek bilmen bir deryadır. Hayatın her alanında her anında her probleminde sıkıntısında rehber olma özelliğini yitirmeyen bir kitaptır. Bir kişi eşiyle bir problem yaşadığında bunun çözümünü Kuran'da bulabilir. Ya da bir kimse sıkıntısıyla alakalı bir çözüm bulamazsa bile bunun çözümünü Kuran kaynaklı sünnette sahabe yaşantısında veyahut selef düşüncesinde bulabilir. Bu Kuran'ın Yüce Allah'ın kelamı oluşunun da ayrı bir delilidir. Yani Kuran çağları aşan bir rehber, her zamanda her mekanda kendisine zemin bulan bir kitaptır. Bundan dolayı kişi, ben Kuran'ı bir kere ya da iki kere okudum artık bana bu okuduklarım yeter deyip bırakmamalı defaatle okumaya devam etmeli hayatının her anına Kuran'ı rehber edinmelidir. Çünkü O, her seferinde ona başka bir kapı açacak aynı ayeti her okuyuşunda başka bir anlam başka bir ders çıkaracaktır. Kuran'ı bir sefer okumakla bırakmamalı onu hayatın merkezine oturtmalıdır. Her başı sıkıştığında ya da sıkışmadığında ona başvurmalı, onu okumalıdır.

Müslüman kimse Kuran okurken bir başka meseleye daha dikkat etmelidir ki o da onun bir bütünlük için de okunması gerektiğidir. Kuran'ın bütünlüğü göz ardı edildiği takdirde birkaç sıkıntı ortaya çıkabilir. Bunları sıralamak gerekirse şunlar söylenebilir; Bir ayetin başı alınıp ardı kesilebilir. Ya da nesh olunmuş bir ayet hala uygulanıyormuş gibi gösterilebilir. İçki ayetleri buna örnek olarak gösterilebilir.[24] İçkinin bu ayet delil alınarak haram olmadığı

[22] Müzzemmil 4
[23] Furkan 32
[24] Bakara 219

söylenirse bu şeriata aykırı olacaktır. Çünkü içki daha sonra ki ayetlerle yasaklanmış ve haram kılınmıştır.[25] Kişi Kuran'ı okurken bütünlüğünü dikkate alıp okuması bu sebeplerden dolayı elzemdir.

Ayetler bağlamından koparılmamalı her ayet bağlamında okunmalı ve anlaşılmalıdır. Bunun dışında sadece cennet ayetleri ya da barış ayetleri okunmamalıdır. Kuran okunduğunda her konudan okunmalıdır. Çünkü Kuran hayatı, hayat ise her şeyi kapsar. Hayatta barış da vardır savaş da. Güzellik de vardır çirkinlik de. Bundan dolayıdır ki Kuran okurken bir sayfanın tamamında sadece cennet ayetleri ya da bir sayfada sadece cehennem ayetleri olmaz. Bir sayfada hatta bir ayetin içinde birden farklı konuları görmemiz mümkündür. Çünkü ilahi hitabın tabiatı bunu gerektirir.

Kişinin Kuran okurken düştüğü en büyük handikaplardan biri de önyargılarıdır. Önyargı kelimesini çok geniş bir anlamda kullanırsak bunun içerisine kişinin sosyal çevresi mensubu olduğu cemaat tarikat ya da mezhebi girer. İnsanın sosyal bir varlık olması bu handikaplardan kurtularak Kuran'ı o şekilde okuması elbette zordur. Ama insan bunun için çaba sarf etmeli ve ilahi kelamın ne demek istediğini daha iyi anlamaya çalışmalıdır. Bugün bir grup çıkıp Allah'ın kafir dediğine Müslüman diyebilmekte ya da kendisini Müslüman addeden bir grup çıkıp Müslümanları Allah'ın ayetleriyle tekfir edip çok rahat bir şekilde öldürebilmektedir. Bunların temelinde yatan, kişinin önyargıları ve mensubu olduğu çevrelerdir. Bu handikabın içinde olan insanlara neyin doğru olduğunu anlatmak ise her ne kadar zor olsa da biz Müslümanların görevidir.

