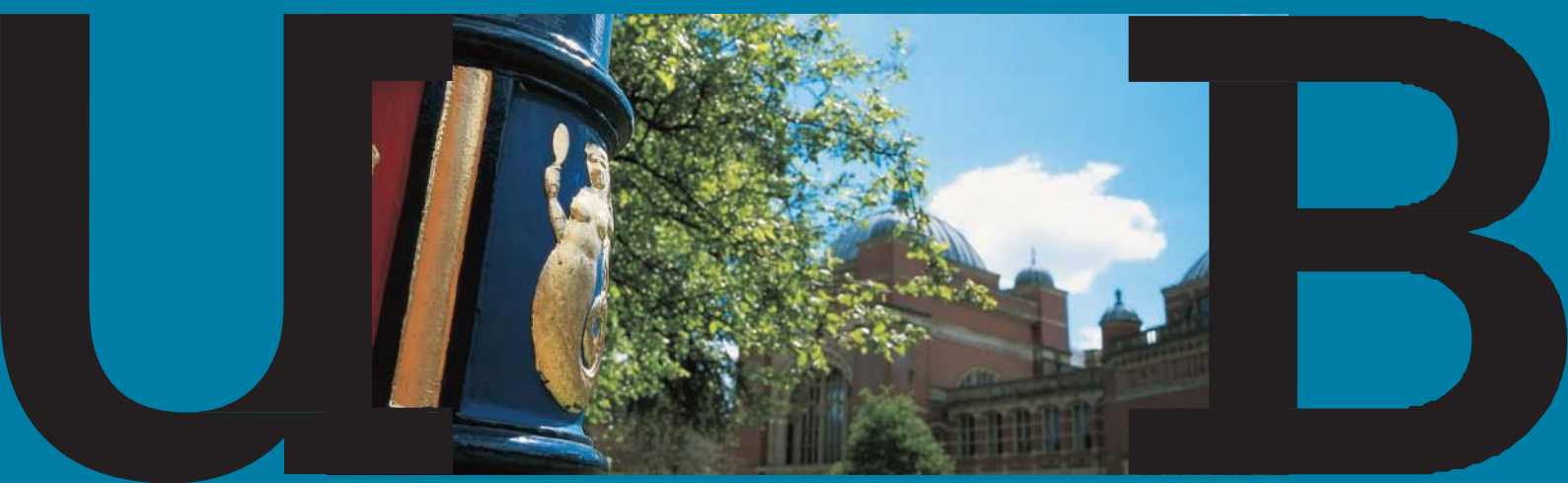# UNIVERSITY OF BIRMINGHAM

Papers from the
Education Doctoral Research Conference
Saturday 28 November 2015

Edited by
Becky Morris, Tom Perry and
Professor Michael Hand

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FOREWORD

The 14th annual School of Education Doctoral Research Conference was held on 28th November 2015. The conference was attended by 93 delegates, bringing together doctoral researchers, academics and practitioners to explore key issues and developments in educational research, theory, policy and practice.

The conference featured a keynote presentation from Professor Susan Robertson who took us on a fascinating journey exploring how globalisation and privatisation were transforming education governance and the emerging 'cocktail' of international agencies, transnational firms and competing agendas. The thought-provoking and informative keynote presentation set a high standard that continued throughout the day. There were around 50 stimulating paper presentations covering a diverse range of education research topics, an excellent poster exhibition and an expert panel debate examining the role of theory in teacher education, attended by panel with a wealth of academic and practical expertise.

It is our great pleasure to introduce this collection of proceeding papers from the conference. These papers demonstrate some of the interesting and innovative research being undertaken here at the University of Birmingham and further afield. We are delighted to see so many examples of topical, international and inter-disciplinary research and hope you enjoy reading the collection as much as we have.

We would sincerely like to thank all conference presenters, panellists and delegates as well as the numerous people who helped organise what was a stimulating and enjoyable day.

Rebecca Morris and Thomas Perry
Co-chairs of the Doctoral Research Conference Committee

The Doctoral Research Conference is the jewel in the crown of the School of Education's postgraduate research calendar. Organised by a committee of exceptionally hard-working doctoral students, the conference routinely draws a large audience from across the University and beyond and showcases outstanding postgraduate research projects in the School. The 2015 conference was no exception, with an unprecedented number of student paper presentations and an impressive array of research posters.

I'd like to echo Becky and Tom's thanks to all involved – and in particular to thank Becky and Tom themselves, whose efficient and good-humoured chairing of the conference committee ensured the success of the conference and the timely publication of these proceedings. As ever, a special debt of gratitude is owed to Denise Lees and Helen Joinson, the School's PGR administrators.

Readers are warmly invited to join us for the 2016 Doctoral Research Conference on Saturday 26 November.

Professor Michael Hand
Director of Postgraduate Research

AN ASSESSMENT OF THE ENVIRONMENTAL LITERACY OF PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS IN COLLEGES OF EDUCATION IN GHANA

Juliet A. Atuguba

ABSTRACT

Ghana has lost about 93 percent of its forest reserves in 68 years and its rich biodiversity is gradually being depleted due to poaching, habitat loss, pollution of water bodies and deforestation (Buamah, Petrusevski and Schippers, 2008; Tamakloe, 2010; Tom-Dery, Dagben and Cobbina, 2012). The cost of environmental degradation to Ghana's economy is estimated to be within the range of 1-10% of the country's annual GDP ($12 billion GDP) (GNA, 2007; UNEP, 2013).

Environmental science education in the basic school curriculum is aimed at educating Ghanaians on the environment. Tuncer et al. (2009) argue that teachers will produce students who are environmentally literate when they themselves are environmentally knowledgeable, have positive attitudes towards the environment and show concern for environmental problems. This study assesses the environmental literacy of pre-service teachers in colleges of education in Ghana and their preparedness to teach environmental science at the basic school level.

INTRODUCTION

There has been a tremendous change in the nature of education in Ghana evolving from Traditional African Education [TAE] to the introduction of Western education now termed formal education. The basic principles that underlined most of the indigenous knowledge systems of the Ghanaian people before the introduction of formal education, generally emphasized a common humanity, group belongingness and a harmonious existence between people and the natural world. It involved diverse ways of knowing about the world and the interrelationship between nature, culture and the environment. TAE thus stressed a strong relationship with the environment, and in the past, taboos, religious and cultural practices relating to land, forest and water bodies, formed part of the culture and education which helped indigenous Ghanaians to sustainably manage their environment.

Fast forward to present day Ghana and one quickly notices that, the combined forces of notably Western education, Christian religion and Islam, has unleashed an unprecedented assault on traditional education consequently resulting in the degradation of the country's environment.

Over the past forty years the environment has changed so much that both flora and fauna and indeed the ecosystem, have been adversely affected. Formerly, taboos, religious and traditional cultural practices were enough to control people's attitudes towards the environment but not anymore. For instance, there are days of rest known as 'taboo-days' during which the land and water bodies are expected to rest and farming and fishing are forbidden on such days (Osei, 2006). Boateng and Nana (1990), record that farmers are enjoined to leave a strip of land of about 30 metres which should not be cleared at both sides of streams and rivers. Taboos on eating of totem animals such as alligators, hedgehogs, tortoise, whales, parrots, eagles and

some species of fish ensured the non- extinction of such species (Osei, 2006). Western style education condemned these practices without carefully studying their epistemological basis as it pertained to the different ethnic groups and what they sought to achieve (Busia, 1954; Sarpong, 1974; Boateng, 1983; Mazrui, 1988; Mbiti, 1991; Adeyemi and Adeyinka, 2003).

Current environmental issues in Ghana

Many authors (Songsore and McGranahan 1993; Nsiah-Gyaboah, 1994; Hans and Boon, 1999; Tamakloe, 2008; Buamah, Petrusevski and Schippers, 2008; Tom-Dery, Dagben and Cobbina, 2012) have identified poaching, loss of biodiversity, illegal logging, destruction of natural habitats, illegal small scale and large scale mining, lack of forest governance, human settlements, water quality, industrial pollution and waste management as some of the key problems affecting environmental quality in Ghana. These have resulted in a number of environmental issues.