Yukarıda bahsettiklerimizin bağlamında şunu zikretmek de elzemdir ki o da şudur; Kişi kendi Kuran okumasının yanında bir hocayla birlikte de Kuran okumalı ve onun eşliğinde tefsir derslerine katılmalıdır. Çünkü avamın anladığı ile ilim ehlinin anladığı arasında farklar olabilir. Bu çok normal bir durumdur. Normal bir kimse sadece ayetin anlamına göre okurken ilim ehli kimse ise ayeti, surenin ve Kuran'ın bağlamı ve bütünlüğü içinde anlar ve anlamlandırır. Normal bir kimse arapça bilmeyebilirken tefsirle uğraşan bir kimse Arapçayı bilir ve Arapçanın kaidelerine göre anlam verir. Bunlar bir bütün olduğunda bir alimle ders yapmanın önemi burada ortaya çıkmaktadır.

Bunun dışında her Müslümanın kendine ait günlük dersi olmalı ve istikrarlı bir şekilde Kuran okumalıdır. Günümüzde yapılan tercüme faaliyetleriyle birlikte Türkçeye tercüme edilen güvenilir tefsir kitaplarını takip etmeli meal okumaları yapmalı ve takıldığı yerde kesinlikle bir hocaya danışmalıdır.

Müslümanlar kendi mahallelerinde arkadaş gruplarında eşleriyle çocuklarıyla birlikte oturup ders yapmalı birlikte Kuran okumalıdırlar. Çünkü herkesin anladığı başka bir şey olabilir. Ortak okumalarda bu şekilde bir fikir havuzu oluşur ve alışverişle daha güzel sonuçlar ortaya çıkar. Cemaatte bereket olduğu için bunun da burada göz önünde bulundurulması ve birlikte ders okunmasında fayda vardır.

[25] Maide 90

Kuran'ı Nasıl Anlamalıyız

A.

HZ. PEYGAMBER (SAV) KURAN'I NASIL AÇIKLADI

Kuran'ı nasıl anlamamız gerektiği sorusuna bir cevap aramadan önce cevaplamamız gereken ilk soru Hz. Peygamber'in (sav) onu nasıl açıkladığı sorusudur. Açıklamanın birinci adımı olarak Rasulullah (sav) Kuran'ı insanlara tebliğ etmiş ve onlara vahyi okumuştur. Tebliğ görevini ise yerine getirmesi iki şekilde olmuştur. Birinci kısım bunu sözlü olarak insanlara aktarması ikinci kısmı da bunu hayatında tatbik etmesidir.

Hz. Peygamber'in (sav) hayatı Kuran'ın kendisiydi. O yüzden O'nun (sav) Kuran'ı nasıl anladığını ve açıkladığını görmek istiyorsak nasıl yaşadığını bilmek zorundayız. Yani O'nun (sav) sünneti seniyyesini idrak etmek zorundayız. Nitekim Hz. Aişe (ra) Annemiz, kendisine Resulullah'ın (sav) ahlakı sorulduğunda, siz hiç Kuran okumaz mısınız, diye cevap vermiştir. [26] Yani bununla Hz. Peygamber'in (sav) ahlakının yaşantısının Kuran olduğunu belirtmiştir.

Aynı şekilde Hz. Peygamber (sav) Kuran'da açıklanmayan hususlarda da bir açıklayıcı konumunda olup bunlara açıklık getirmiştir. Namazın nasıl kılınacağı hususunda "benden gördüğünüz şekilde kılınız" diyerek namazın nasıl kılınacağına açıklık getirmiştir.[27] Bunun yanında Allah Kuran'da Hz. Peygamber'in (sav) Kuran'ı insanlara bir açıklayıcı olarak indirdiğini beyan etmektedir.[28] Son nokta olarak, neden her şey Kuran'da tam olarak açıklanmamış gibi bir soru sorulduğunda verilecek cevap şudur ki; Eğer Kuran her şeyi açıklamış olsaydı ciltler dolusu bir kitap olacaktı. Bunun bir sonucu olarak bir düstur olan Kuran'dan istifade zorlaşacak ve karmaşık bir hal alacaktı. Bundan dolayıdır ki çerçeveyi çizen Kuran'ı açıklamak Hz. Peygamber (sav) görevi olmuştur.