Currently, there is a decline in carbon dioxide (CO_2) sinks in forested and reforested land and any further depletion it is feared will offset the balance and cause the level of CO_2 to soar. Pollution of water bodies have led to the contamination of fresh vegetables produced in intensive urban and peri - urban smallholder agriculture within formal wastewater irrigation (Amoah, Drechsel, Abaidoo and Ntow, 2006). Rivers draining urban settlements are particularly polluted by both domestic and industrial waste. The Volta River for example, receives discharges from two textile plants, from agricultural activity and from the settlements along the river (Hans and Boon, 1999).

Rapid expansion in urban and suburban areas, poor domestic environmental management coupled with industrial pollution, has led to a decline in sanitary conditions leading to the continues existence and spread of some air and water borne diseases (Songsore and McGranahan 1993; Attipoe,1996). The current transitional state of waste management policy (especially dealing with collection and treatment of waste) has led to use of excavated pits, low- lying grounds, burning and moderately controlled tipping as ways of disposing waste. These practices induce environmental hazards such as dust dispersion, smoke, odour, plagues of insects and rodents (Boadi and Markku, 2005; Oteng-ababio, 2010). High concentration of human activities along the coast puts a lot of pressure on coastal zones as marine fishing serves as a source of livelihood for the majority of the people living along the coast. Agricultural land availability has reduced from 1.56ha in 1970 to 1.11ha in 1984 to 0.74ha in 2000 (Tamakloe, 2010). An economy wide, multimarket model constructed for Ghana projected that land degradation will reduce agricultural income in Ghana by a total of US$4.2 billion over the period 2006–2015, which is approximately 5% of total agricultural GDP (Diao and Sarpong, 2007). The need for agriculturally viable land is important in a country where agriculture contributes 54% of Ghana's GDP and accounts for over 40% of export earnings while at the same time providing over 90% of the country's food needs (SRID, 2001). There are other emerging global environmental issues such as climate change as well as local issues such as the recent discovery of oil and gas and its environmental implications.

STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

The world as a whole is faced with various problems and challenges in addressing environmental issues but when it comes to developing countries such as Ghana, addressing issues of environmental concern is further compounded by a multiplicity of challenges deeply rooted in low levels of poverty, environmental degradation, economic instability and marginalization, issues of politics, policies and governance among others. These challenges notwithstanding, significant legislative and institutional reforms have taken place since 1990s including the establishment of institutions for regulating the environment such as Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), Water Resources Commission, and Forestry Commission. These are supplemented by the activities of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) such as 'Green Ghana', 'The Nature and Development Foundation (NDF) among others. Although sustainability appears in almost every environmental and political discourse, the problems enumerated earlier, persist.

Education for Sustainable Development (ESD) has been proposed by the United Nations (Zakri, 2006). In 1944, noted conservationist Aldo Leopold wrote: "Acts of conservation without the requisite desires and skill are futile. To create these desires and skills, and the community motive, is the task of education" (Coyle 2005, p ii).

With taboos, religious and cultural practices being gradually ebbed away, the biggest window of hope and opportunity that remains open to Ghana to push forward the agenda of environmental awareness and to develop environmental concern and behaviviour in individuals from a young age is formal education. If our educational systems fail to provide knowledge and skills needed for individuals to make intelligent and informed choices about the environment, it will lead to continual environmental degradation. When people are well aware of environmental issues and are well equipped with ways of dealing with these issues, then an avenue has been created to help address these problems confronting the environment. 'The more people with even elementary environmental literacy, the better will be the quality of environment' (Roth 1992, p.35). It is an advantage in Ghana to use the mechanism of formal education to achieve environmental literacy because formal education in the near future will touch almost every Ghanaian. Currently, basic school enrolment is almost 123% (World Bank, 2015). Environmental education is aimed at producing citizenry who are environmentally literate and capable of actively addressing environmental challenges and problems (UNESCO, 1980; Roth, 1992; Coyle, 2005). To do this, teachers play a vital role, they must have the requisite knowledge that will induce concern for and inform their attitudes towards the environment. They must also possess the ability to translate this to groom young learners to become environmentally friendly.

The purpose of this study is to assess the environmental literacy of pre-service teachers in Ghana and their preparedness to teach environmental education at the basic level. To do this, the study intends to answer the following research questions:

1. What is the level of environmental literacy of pre-service teachers in Ghana?
2. What is the relationship between their environmental knowledge attitude and behaviour?

3. How prepared are pre-service teachers to teach environmental education at the basic level?

LITERATURE REVIEW

The current policy directives for the 3-year Diploma in Basic Education are mainly geared towards the training of a generalist teacher who would be able to teach at the basic level. In addition to courses in Education, Practical Activities and General Studies, students will be expected to take at least seven foundation subjects (English, Mathematics, Ghanaian Language and Culture, Integrated Science, Environmental and Social Studies, Pre-Vocational Skills and Religious and Moral Studies). However, specialist training in Mathematics, Science and Technical Skills are offered by specific colleges of Education for trainees being prepared for the Junior High School level. French and Early childhood are also options offered by Specific Colleges of Education. Students taking these subjects are exempted from some of the foundation subjects. A student must have a pass in all required subjects with a GPA of not less than 1.5, successfully complete the one year off campus teaching program and complete a project work for the award of a Diploma. Environmental education as can be inferred from the above is a subject by infusion of environmental topics into related subjects and disciplines (such as Biology, Integrated Science, Environmental and Social Studies and also Environmental and Nature Study activities).

Teachers are most influential in educating children and so, aspiring teachers should demonstrate pro-environmental behaviour and attitudes if they are to integrate environmental education effectively in their teaching upon graduation. However, previous studies show that teachers lack sufficient environmental knowledge in environmental issues which is thought to affect their environmental behaiviour negatively (Florah, 2005; Michail, Stamou, & Stamou, 2007; Spiropoulou, Antonakaki, Kontaxaki, & Bouras, 2007; Esa, 2010). Research carried out by Desjean-Perrotta, Moseley, & Cantu, 2008 and Amirshokoohi, 2010 in the United States revealed elementary pre-service teachers did not hold knowledge sufficient to be environmentally literate. A similar conclusion was drawn by Spiropoulou, Antonakaki, Kontaxaki, & Bouras (2007) in a study involving pre-service primary teachers in Greece even though the teachers were interested in protecting the environment. In Israel, a similar study conducted among first year pre-service teachers indicated limited environmental knowledge and low responsible environmental behaviour although they also had positive attitudes towards the environment (Pe'er, Goldman, & Yavetz, 2007).

An assessment of environmental knowledge and attitudes of some Nigerian school teachers however found a high level of awareness or knowledge on local environmental problems but low level on global environmental issues (Ogunyemi and Ifegbesan, 2011). A recent study by Shiang-Yao et al (2015) which investigated teachers' environmental literacy in Taiwan, revealed that environmental awareness and attitudes among teachers was high but that their level of environmental knowledge was moderate. Similar results are shared in studies carried out by Tuncer et al., (2008) in turkey and Aini, et al. (2009), among Malaysian teachers. Results of these studies also indicate that the practices of environmentally responsible behaviour were not consistent with the level of concern and knowledge. Having positive attitudes

towards the environment for example, might not necessarily culminate into exhibiting corresponding actions to protect the environment. Subsequently sufficient literacy (knowledge, attitude and behaviour) if gained in this field by pre-service teachers does not also guarantee the preparedness of teachers to teach this subject upon completion as there may be barriers to the transition from attitude to action, habits, and teaching practices (Ernst, 2009). Assessing environmental literacy of pre- service teachers can thus provide valuable information for not only indicating the status of environmental literacy in schools but also gauging the potency of how much needs to go into the teaching of pre-service teachers to better equip them to handle topics in environmental education with ease. It also gives an overview of how effective the curriculum structure of subjects infused with environmental education is in producing environmentally literate teachers. The Ghana Education Service views preparation of teachers as one of the essential factors of educational development and identifying and dealing with barriers that impede the smooth transfer of environmental knowledge, attitude and skills by teachers to the younger generation will better prepare these teachers to be confident in their preparedness to teach upon completion. From the foregone, it is safe to draw the conclusion that an environmental crisis is a crises of environmental education, thus the provision of quality education that includes environmental knowledge, attitudes, behaviour is needed to maintain the quality of the environment.