Kuran'ın indirildiği dönemin insanının diline uygun olması da Hz. Peygamber'in (sav) Kuran'ı açıklama görevinin olduğunu gösteren ayrı bir noktadır. Kuran özelde o zamanın Arap toplumunun sosyolojik ve psikolojik yapısına uygun bir kitap görünümündedir. Fakat böyle olmasına rağmen bazen Kuran'ı anlama noktasında sıkıntıya düşmüşler ve bu noktalarda da Hz. Peygamber (sav) tebyin görevini yerine getirerek bu noktaları açıklamıştır. Ayrıca İnsanların kendi aralarında sıkıntıya düştükleri noktalarda ya da hayata mutaallik meselelerde ki problemlerinde bir elçi olarak vahiy kaynaklı açıklamalarda bulunarak yol göstermiştir. Yukarıda vermiş olduğumuz örneklerden de bunu anlamak mümkündür.

İnanan insanların yanında ümmet-i davet olan insanlar için de onları İslam'a davet etmek suretiyle Kuran'ı açıklamış ve onları İslam'a davet etmiştir. Yirmi üç yıl boyunca hiçbir şekilde vazgeçmeden davet faaliyetinde bulunmuş ve Kuran'ı Müslüman olmayanlara da açıklamıştır. Bu görevini yerine getirmek için daha bisetin ilk yıllarında tüm Mekke ehlini karşısına almış onları hak din olan İslam'a davet edip tek olan Allah'a çağırmışıtır. Çünkü bu davet sadece inananların muhatap olduğu değil ya da tek bir topluluğun tekelinde olan bir şey değil bilakis tüm insanlığın muhatap olduğu bir davettir. O yüzdendir ki Allah (cc)

[26] Sahihu'l-Cami; Albani 4811
[27] Zehebi; Tenkıhu't-Tahkik 1/164
[28] Nahl 64

Kuran'da şöyle buyurmaktadır; "Bu Kur'ân, kendisiyle uyarılsınlar, Allah'ın ancak bir tek ilâh olduğunu bilsinler ve akıl sahipleri öğüt alsınlar diye insanlara gönderilmiş bir tebliğdir."[29] Biz Müslümanlar olarak Allah'ın (cc) bu ayette buyurduğu ve Hz. Peygamber'in de (sav) uyguladığı gibi tüm insanları ayırt etmeksizin İslam'a davet etmek zorundayız. Bu görevi yerine getirelim ki hesap günü kendisine ilahi mesajın ulaşmadığı insanlar tarafından, bu mesajı niye bize ulaştırmadınız itabıyla karşılaşmayalım.

SAHABELER KURAN'I NASIL ANLADI

Sahabe efendilerimiz Kuran'ı kendi dillerinin Arapça olması ve Hz. Peygamber'in (sav) dizinin dibinde yetişmelerinin bir sonucu olarak rahat bir şekilde anlıyorlardı. Fakat Kuran'ın kendine has bir üslubunun olması ve her sahabenin ilmi olarak aynı seviyede olmamaları çeşitli noktalarda birbirlerine Kuran hakkında ya da anlamadıkları yer hakkında sorular sormuşlardır. Nitekim Abdullah b. Mesud (ra), hiçbir ayet yoktur ki nerede indirildiğini bilmeyeyim demiştir. Bu O'nun Kuran'a ne kadar vakıf olduğunu gösteren bir rivayettir. Abdullah b. Mesud'un (ra) dışında oruç meselesinde geçen beyaz iplik ve siyah iplikten kastın ne olduğunu anlama noktasında ilmi yetersiz olan Adiyy b. Hatim de mevcuttur. Ama aralarında ki ilmi farklılık birbirlerine Kuran'ı öğretmekten bilgilerini aktarmaktan alıkoymamıştır. Nitekim Mucahid b. Cabir (ra), Kuran'ı Kerim'i Hz. Abbas'a (ra) üç kere başından sonuna okuduğunu ve her ayette durup ne anlama geldiğini sorduğunu aktarmaktadır.

Sahabe efendilerimiz Kuran'ı tam anlamıyla idrak edebilmek ve hayatlarına tatbik edebilmek için her seferinde belli bir takım ayetleri kendilerine alırlar onu enine boyuna tartar ve özümserlerdi. Özümsedikleri ayetleri hayatlarına tatbik etmeden de başka ayetlere geçmezlerdi. Bu onların Kuran'ı ne derece hayatlarının merkezinde tuttuklarına dair ufak bir enstantanedir.

SAHABE KURAN'I NASIL TEFSİR ETTİ

Bu açıklamaları yaptıktan sonra Sahabenin Kuran'ı nasıl tefsir ettiğini ele almanın, onların Kuran'ı nasıl anladıklarına dair bize önemli noktaları göstereceğini düşünüyoruz.

Sahabe efendilerimiz Kuran'ı tefsir ederken Kuran'ı her zaman birinci kaynak olarak kullanmışlardır. Kuran'ı en iyi açıklayanın Kuran'ın kendisi olduğunu bilen sahabiler hakkında bilgi sahibi oldukları meselelerde Kuran'ı Kuran'la tefsir etme yoluna gitmişlerdir. Tevil edecekleri zaman da yine tevile Kuran'dan delillerle gitmişler hiçbir zaman kafalarından uydurdukları bir şekilde tevile kalkışmamışlardır. Hz. Ömer'in (ra) Tekvir 7. ayeti, Saffat 22-23 ve Vakıa 7-10 ayetlerle tefsir etmesi buna örnektir.[30]

Kuran'ı Kuran'la tefsirin yanına sünnetle tefsire de büyük önem vermişlerdir. Çünkü bu dini tebliğ eden tebyin eden Hz. Peygamber'den (sav) başkası değildir. Hz. Peygamber'in (sav) dizinin dibinde yetişen sahabe efendilerimiz O'nun vahiyle alakalı yapmış olduğu her beyanı can kulağıyla dinlemiş ve hafızalarına kaydetmişlerdir. Kuran'ı tefsir ederken de

[29] İbrahim 52
[30] Tekvir 7, Saffat, 22-23, Vakıa 7-10

Kuran'la tefsir etmede yetersiz kaldıklarında sünnete başvurmuşlardır. Aynı şekilde Kuran'ı Kuran'la tefsir etme noktasında dahi hiçbir zaman Hz. Peygamber'in (sav) sünnetinin dışına çıkmamışlardır. Hz. Peygamber'in (sav) tefsirine örnek verecek olursak; Enes (ra) rivayetle, "bir gün Allah'ın resulüyle oturmuştuk, O gökyüzüne bakıp tebessüm etti. Biz O'na, Ey Allah'ın Resulü seni güldürdü dediğimizde bize kendisine Kevser suresinin indirildiğini buyurup bu sureyi okudu. Sonra bize; "Kevser ne demek biliyor musunuz?" deyince biz, "Allah resulü daha iyi biliriz dedik. O (sav) bunun üzerine, "Kevser, Rabbimin bana vadettiği bir nehirdir" buyurdular, demiştir.[31]

Sahabeler, Kuran'ı Kuran'la ya da sünnetle tefsir edemedikleri zaman ise tefsirini bilemedikleri ayetleri birbirlerine danışırlardı. İbn Abbas'ın (ra) Hz. Ömer'e (ra) Hz. Peygamber (sav) yanına giden iki kadın hakkında sorunca Hz. Ömer (ra) o ikisinin Hafsa ve Aişe (ra) olduklarını haber vermiştir.