METHODOLOGY

This study is a cross sectional survey and uses a mixed method approach (Quantitative and qualitative). It employs the use of a questionnaire and focus group discussion in assessing environmental literacy of pre- service teachers' in colleges of education in Ghana and their preparedness to effectively and efficiently teach environmental science at the basic level.

The instrument (Assessment of Environmental Literacy) for collecting quantitative data is made up of 15 items each on environmental knowledge, attitudes and concern adapted from studies on environmental literacy (Worsley and Skrzypiec, 1998; Coyle, 2005; Kaplowitz and Levine, 2005).

The focus group discussion (FGD) will concentrate basically on teacher's preparedness to teach environmental science at the basic level. It will be based on discussions on environmental science topics taught at the basic level and would span from knowledge on these topics to various ways in which these topics can be taught effectively. Barriers to effective teaching of environmental science will also be discussed. The focus group discussion will be done in only one college in the sampled zone since all the colleges share similar characteristics in terms of the topic under research.

The colleges of education have been put into five administrative zones. The sample will consist of colleges of education in one zone which will be randomly selected. The sample size for the quantitative part will consist of all final year students estimated at 1500.This is because they are the set of students that would have completed the taught course on all the subjects that infuse environmental education topics. For the FGD, 7 final year pre-service teachers will be randomly selected in one randomly selected college to constitute the group. Analysis of quantitative data will be done

using the Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS). Focus group discussions will be transcribed and analysed with the assistance of INVIVO.

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Biography

Juliet A. Atuguba is a second year PhD student at the School of Education, University of Birmingham. Her area of interest and research is in Environmental education.

GLOBALISATION OF POSTGRADUATE LOGISTICS PROGRAMMES; CHALLENGES AND PERSPECTIVES FOR TRANSNATIONAL HIGHER EDUCATION

Poonam Aulak

Abstract

CONTEXT

The purpose of this paper is to investigate key challenges and issues relating to the sudden and rapid development of Transnational Higher Education, with particular emphasis on Logistics Education. Knight (2005) reflects, while the Observatory of Borderless Higher Education in the UK tracks recent developments and reports on them, there is still a real need to ensure that 'cross-border education reflects and helps to meet individual countries' educational goals, culture, priorities and policies'.

RESEARCH QUESTION/PURPOSE

The research question asks 'What are the challenges of cross-border education and what does this mean for the development of Logistics programmes involved in Transnational Higher Education? As already discussed by Zinn and Goldsby (2014), the merger of logistics, operations, supply management, and related disciplines into the broader field of supply chain management (SCM) has brought together academic fields with different professional identities and competing visions of what SCM ought to be; what students ought to be taught, and what the priorities for research and publication should be.

KEY FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Globerson and Wolbrum (2014) state that academia continuously struggles with the content identification of logistics courses, wishing to support industry's needs. As expressed by Gravier and Farris (2008), articles about logistics education had progressed from asking, "Who are we?" in the 1960s and 1970s, to asking" What are we teaching?" from the 1980s. The debate concerning the content of a logistics programmes will always be around since practitioners' needs are dynamic. These initial findings support the fact that an interest in logistics education has been growing, but the author has identified that a third dimension concerning transnational discussions is not apparent.

CONCLUSIONS

The study is work-in-progress. It will indicate potential benefits which higher education and industry can reap from cross-border collaborations and not necessarily where 'one size fits all'.

Introduction

The purpose of this paper is to investigate key challenges and issues relating to the sudden and rapid development of Transnational Higher Education, with particular

emphasis on Logistics Education. There has already been some interesting research conducted in this area, particularly by Knight (2005) who reflects, that while the Observatory of Borderless Higher Education in the UK tracks recent developments and reports on them, there is still a real need to ensure that 'cross-border education reflects and helps to meet individual countries' educational goals, culture, priorities and policies'. As discussed by Zinn and Goldsby (2014), the merger of logistics, operations, supply management, and related disciplines into the broader field of supply chain management (SCM) has brought together academic fields with different professional identities and competing visions of what SCM ought to be; what students ought to be taught, and what the priorities for research and publication should be.

Keywords: *Logistics, Transnational, Education, Culture*

Research Approach & Outcome

A systematic approach to review current literature has been adopted; two key areas have been considered. Firstly, the challenges of cross-border education and more importantly, what this means for Logistics and Supply Chain Management courses involved in the Transnational Higher Education arena. An initial search of databases using keywords such as 'transnational + logistics + education' appeared to indicate that not enough research had been conducted in this area. During the database search, only a limited number of journal articles pertaining to this topic were discovered. As a solid research base was not evident, this identified a gap in the literature.

The study has attempted to indicate potential benefits and pitfalls of transnational education. In addition, an awareness of cultural issues for higher education and industry have been made before they can consider reaping anything from cross-border collaborations and partnerships. An appreciation of culture-induced challenges has been noted; discussing barriers and approaches to maintain standards – with a common goal in sight and not necessarily assuming *'one size fits all'*.

Literature Review

Overview of the Transnational Higher Education (TNE) provision.
Higher education systems are expanding rapidly around the globe in order to satisfy the greater need and demand for access. Increased access to higher education enhances both individual opportunity and national economic development and competitiveness in an increase globalised world. Despite these developments, Blanco Ramirez and Berger (2013) state, there are on-going and perhaps ever increasing concerns about inequities and shortcomings in access to, quality of, relevance of, and investment in higher education. In this changing context, quality and accountability have received increasing attention from policy makers and higher education leaders. For instance, since the 1990s, almost every country in the world has developed quality assurance mechanisms, many of which take their cues directly from a handful of developed nations (Kells, 1999).

Recent literature on the internationalisation of higher education shows a revitalised interest in quality practices including rankings and accreditation (Deem et al., 2008;

Huisman, 2008; Marginson and van der Wende, 2007; Salmi and Altbach, 2011). A closer examination of quality assurance policies reveals, however, many of these practices fail to theorize what quality means (Harvey and Newton, 2004, 2007). While quality-orientated practices have become more frequently and intentionally pursued in the new national contexts, conceptualisations of quality have not advanced at the same rate (Harvey and Newton, 2004, 2007).

In order to protect against substandard transnational education provision, quality assurance resources have been developed at international, national and institutional levels (McBurnie, 2008). UNESCO (United Nations Educational and Scientific Organisation), for example, has developed Guidelines for quality provision in cross-border higher education (Stella, 2006). According to Zwanikken et al. (2013), UNESCO have develop guidelines regarding the quality of cross-border education, however, these guidelines are voluntary. Stella (2006) agrees, the Guidelines are voluntary but provide a framework for cooperation. They recommend responsibilities for both partners in transnational collaborations and aim to encourage quality of provision.

According to Zwanikken et al.(2013), the definition of quality assurance in HE has evolved in the last ten years. Woodhouse (1999), referred to quality assurance as relating "to the policies, attitudes, actions and procedures necessary to ensure that quality is being maintained and enhanced". Harvey (2012), after much discussion comments, "Assurance of quality in higher education is a process of establishing stake-holder confidence that provision (input, process and outcomes) fulfils expectations or measures up to threshold minimum requirements". Referring to UNESCO (2005), the following stakeholders in higher education can be distinguished: governments; higher education institutions/providers including academic staff; student bodies; quality assurance and accreditation bodies; academic recognition and professional bodies.