Yukarıda bahsettiğimiz sahabelerin tefsir metotlarının yanında son olarak bir metot vardır ki bu metotta onların ilmi seviyeleri önemli yer tutar. Bu metot ise kendi içtihatlarıyla yaptıkları tefsir metodudur. Abdullah b. Abbas'ın (ra) Nasr suresinin tefsirini kendi içtihadıyla yapması buna bir delildir. Çünkü sahabeler ilim ehli kimseler arasında içtihat yapmaya en layık insanlardır. Onlar Arapçanın inceliklerine vakıf olmakla birlikte Kuran'ın nüzulüne şahit olmuşlar ve Hz. Peygamber'in (sav) dizinin dibinde yetişme şerefine nail olmuşlardır.

Bu tefsir metotlarının yanında zikredilmeye değer bir diğer husus ise sahabelerden bazılarının tefsir ederken ehli kitaba başvurmaları zikredilebilir. Bunun hikmeti olarak Kuran'ın Tevrat ve İncil'le ittifak ettiği noktalar olduğunu bilmek gerekir. Ehli Kitaba başvurulan konular ise genelde peygamberler hakkında ki kıssalar ve geçmiş ümmetlerden haberleri ihtiva etmektedir.

KURAN'IN TEFSİRİNDE RİVAYET VE DİRAYET METODU

Kuran'ı daha iyi anlamak için ayetlere kelime anlamlarının verilmesinin yanında onların tefsir edilmesi gerekir. Çünkü beliğ olan Kuran'da ayetlerin sadece ifade ettikleri anlamlara müteallik olması tek bir anlam içermesi onun tabiatına aykırıdır.

Kuran'ın tefsir edilmesinin gereklerinden bir tanesi de ayetlerin bir kısmının müteşabih olmasıdır.[32] Müteşabih ayetler, anlam bakımından çok açık olmadığı için tefsir ve tevil edilmeye ihtiyaç duyarlar. Bu ve benzeri sebeplerden dolayı Kuran tefsir edilmeye açıklanmaya ihtiyaç duyar. Bu, biz Müslümanlar için de olmazsa olmazdır. Tefsir ederken de iki tane metot vardır. Bunlardan birincisi rivayet ikincisi de dirayet metodudur.

RİVAYET METODU

Rivayet metodu, Kuran'ın Kuran'la tefsir edilmesi, Hz. Peygamber'in (sav) Kuran'ı tefsiri, Sahabenin ve Selefi Salihin tefsirlerine dayanır. Bu metotta asıl olan kişinin kendi ilmi birikiminden yola çıkarak tefsir yapmaya kalkışması değil halihazırda Hz. Peygamber'den

[31] Sahihi Müslim, Namaz bölümü 635
[32] Ali İmran 7

(sav) itibaren yapılmış olan tefsirlerin rivayetine dayanır. Kısaca söylemek gerekirse, bu tefsir metodunda rey kabul edilmemiş sadece rivayet esas alınmıştır.

DİRAYET METODU

Bu tefsir çeşidi bir zorunluluk karşısında ortaya çıkmıştır. Çünkü İslâm'ın ilk devirlerinde Araplar, Arap Yarımadası'nda iken, dillerinin bozulmamış saf haline sahiptiler. Zamanla İslâm topraklarının sınırları genişleyip yabancı milletler ve yabancı kültürler ile karşılaşınca, daha önce dillerinde bulunan melekeleri zayıfladı. Bundan dolayı da Arap dilini korumak için kaidelere ihtiyaç duyuldu. Hele Arap olmayanların bu lisanı öğrenmesi, Arapçanın gramerine bağlı bir işti. Kuran da Arap dili ile nazil olduğundan, onun anlaşılması bazı ilimlere ihtiyaç göstermekte idi. Bu ve bunun gibi diğer amiller dirayet tefsirinin doğmasında başrolü oynadı.[33]

Dirayet tefsirinin caiz olup olmaması hususunda da İslâm âlimleri fikir ayrılığına düşmüşlerdir. Bazıları Hz. Peygamber'in (sav) "Kuran'ı kendi reyiyle tefsir eden kişi, isabet bile etse, hata etmiştir"[34] hadisini delil getirerek dirayet tefsirine karşı çıkmışlardır. Bazıları da bu görüşe cevaben, hadiste ki maksadın hadis ve eserleri hiç dikkate almadan, kişinin kendi arzusuna göre tefsir etmesinin kastedildiğini söyleyerek kendilerine Kuran'daki düşünceye davet eden ayetleri de delil getirerek dirayet tefsirini anladıklarını ortaya koymuşlardır. Bu şekilde yapılan tefsirin caiz olduğunu savunmuşlardır. Böylece dirayet tefsirleri yazarak, zamanımızda bize bile Kuran'la ilgili birçok hakikatin anlaşılmasında yardımcı olmuşlardır.

Bu çeşit tefsiri benimseyenler, Kuran'ı Kerim'i yorumlamak için, önce Kuran'a, sonra hadislere, ayetlerin nüzul sebeplerine ve Sahabenin görüşlerine başvurmuşlardır. Şayet bunlarda aranılan bir meseleye çözüm bulunamazsa, kelimenin sözlük ıstılah ve sarf ile ilgili yönlerini dikkate alarak irab, belâgat, hakikat ve mecaz gibi Arap dilinin sanat ve diğer yönleri ile ayetlere açıklama ve yorumlar getirmeye çalışmışlardır. Yine bu tefsirlerde tarihî, ilmî ve sosyal birtakım gerçeklere de yer vererek ayetleri en iyi şekilde açıklamaya çalışma gayesini gütmüş olan dirayet tefsircileri, usul olarak konulan bu kaideleri genellikle ihmal etmişlerdir.[35]

Dirayet tefsiri, temel itibarıyla içtihada dayandığından bu tefsir ile şu eleştirilerde bulunulmuştur: İctihad/Rey ile tefsir Allah'a karşı bilmeden söz söylemektir. Rey'in kaynağı da zan olduğu için bu metoda dayanarak tefsir etmek cehalet kokulu bir tefsir olur. Böyle bir tefsir de yasaktır.. Kur'an hakkında kendi reyi ile söz söyleyen, Cehennemdeki yerine hazırlansın, diyen peygamberden başka birinin Kuran'ın manasını beyan ve izaha yetkisi olamaz.

[33] İsmail Cerrahoğlu, Tefsir Usulü Ankara 1979 sf. 230
[34] Suyuti, el-Camiu's-Sağir, II, 543; Ebu Davud, Sünen, II, 287
[35] Cerrahoğlu a.g.e 231

Bunun mukabilinde rey tefsirini câiz gürenler görüşlerini şu ifadelerle teyid etmileşlerdi; Bilindiği gibi zan da ilim çeşitlerindendir. İçtihat edip de isabet edene Hz. Peygamber (s.a.v) iki, etmeyene bir ecir mükafatının olduğunu haber vermiştir. Muâz b. Cebel'in Yemen'e gönderilirken verdiği cevapta Kuran, Sünnet ve reyimle hükmederim deyişinden Hz. Peygamber (s.a.v) memnun olmuş ve ona dua etmişti.

Biz Kur'an'ı Nasıl Anlamalıyız

İlk olarak Kuran'ı anlamanın önemine değinirsek şunları söylemek gerekir. Kuran aslın aslı, dinin temelidir. Din, dünya ve ahiret meseleleri onunla açıklığa kavuşur. Bunlardan dolayı Kuran kendisiyle amel edilsin diye indirilmiş bir kitaptır. Kuran ile amel edebilmek için de onu anlamak gerekir. Onu anlamayan kimsenin durumu, kendilerine kralları tarafından bir yasa verilen halkın onu anlamamasına benzer. Bu topluluk bu yasayı yüceltir başlarının üzerine koyar ve takdis ederler. Fakat yasanın içinde bulunan emirleri yasakları gidilmemesi gereken yolları anlamadıkları için bilmezler. Kuran'ı anlamadığı halde salt okuyan başının üstünde takdis eden kimsenin misali de buna benzer. Kuran'ın neyi yasakladığını neyi emrettiğini bilmeden onu okumanın kişiye sağladığı hiçbir menfaat ve yarar yoktur.