Zwanikken et al., (2013), have found that literature from the nineties onwards, increasing international mobility, and therefore international comparability, became an important issue, especially in Europe and the USA (Smith, 2010; Woodhouse, 1996). Stella (2006), states that national frameworks for quality assurance of cross-border education are not well developed. Bolton (2010), argues that existing quality assurance frameworks often do not allow accommodation of manageable risks associated with innovation, flexibility and experimentation in new market places. Billing (2004) suggested, especially in Europe, a 'general' model of quality assurance is developing.

Transnational higher education, also known as 'franchised provision'. 'offshore education', 'international collaborative provision' or 'cross-border' education, plays an important role in contemporary higher education (Huang, 2007; Naidoo, 2009). In the international expansion of universities, the branch campus, also known as the 'franchise campus' and the 'joint venture campus', is perhaps the most intrusive yet least monitored form of cross-border educational provision. Generally designed as an offshore satellite of a Western university, branch campuses are located in an ever-increasing number of countries (Coleman, 2003). While the cross-border movement of staff and students is not new (van Damme, 2001; Stella, 2006), the mass

movement of programmes and institutions is a relatively new occurrence (Stella 2006).

Hill et al., (2013) state, that transnational education, primarily at the tertiary level, has been growing rapidly, bringing with it high hopes and expectations of benefits to institutions in the countries of origin and destination. The largest source countries of international branch campuses globally (where the parent institutions are based) are the USA, Australia and the UK (Becker, 2009). It has been estimated that by 2025 transnational education will account for 44% of the total demand for international education (Bohm et al., 2002). However, they say that these potential benefits come with a set of challenges which must be overcome. These challenges include the need to reconcile the often-conflicting objectives of the stakeholders involved, bridge learning traditions/styles and cultural divides, and harmonise cross-national standards.

Rapid expansion of transnational education has raised high expectations about its potential but comes with its own set of challenges. First, its close association with the globalisation process has led to education being viewed as a commodity with a price, subject to the laws of demand and supply (Simpson, 2011; Teichler, 2004; van der Wende, 1996). This commodification has blurred the lines between education as social capital and, as what is now referred to as human capital. Second, the rapid expansion of the education 'market' is proving a strain on the issues of quality and assurance (Bennett et al., 2010). At the same time, an increasing preoccupation with quality has elevated to prominence international comparative ranking such as those of the Times Higher Education Supplement (THES). Transnational education permits students of one country to acquire a qualification of a second country in a third country (Hill et al., 2013). Even if the qualification is of comparable quality to that of the conferring country, it is most likely the student experience is not. There is a danger, Hill et al., (2013) note that transnational education constituting solely an award-granting exercise rather than a learning experience.

Findings for Logistics Education and Global perspectives.

It is important to understand what Logistics or Logistics Management is and what relationships exist with Supply Chain Management. A good example is given by Globerson and Wolbrum (2014): 'Logistics is that part of the supply chain process than plans, implements, and controls the efficient, and effective flow and storage of goods, services, and related information from the point-of-origin to the point-of-consumption, in order to meet customers' requirements' (Stock & Lambert, 2001). In addition to this, Globerson and Wolbrum (2014) state CSCMP – Council of Supply Chain Management Professionals, relates to the relationship between Logistics Management and Supply Chain Management. It states that 'Logistics management is that part of Supply Chain Management that plans, implements, and controls the efficient flow and storage of goods, services and related information between the point of origin and the point of consumption in order to meet customers' requirements'.

A review of the development of logistics can be found in Kent and Flint (1997) in Globerson and Wolbrum (2014). The evolution of logistics thought appears to fall into the following seven eras:

Era 1: Farm to market, starting around 1900's, in which the main focus was on transportation and distribution.

Era 2: Military and business, starting during the Second World War. Needs generated by the war gave a push to the development of functions such as transportation, warehousing, inventory and physical distribution.

Era 3: Integration of functions, started around 1960, focusing on the total system's performance, rather than on performance of individual functions. Logistics started to be taught as an area.

Era 4: Customer focus, starting around 1970, where customer service was regarded as the primary focus of the company.

Era 5: Logistics strategy, starting during the 1980s, where it has been considered as a critical component in the company's strategy. Emerging concepts are such as SCM, environmental logistics, reverse logistics, and a heightened awareness of globalization. Information technology as well as strategy concepts have had a significant influence.

Era 6: Integrated SCM, starting during the 1990s, where logistics processes are extended to the companies involved across the supply chains. It requires greater involvement with many functional areas within the organizations involved.

Era 7: International SCM, starting around 2000, where the chain crosses countries' borders, mostly due to the existence of very effective information technologies.
We are currently in the seventh Era where courses, faculties, staff and students are crossing borders for programmes in logistics education.

Bernon & Mena (2013) state that Gravier and Farris (2008) conducted a review of the educational literature in logistics from the 1960s through to 2008, and identified 81 relevant articles. They categorised the publications in three primary themes: content and skills, curriculum development and deliver method. Of these three themes, curriculum had received the most attention, with 60 per cent of the papers. However, Globerson and Wolbrum (2014) state that academia continuously struggles with the content identification of logistics courses, wishing to support industry's needs. As expressed by Gravier and Farris (2008), articles about logistics education had progressed from asking, "Who are we?" in the 1960s and 1970s, to asking" What are we teaching?" from the 1980s. They also point out that two-thirds of the way into the first decade of the 2000s, the number of published articles that address logistics education, is greater than in any two consecutive previous decades, evidence for its growing importance. The debate concerning the content of a logistics course will always be around since practitioners' needs are dynamic. These initial findings support the fact that an interest in logistics education has been growing, but another dimension concerning transnational discussions is not apparent.

Wu (2007) noted that according to Lancioni et al. (2001b), some barriers encountered in the development and planning of logistics course and programmes include, but are not limited to, a lack of trained faculty to teach logistics; difficulty in integrating a logistics major in the current curriculum; general lack of student interest in logistics or

supply chain management as a major; resistance of faculty on other departments as to the merit of logistics as a respectable area in business, resistance to the development of a logistics programme by certain departments within the school such as marketing, operations management, finance, accounting, management, economics, and statistics; a general lack of fit for logistics and supply chain management and the overall curriculum core of programmes.

There is evidence to suggest that different regions view logistics skills and education differently. Walton et al. (1998) in Wu (2007) state that logistics managers operating in the EU rather than the USA will necessarily be more broadly skilled individuals who will be confronted by a variety of customer requirements overlaid with a diversity of cultural and linguistic difficulties. Wu (2007) adds that such varied requirements may require a tailored logistics programme that fits the local demand. However, it must be noted in contrast to these suggestions, the current trend within TNE is the franchising of programmes – taking an existing programme *as it is* and allowing international partners to deliver the content, according to the programme and syllabi as validated in the home institution. The home institution in this case is also the awarding body. Little evidence is currently apparent of programmes being tailored, designed, contextualised or adapted for local trends, cultural variations and norms. Wu (2007) concluded, no studies have been undertaken to provide an overall picture of the current logistics curricula from an international perspective. This has resulted in a prominent gap in the literature given the growing trend of globalisation and the importance of logistics education in shaping a competent logistician. To concur, Wu made this statement in 2007, and still today in 2015, little progress appears to have been made in addressing the issues of logistics education and globalisation.

Mok & Xu (2008) in Djerasimovic (2014) state that whilst the last decade has seen a proliferation of various TNE arrangements, this does not mean that the sector has not been faced with various problems and concerns. One of the most commonly raised issues across TNE literature being the experience and effectiveness of cross-cultural teaching and learning, especially where this involves teachers with little experience of the new cultural context. Djerasimovic (2014) adds that tied in with this issue is the often debated general appropriateness and adaptability of educational programmes, or the assurance of standards of the 'exporter' institution in sometimes quite radically different contexts with different expectations, learning trends, cultures of communication and assessment styles. Chapman and Pyvis (2013) in Djerasimovic (2014) state the frequently used term 'partnership', which implies a degree of equality, often hides a power hierarchy constructed by both sides, a lack of respect reported by host academies and (Dobos, Chapman and O'Donoghue, 2013 in Djerasimovic (2014)) even a rhetoric of colonialism employed by some of the onshore academics in describing this relationship.