Kuran'ı anlamamanın bir başka anlamı ilmin ortadan kalkması ve yok olmasıdır. İlmin ortadan kalkması ilk olarak huşunun ortadan kalkmasıyla gerçekleşir. Kuran'ın anlamlarına vakıf olamayan kimselerde ne huşu olur ne de ihlas onlar sadece lafız olarak Kuran'ı okurlar fakat anlamlarına vakıf olamazlar. Kuran'ı anlamamanın sonucunda onunla amel eden kimse kalmayacak onu kimse anlamayacak aslı olduğu halde insanların arasından alınacaktır. Kısacası Kuran'ı anlamak ancak ondan istifade etmekle olur. İstifadenin birinci şartı ise onu hakkıyla anlamaktan geçer.

Kuran'ı hakkı ile anlamada ki bir diğer incelik ise bu amelin neticesinde büyük sevap ve ecir kazanmak vardır. Hz. Peygamber (sav) sahabelerine hanginiz her gün iki tane ayet öğrenmek için mescide gelir, çünkü bu sizin iki tane deve elde etmenizden daha hayırlıdır, buyurmuşlardır. Bunun yanında ilimle uğraşmak ve onun farkında olmak amellerin en hayırlısı ve en güzelidir. İlimler arasında en güzeli ise Allah'ın kelamıyla uğraşmak ve onu hakkı ile anlamaktır. Çünkü Kuran bilgilerin en kıymetlisini barındırmakta Allah'ın vahyini ihtiva etmektedir.

Kuran'ı doğru bir şekilde anlamanın bir diğer bereketi ise insanlar arasında ki ihtilafları gidermesi kavgaların ve savaşların ortadan kalkmasıdır. Doğru anlaşılmadığı takdirde ise Müslümanlar bugün olduğu gibi birbirlerine düşecek savaşlar ümmeti yiyip bitirecektir.

Allah'ın nimetlerinden mahrum olmak istemeyen Müslüman bir kimse Kuran'la iştiğal etmelidir. Bu iştiğalin sağlıklı ve bereketli olması için de Kuran'ı hakkıyla anlamak temel düsturdur. Allah Kuran'da kime ilim verilir de ondan yüz çevirirse Allah onu cahillerden kılar ve kalbini mühürler buyurmuştur.[36]

Yukarıda zikrettiklerimize ek olarak, Kuran'ı anlamakla işin bitmediğini onu kurallarına ve kaidelerine göre okumanın hıfz etmenin de ayrı sevapları olduğunu söylemek gerekir.

[36] Bakara 101

Kuran'ı anlayalım derken usulüne uygun olarak okumaktan da taviz vermememiz gerektiğini ve her Müslümanın bunu gücü nisbetince öğrenmek zorunda olduğunu hatırlatmakta fayda var.

Kuran'ı anlamak için sadece meallere bakmakla yetinmemeli bir hocanın dizinin dibinde fırsat buldukça çevrede var olan tefsir derslerine katılmalı ve istifade etmelidir. Aksi takdirde ben kendi başıma da anlarım diyerek bir takım yanlış anlamalar suretiyle dalalete düşebilir. Allah hepimizi hidayet üzere sabit olanlardan eylesin.

Onu okurken dikkat edilmesi gereken bir diğer husus; Onu, okurken bir tarih kitabı okunuyormuş gibi okumamalı aksine hitabın bizzat kendine olduğunu düşünmeli ve çıkarması gereken dersi çıkarmalıdır. Çünkü Kuran her ne kadar yaşamış kavimlerin kıssalarını anlatsa da orada vermek istediği mesaj ders evrenseldir ve çağları aşıp tüm insanlığa yapılmış bir çağrı niteliğindedir.

Kuran'ın insanların anlaması için gönderildiğini "Biz, onu olsun diye kolaylaştırdık. Ondan öğüt alan yok mu"[37] ayetinden anlıyoruz. Kuran içinde her ne kadar müteşabihat barındırsa da bu onun anlaşılır olmadığı anlamına gelmemektedir. Müteşabihat olan ayetler Allah ve Resul'unun daha iyi bildiği meselelerdir. Aynı şekilde müteşabihatı anlamamanın onun anlamından değerinden bir şey eksilttiği anlamına da gelmez.

Allah Kuran'ın lafzını ezberlemek ve okumak için anlamlarını anlamak ve ilim sahibi olmak için kolaylaştırmıştır. Kim kendisini Kuran'a tam anlamıyla verse Allah ona istediği şeyi kolaylaştırır ve kapıları açar. Bu Kuran'ın mucizelerindendir. Her sayfayı çevirişte kendisini okuyana daha fazla açar ve onu okuyan Kuran'ı daha rahat kavrar ve ezberler. Kendisini Kuran'a vermiş onu anlamaya vakfetmiş kimse bu sayede neyin helal neyin haram olduğunu neyin doğru neyin yanlış olduğunu bilir ve hayatını buna göre tanzim etme fırsatı bulur. Nitekim Allah (cc) bir ayette şöyle buyurmaktadır "Kuran'ı sana kolaylaştırdık ki inananları müjdeleyesin inatçı kavimleri de uyarasın diye".[38]

Bir kimse, Kuran'ı anlamak yalnızca alimlere mi hastır diye bir soru sorsa; Ona, Kuran'ı anlamanın ve tedebbür etmenin belli bir topluluğa özel olmadığı cevabı verilir. Bilakis herkes Kuran'dan Allah'ın kendisine kolaylaştırdığı nisbette payını almalı ve onu anlamaya çalışmalıdır. Çünkü Allah bütün kullarını Kuran'ı anlamaya ve onu tedebbür etmeye davet etmiştir. İbn Abbas (ra) bu konuyla alakalı olarak; "Tefsir dört kısımdır. Birinci kısım arabın anladığıdır. İkinci kısım herkesin anlayacağı açıklıktaki ayetlerin tefsiridir. Üçüncü kısım alimlerin bildiği dördüncü kısım ise ancak Allah'ın (cc) vakıf olduğu tefsirdir.[39] Buradan da anlaşılacağı üzere Kuran'ı anlamak sadece bir topluluğa mahsus değildir. Herkes kendisine Allah'ın kolaylaştırdığı nisbette Kuran'ı anlayabilir ve onunla amel edebilir.

Kişi Kuran'ı yanlış anlarım diye korkamamalıdır. Çünkü bu kaynaklarımızda da varid olan bir durumdur. Bazen sözden anlaşılan genel bir anlam iken orada kastedilen daha hass bir mana olabilir. Ya da murad edilen anlamın daha da dışında bir anlam çıkarılabilir. Kuran'ı

[37] Kamer 17
[38] Meryem 97
[39] İbn Cerir tefsiri, 1/57

yanlış anlama mevzusu sahabeler arasında dahi vakı bulmuş bir meseledir ki bunun normal olduğunun bir delilidir. Hz. Aişe (ra) hisab kelimesinin zahir anlamını alıp ayetle Peygamber efendimize cevap verince, Hz. Peygmaber (sav) oradaki hesabın o olmadığını açıklamıştır.[40]

SONUÇ

Her Müslümanın kabul ettiği ve düsturu olarak benimsediği Kuran'ın nasıl okunması ve anlaşılması hususunda izlenmesi gereken yolları yüzeysel bir şekilde anlatmaya çalıştığımız yazımızdan bir ders çıkarılacak olursa o da şudur. Her Müslüman, Kuran'ı sünnete uygun bir şekilde geleneği göz ardı etmeden Allah'ın kendisine kolaylaştırdığı nisbette Kuran'ı anlamakla mükelleftir. Bunu eda etmenin yolu yukarıda da bahsettiğimiz şekilde adabına ve usulüne uygun bir okuma yapmak ve geleneği göz ardı etmeksizin kendi yaptığı okuma ve anlama faaliyetinin yanında ilim ehli kimselerin de dizinin dibinde oturup tefsir derslerine iştirak etmek ve çaba sarf etmektir.

[40] Sahihi Buhari 103