Although partnership exists in many organisational guises (Drew et al., 2008; Knight, 2005), they are underpinned crucially by financial sustainability. Yet, it is not solely restricted to the financial arena but also to the question of academic credibility and institutional direction. When entering into an international partnership – a necessary factor of the multiculturalism of higher education - several factors must be taken into account. There must be an element of trust; both sides must be prepared for compromise, to a point, and for mutual interaction. One-sided approaches can lead to misunderstanding and eventual resentment. What may seem attractive on the onset,

namely, the introduction and partnership of a Western or international university can be viewed as an obstacle for real development if not properly managed (Hill et al., 2013).

Conclusion

Tensions are part and parcel of any collaboration, transnational education is no different. Collaborations endure, if these tensions, especially between the parties to the collaboration, can be managed effectively. Hill et al., (2013) warn, where these tensions cannot be managed, perhaps because priorities change, collaborations are terminated. Divergent objectives of different collaborating parties are at the heart of these tensions but tensions also exist within institutions such as between government policies and their implementation, as well as among stakeholders within the educational institution. The most important of all tensions is that relating to the substance of that collaboration, with the management of the respective collaborating institutions each interpreting that collaboration from a self-interested perspective. Since fee-setting, student management, staff management, academic management, curriculum management and quality assurance are key dimensions of collaboration, they are sources of tension (Hill et al., 2013).

McBurnie (2008) notes, due to the geographical distance of transnational higher education programmes from the home campus, there are tensions between academic and commercial priorities, and opportunities for slippery academic standards. The need for robust quality assurance systems is great. Students deserve high-quality educational experiences, and importer countries want to ensure that graduates from these programmes fulfil the 'nation-building' requirements that initially led them to welcome international education providers into their country (McBurnie, 2008).

To conclude, as outlined in an example by Djerasimovic (2014), Chinese universities are increasingly attracting international students from the region. What is the culture they will be imposing? Whose culture is it? It may be that Appadurai's (2003) 'repatriated differences', with the original ideologies and discourses being recontexualised , transformed, and hybridised and returning as such to their place of origin, to be the subject of further appropriation, recontexualisation and transformation in the course of an ongoing global cultural revolution. One size, most definitely, does not fit all.

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Biography

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'NEW PHILANTHROPY' AND EDUCATION POLICY: WHAT IS 'NEW' ABOUT IT?

Marina Avelar

Abstract

Business and philanthropy have been increasing their influence in public education in what might be called a turn from *government* to *governance*. In the context of *governance*, not only the role of the State has been changing, but also, concomitantly, the work and values of philanthropy, which is both agent and subject of change. Adopting market values and practices, it has been often referred to as 'new philanthropy'. This paper explores what is 'new' in this 'new philanthropy', or how new modes of giving diverge from previous ones, drawing upon examples of philanthropy in Brazilian education. With a combination of literature review and online data collection, this paper examines key aspects of 'new philanthropy', namely: philanthrocapitalism, philantho-policymaking, the relation between giving and outcomes, givers' hands-on-approach, and philanthropy's global network.

Introduction

Business and philanthropy have been increasing their influence in public education since the 1990s. They are a new group of political actors that emerged as 'the catalyst and driving force for a paradigmatic political change' (Olmedo, 2014, p.576). Governing is becoming increasingly shared between state, market and philanthropy, where one is able to identify a steady and significant growth of non-state institutions operating in public service delivery, including education (Peroni, 2013). Business and philanthropy have been progressively intervening in education and populating the political arena, taking part not only in service delivery, but also in policymaking. In Brazil, this global trend is clear mainly after the 1995 State Reform, a critical turning period in the move from *government* to *governance* in the country.

In the context of *governance*, it is not only the role of the State that has been changing, but also, concomitantly, the work and values of business and philanthropy. Philanthropy is both agent and subject of change (Ball and Junemann, 2011). On the one hand, philanthropy is key in the shifting process towards governance: 'philanthropy in its various forms is currently a key device in the reconstitution of the state and of governance' (Ball and Junemann, 2012, p.48). At the same time, philanthropy is itself changed towards market values and practices, usually referred to as 'new philanthropy' (Ball and Junemann 2011, 2013; Olmedo 2014). In spite of the growth of corporate and philanthropic action in public education, there still is 'an enormous gap in the research field of education policy', as most research is still bounded by the nation-state and 'policy-as-government paradigm' (Ball, 2012, p.xii). Despite the relevance of business and philanthropy political and economic agendas, well acknowledged in popular media, it has been underestimated by academic research (Frumkin, 2006; Olmedo, 2014).

While philanthropic work is not new, contemporary philanthropy differs from previous modes of giving in some aspects, so this paper explores what is 'new' in 'new philanthropy'. The analysed aspects are resultant of literature review and data collected about Brazilian education through extensive internet searches. The main

sources of information are foundations/institutes official websites and reports, and newspaper articles. Namely, the analysed practices are: philanthropy now resembles the market in what some authors have called philanthrocapitalism (Bishop and Green, 2010), with a business-like approach to social problems. It acts strategically in and around government and policy, both in policy-making and service delivery, also called philanthro-policymaking (Rogers, 2011). Further, giving became tightly related to outcomes, aiming at 'impact' and 'efficiency', and givers want to be directly involved in philanthropic actions. Finally, philanthropy now works in a global network, where the agenda and functioning of philanthropic foundations have been globalised. It is worth remarking that the practices examined are intimately intertwined, and separating them for analytical purposes is a challenging task. In this sense, I do not attempt to create any sense of causality between the characteristics analysed, but rather offer and exploratory analysis of the characteristics of 'new philanthropy' in education. After introducing the concept of governance, in which the analysed practices of new philanthropy have been taking place, I will present each of the aspects, with both characterisation from literature and empirical examples from Brazilian education. Brazil seems to match characteristics raised in studies focused elsewhere (specially the UK), with growing relevance of philanthropic work to education policy.

Governance: shifting relations between government, market and philanthropy

In spite of considerable variation, a changing relationship between the state and society is regarded as an international phenomenon (Bevir, 2011). States increasingly share governing with societal actors (like private firms, non-governmental organisations, non-profit service providers). Decision making processes and implementation systems that used to be mainly executed by the state are increasingly dispersed in a complex network of institutions. Despite theoretical and methodological debates in the research field, a contrast is drawn between *government*, done through hierarchical bureaucracies, and *governance*, accomplished through diverse and flexible networks (Ball & Junemann, 2012).

Through deregulation, outsourcing and competition, 'new public management (NPM) encouraged new practices of governance' and 'contributed greatly to the broad shift from direct service provision by government to more complex patterns of governance incorporating markets, networks and private and voluntary sector actors.' (Bevir, 2011, p.9). In this way, NPM greatly contributed to the fragmentation of service delivery. Hybrid patterns of management arose by incorporating private and voluntary providers in service delivery. The public/private relationship wasn't inaugurated in this particular time; on the contrary, boundaries between them have always been a thin line (Peroni, 2013). Nonetheless, those relations have assumed a new shape and intensity (Ball and Junemann, 2012). Bureaucracy, market and civil society share social responsibilities where the State changed its role from superior to peer.

In Brazil, in 1995 the Ministry of Administration and State Reform (*MARE*) signed a state reform, which might be recognised as a turning point of the shift from *government* to *governance* in the country. A 'new' state definition was announced with the document '*Plano Diretor de Reforma do Aparelho do Estado*' (PDRAE), or Director Plan of State Apparel Reform (DPSAR). It stated 'the state reform should be

understood within the context of *change of the state role*, which *ceases to be the direct responsible* for economic and social development through the production of goods and services, to become stronger in the *function of supporter and regulator* of this development.' (MARE, 1995, p.17, emphasis added). Thus, the state aimed to change its position from 'direct responsible' to 'regulator', in a more complex network governance with new participating actors.

This State Reform Project indicated three privatising strategies to be adopted throughout all ministries: outsourcing (*terceirização*), privitising and publicising (*publicisação*). The first is the transfer of auxiliary services on contract to private sector providers, and the second is the selling of state companies to private property. Most importantly, the third, 'publicisation' refers to the transfer of social and scientific services previously executed by the State to the non-state institutions, indicated in the document as 'non-state public sector' (Peroni, 2013, p.20). Education (including schools, university, research centres and child care facilities) was amongst these services partially transferred to the 'third sector', composed by non-governmental institutions. Between 1996 and 2005 Brazil's third sector went through an intense growth of 215%. It later slowed down to 8,8% between 2006 and 2010 and reached 290,700 non-profit private foundations and associations in the country (IBGE, 2010).

In the context of governance, frontiers between state, market and philanthropy are becoming increasingly blurry. Philanthropy is an increasingly relevant actor in education policymaking, with new working aspects and practices. The following section aims to explore what is 'new' in 'new philanthropy', or how contemporary philanthropy differs from previous modes of giving.

Business-like approach to philanthropy: Philantrocapitalism

An entrepreneurial discourse has become fundamental in all three sectors: state, market and philanthropy, fostering principles such as competition and efficiency. In new philanthropy, philanthropic institutions now function similarly to business (Olmedo, 2014), where 'philanthropy is being reworked by the sensibilities of business and business methods' (Ball and Junemann, 2011, p.657). The appropriation and adaptation of entrepreneurial discourses and values by philanthropy is sometimes called 'philanthrocapitalism' (Bishop & Green, 2010). The term refers to the use of business methods for solving social problems, or the idea that charity should look like the capitalist economy, where benefactors are consumers of social investment (Ball and Junemann, 2012). Similarly, Rogers (2011) defines it as: 'the use of business tools and market forces, especially by the very wealthy, for the greater social good' (Rogers, 2011, p. 376). In this sense, the author emphasise two characteristics of philanthrocapitalim: the blurring of sector boundaries, and the use of 'private wealth to solve social problems' (Rogers, 2011, p.377).

Jorge Paulo Lemann is currently the richest Brazilian and 24th richest person in the world. Owner of global business, such as Burger King, Budweiser and Heinz, he has founded two foundations, both working in the area of education: Lemann Foundation and *Estudar* (Study Foundation). As Correa (2013) puts it, in the biography of Lemann and his two main business partners Carlos Alberto Sicupira and Hermann Telles, 'in both (Foundation Lemann and *Estudar*) it is possible to find the culture of

austerity and pursuit of results that cut through his companies (Lemann's). Besides lean structures - both foundations add up less than 25 people - every employee has goals to meet.' (Correa, 2013, p.176). Not only Lemann uses his 'private wealthy to solve social problems', but he also imports his business management practices into his philanthropic work.

Policy matters: philanthro-policymaking

Beyond service delivery, working with the state and acting in policymaking sites and conversations has became a goal of new philanthropists. These new actors, with their foundations, 'have become key political actors not only in delivery activities but also in the conception, advocacy and negotiation of policy processes' (Olmedo, 2014, p. 583). Whilst previously philanthropic work would be mainly limited to service delivery, like in traditional NGO's work, now they are also present in the 'context of influence' (Bowe, Ball, & Gold, 1992), participating in policymaking work of various kinds. Rogers (2011) refers to it as 'philanthro-policymaking'.

Deniz Mizne, executive director of Lemann Foundation, said that a major benefit of working in the third sector is the greater freedom one has to experiment in projects. However, he asserts 'if you do not imagine how this might dialogue with public policies, it is unlikely that it will make any difference' (interview available at *Estudar* foundation website). Thus, he says that his institute '*Sou da Paz*' has always invested in partnerships with government to gain scale and impact.

This dialogue with policy often happens in spaces of 'meetingness' (Urry, 2003), that are 'promoted and funded by philanthropic programmes in the shape of seminars, symposiums, conferences, summits, etc.' (Olmedo, 2014, p. 587). These spaces are 'central to networks' and are designed 'to establish and to cement at least temporarily those weak ties' (Urry, 2003, p. 161) of which the networks are made. These spaces provide opportunities to influence policy and circulation of discourses (Ball and Junemann, 2011)

Similarly, *Todos pela Educação* (TPE, All for Education) also works strategically towards policymaking. It is a Brazilian think tank and a 'pact' of major companies in the country to 'contribute to guaranteeing the right to quality education to children and youth' (TPE website). To do this, the institution works in three areas: first, the Technical area produces knowledge about education, which creates basis for the following two areas. Second, Communication and Mobilisation disseminates the produced reports to 'mobilise social demand for quality education'. Finally, Institutional Relations and Articulation is responsible for connecting the state, civil society organisations and private initiatives in actions that 'have positive impact over education' (TPE website). By creating content about education, disseminating it through media and creating partnerships with public and private institutions, *Todos pela Educação* has constructed a thorough strategy to influence and enact public policy.

Like TPE, many institutes publish studies or reports that aim to support policymaking. For instance, besides TPE, *Instituto Ayrton Senna* and Lemann Foundation offer material in their institutional websites that aspire to 'better inform policymakers'. This strategy produces what Hogan, Lingard and Sellar (2015, p. 52) call 'new policy

genre', that 'over-simplifies complicated policy issues and, moreover, sets a new standard for accessible 'policy-relevant' data analysis that prioritises impact over rigour.' These publications neglect the complexities exposed by academic educational research, and fails to acknowledge that policy 'is the 'authoritative allocation of values' (Easton 1953); that is, that politics are central to policy agendas, not simply research, however defined.' (Hogan et al, 2015, p. 52)

Relation between giving and outcomes: show me the numbers

Related to the previous points - the use of business methods and goal to influence policy - giving is now closely associated to outcomes. Philanthropists want to see 'results' of their giving, they see this not as making donations, but as social 'investments' that are attached to outcomes and efficiency. Thus, the use of evaluations and metrics to measure and demonstrate impact became a widespread practice among foundations. These assessments are displayed in institutional reports, which are used to attract new 'investors' and offer accountability to donors (Ball and Junemann, 2011). As Ball and Junemann (2012) put it, they now 'use forms of business research and due diligence to identify or vet potential recipients to monitor the impacts and effects of donations on social problems.' (P.52). For example, the institute '*Parceiros da Educação*' (Partners of Education), mobilises businessman and companies to adopt schools. In order to create and maintain partnerships, or 'adoptions', they invest on assessment and claim in the website that 'it is fundamental to program success that every action is systematically monitored and evaluated' (*Parceiros da Educação* website).

Relation between givers and action: hands-on approach

The direct involvement of 'givers' in philanthropic action and the policy community is a key characteristic of 'new philanthropy'. Philanthropists now adopt a more 'hands-on approach' and want to be personally involved in decisions (Ball and Junemann, 2012). Jorge Paulo Lemann is an unarguable example of personal involvement, investing one third of his time in philanthropic activities at the foundations Lemann and *Estudar*. He and his two business partners personally take part in the selection of scholarship grantees, that will receive financial support to study in global top ranking universities (Correa, 2013). Lemann, a Harvard alumnus himself, also makes use of his personal network in his philanthropic work: 'Jorge Paulo also acts as a kind of ambassador of *Fundação Estudar* in other countries. It is in great part due to his contacts in foreign universities that *Estudar* regularly brings representatives of elite universities to offer lectures to Brazilian students. For instance, in 2011 the president of Harvard, Drew Faust, went to Brazil by invite of *Estudar*.' (Correa, 2013). Thus, new philanthropists, as Lemann, 'are willing to mobilise their economic, cultural and social capitals in order to pursue their charitable agendas.' (Olmedo, 2014, p. 585).

In this sense, in mobilising their different resources, these elite actors who engage in philanthropy are called by Schervish 'hyperagents: individuals who can do what it would otherwise take a social movement to do' (Schervish, in Bishop and Green 2010, p. 51). Recently, there was a conflict between Viviane Senna and education

associations[1]. Viviane Senna, sister of the racer Ayrton Senna, is the president of *Instituto* Ayrton Senna, one of the biggest institutes in Brazil that is present in every state of the country. She was listed at the Forbes ranking[2] 'The 10 Most powerful businesswomen in Brazil', is part of *Todos pela Educação* board and is very influential in the media. Recently, on June 2015, she gave an interview that was published at *Folha*[3] (Brazilian newspaper) and BBC[4], where she stated that education is 'still based on opinions rather than being 'scientifically based' '. Less than a month later, six education organisations replied in an open letter criticising her statements. A small note was published in *Folha*[5], but not the entire content of the letter or an interview with a representative.

Global networks: international work on global issues

A final, yet fundamental, difference between previous modes of giving and new philanthropy is its global action. Both the agenda and work of philanthropic foundations have been globalised (Olmedo, 2014). These institutions act upon the 'grand challenges', where development agendas use the principle of scalability and are 'applied independently of context as generic, technical solutions'. Further, elites are internationally connected, with technologies of communication and travel that made it easier to sustain a 'networked life' (Urry, 2003). The spaces of 'meetingness', mentioned before, are fundamental. In this scenario, networks extend globally and ideas flow, in and out and around Brazil.

This can be seen, for instance, in the events held by new philanthropy institutions. In September 2015, *Instituto Unibanco* held a seminar called 'Paths for public education quality: school management'. The event aimed at promoting dialogue between the Brazilian experience in school management and international cases with 'relevant improvements in its results' (event's website). Adding to a number of Brazilian education authorities and philanthropists, the seminar had the presence of

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[1] Associação Nacional de Pós-graduação e pesquisa em Educação - ANPEd (National Association of Postgraduate Studies and Research in Education); Centro de Estudos Educação e Sociedade - CEDES (Centre of Studies Education and Society); Associação Nacional pela Formação de Profissionais da Educação - ANFOPE (National Association for the Education Professionals Training); Fórum Nacional de Diretores de Faculdades de Educação - FORUMDIR (National Forum of Faculty of Education Directors); Associação Brasileira de Currículo - ABdC (Brasilian Association of Curriculum); Associação Nacional de Profissionais de Administração Educacional - ANPAE (National Association of Educational Management Professionals)

[2] takes into account information from FORBES' lists database, as well as overall analysis for each woman listed, based on three metrics: money (2012 company revenue and market cap, where available, for business; and income), media presence (news hits, TV and radio appearances in the past 12 months, plus social media) and impact (in each woman's listed particular field)

[3] http://www1.folha.uol.com.br/educacao/2015/06/1643231-educacao-e-baseada-em-achismos-nao-em-ciencia-diz-viviane-senna.shtml

[4] http://www.bbc.com/portuguese/noticias/2015/06/150525_viviane_senna_ru

[5] http://www1.folha.uol.com.br/paineldoleitor/2015/07/1653031-presidentes-de-associacoes-de-educacao-protestam-contra-viviane-senna.shtml

representatives from Canada (Mary Jean Gallagher, the vice-minister of education from Ontario), Australia (Barry McGaw, former president of the Australian Curriculum Counsel, and the Assessment and Reporting Authority), and the United Kingdom (Michael Wilshaw, Inspection Chief of Ofsted). In events such as this, representatives of governments and philanthropy, from different countries, gather to share 'best practices', often disregarding context and fostering international discourses.

Final remarks

The frontiers between public and private, state and market, philanthropy and business are becoming increasingly blurry, with growing relevance of philanthropy's work on education policy. In this context, new philanthropy differs from previous modes of giving in some aspects, reinforcing the blurriness between sectors. In the global scenario of governance, philanthropy resembles the market in what some authors have been calling philanthrocapitalism. Philanthropy now also acts strategically in and around policy. Giving has become tightly related to outcomes, givers want to be directly involved in the philanthropic actions and philanthropy works in a global network. Brazil seems to echo characteristics raised in studies focused elsewhere (specially the UK), with growing relevance of philanthropic work to education policy.

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Biography

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STUDENT PROGRESSION – A MULTIFACETED PHENOMENON

Richard Breakwell

Abstract

This study explored the progression of a cohort of first-year student nurses. A Model of Student Progression was designed based on a review of the student nurse attrition literature, Erikson's and Chickering's identity development theories and Tinto's student integration model. The Model acted as a framework for the pragmatic, mixed-methods study's design. Data (questionnaire, interview and exam board data) was analysed using descriptive statistics and thematic 'interpretive description'. Findings indicated that some background and demographic factors had a significant link with end-of-year grades (ethnicity, religion, academic self-perception, and entry qualifications). Interviews highlighted themes affecting progress (student preparation for study, course expectations, support, motivation, integration and career choice). It was found that the Model provided a suitable framework for the study and that student progression is multifaceted and often belies a complex interaction of a range of influential factors.

Introduction

Nursing in the UK is facing a crisis. The supply of newly qualified nurses is not keeping up with workforce requirements (Buchan and Seccombe 2012). As nurses are leaving the profession they are not being replaced in sufficient numbers, in part because the next generation, undergraduate student nurses, are not completing programmes of study, or taking too long to do so. Consequently, the commissioners of student places in higher education, potential future employers and the universities who educate student nurses are increasingly turning their focus to identify what affects student nurse progression and what might be done to improve it.

As a nurse educator of several years' experience, I am interested in what affects the progression of student nurses. In this paper I outline a cohort study that explored the progression of a group of first-year student nurses, in which I set out to answer two questions: (1) What factors affect the developmental progression of student nurses during the first year of their studies? and (2) Are these factors interrelated and mutually influential with regards to student progression? I will start by providing a brief summary of a Model of Student Progression (MoSP) I designed that acted as a framework for the study's design. My main purpose in this paper, however, will be to present some of the findings of my study, discuss how they are related and, also, to begin to consider, somewhat tentatively, their potential implications for current educational practice.

A New Model of Student Progression

Student nurse progression has often been viewed through the narrow lens of student nurse attrition (Braithwaite, Elzubeir and Stark 1994; Coakley 1997; Urwin et al 2010; Eick, Williamson and Heath 2012). Indeed, student progression has often been regarded as synonymous with course continuation, but there is a broader view of student progression (Wray et al. 2012). It is the broader view of progression that was

adopted in my study, where progression is considered to extend beyond institutional and workforce goals of course completion and continuation; it considers the student's own aspirations that may be go beyond grades and course progression points.

Thinking about student progression in this broader way, led me go beyond the attrition literature and to consider the wider psychosocial influences on student development and course progression. Two main theories seemed to appear in the literature: Chickering and Reisser's (1993) theory of student identity development (informed by the earlier work of Erikson in 1968) and Tinto's (1993) theory of student integration. The combination of my literature review that explored the factors affecting student nurse attrition and the work of the former theorists led to the design of the Model of Student Progression (MoSP) (Table 1).

Table 1: A new Model of Student Progression (MoSP)

Based on a literature review and the work of key theorists: Chickering and Reisser (1993), Erikson (1968) and Tinto (1993).
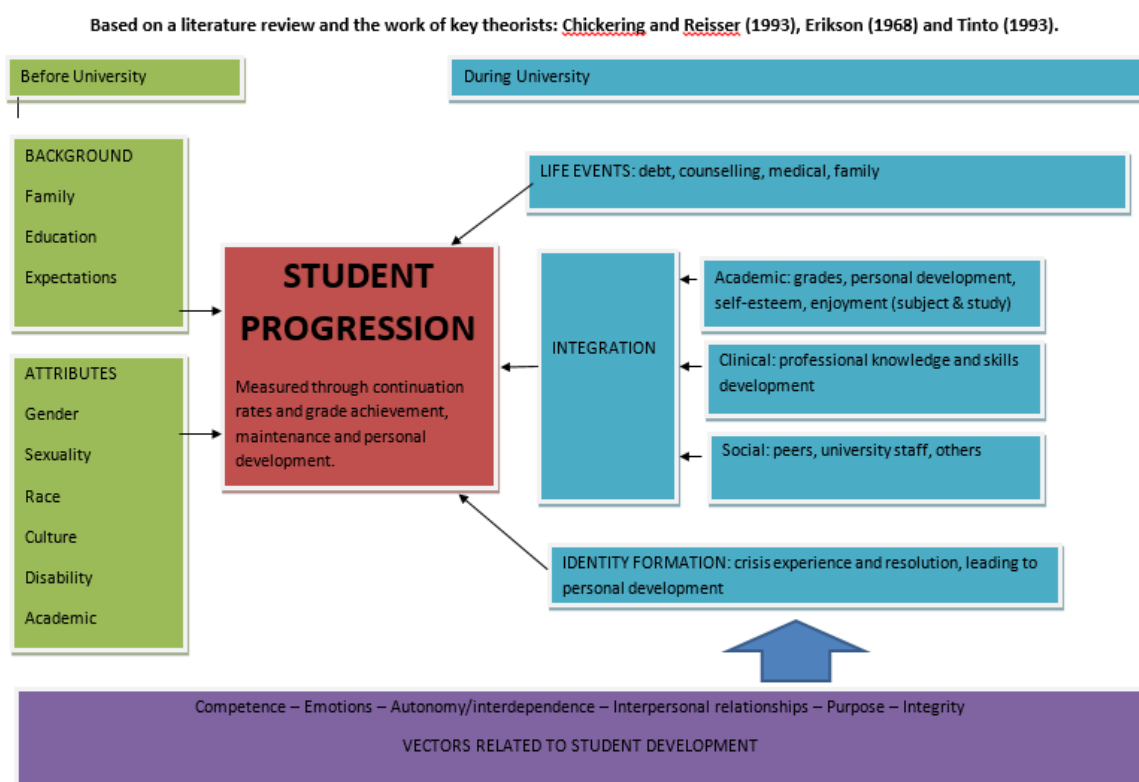
The MoSP provided a framework with which to explore the student journey from pre-course admission through initial integration and the longer term course experience.

The Study's Research Design – An Overview

A pragmatic, mixed-method design was chosen for the cohort study, with a range of data collection and analysis methods. Data was collected during the first year of the Bachelor of Nursing course using an initial questionnaire of student background information (59 student volunteers), an end-of-year interview for a purposively selected sample of 13 students, leaver questionnaires (two students) and end-of-year examination board data – components of the MoSP informed the questions in the questionnaires and interview schedules. Data was analysed using descriptive

statistics for quantitative data, thematic analysis and 'interpretive description' (Thorne 2008) for qualitative data to identify broad themes.

Table 2 provides an example of some of the initial entry data for five students.

Table 2: Examples of five students' entry characteristics and end-of-year outcomes

Student number	3	28	42	95	106
Age	23	30	19	26	18
Gender	Female	Female	Male	Male	Female
Country / race	UK white British	UK white British	Somalia Black African	UK white British	UK white
Religion	None	Christian	Muslim	None	Christian
Disability	None	None	Non	None	None
Academic skill	Acceptable	Acceptable	Acceptable	Good	Good
Parents' university?	Both	Neither	Neither	One	Neither
School	State	State	State	State / Private	State
Entry qualification	A levels	Access course	BTEC course	Degree	A levels
Merit of grades	ABB	Merit	Merit	BBBC	A*AD
No. GCSEs English maths	8 A A*	0 D D	6 C C	11 B B	10 AB A*
University age (1)	10	14	11	Early teens	17
Nursing age (2)	20	7	16	24	17
Year 1 grade average	75%	56%	39%	74%	Leaver
Year 1 mark range	50-88	37-60	20-61	54-89	Leaver

Key: _(1) Age first thought about going to university; (2) Age thought about studying nursing_

Findings – Before University Factors
Initial questionnaire data identified factors that were statistically significant, or not, when compared with students' first year grades (Table 3).

Table 3: Factors found to be significantly linked, or not, with end-of-year students' grades

Significant Factors	Not Significant Factors
• Ethnicity • Religion • Academic self-perception • Main entry qualification • GCSE number • GCSE English & maths	• Age • Gender • Country of origin • Disability • Parents as graduates • State or private schooling • A-level entry tariff

Students' questionnaire qualitative free-text comments indicated that students chose to study nursing for a number of reasons, with many students citing that they wanted to help people, because of the anticipated job satisfaction and as a second-choice option.

Qualitative comments also indicated that the students' decision to study at the chosen university was frequently based on its reputation, campus and its location.

Findings – During University Factors

Face-to-face interviews with individual students indicated that several of the components of the MoSP were often themes important for students.

Competence, especially academic competence, was a major theme mentioned by many students. This was especially important for students who had entered the course via non-traditional routes, e.g., BTEC and Access course. These students often felt unprepared for undergraduate study, expressing that there prior course had not provided them with the requisite skills or that they had received much greater support before. Expectations of support, however, was not limited to non-traditional students, with some A-level students expressing that they had not anticipated the high workload of their nursing course.

Social integration and support were mentioned by most students in some form during interviews and in the leavers' questionnaires. The extent of a student's integration related to whether they were a local student or not, if they had family commitments and their prior educational attainment. Students frequently discussed support networks and these varied, with students mentioning family, peers, local friends, and clinical and academic staff; however, no one source support seemed to standout, as it depended on the social and educational situation of the student. Importantly though, overall the underlying message imparted by the students in this cohort was that a significant other or others was necessary for the student to feel supported, motivated and integrated.

Other important themes elicited during interviews and questionnaires related to student identity and their sense of purpose. The student's motivation to qualify as a nurse and their perception of their abilities as a student and nurse moderated their progression. Students with a strong desire to complete the course seemed more able to cope with some setbacks, whereas those with a less keen drive struggled more so – this was especially so for one leaver who realised she no longer wanted to be a nurse.

Tables 4 and 5 outline two student interviews, illustrating the difference between a male student entering the course via a non-traditional route and a student a more mature student who had traditional qualifications. The experience of these two students was markedly different, with Student 42 feeling less equipped to study the course and wanting more support, whilst Student 95 coped well with the demands of the course and he felt well-supported.

Table 4: Student 42's interview summary

Interview Summary
• University education daunting. Felt unprepared by college and BTEC course.
• Staff supportive but personal tutor not understanding of feeling overwhelmed. Wants more informal approach, extended guidance and ongoing monitoring.
• Transition from college environment to university one difficult, as less support and increased standards.
• Placements not met expectations and information lacking.
• Changed person – more confident and talkative.
• Finances difficult. Lives at home with parents. Long train travel to university and placements.
• Achievement – developing academic skills, speaking and writing more confidently and becoming more analytical.
• Placement experience – focusing on placement document completion.
• Student support – limited peer group support but would like more.
• Family support is good, as ask about progress and if doing work.
• Changed – more aware of things intellectually.
• Plan – get better grades and work hard by gaining more support from lecturers.

Table 5: Student 95's interview summary

Interview Summary
• Course – enjoyed the course and found the academic work manageable, as completed a degree before and found the assessments manageable.
• Placements – positive experiences, learnt a lot and had good mentors. Changed initial field of practice choice because of experiences and altered expectations.
• Socially –worked before so replaced work relationships with new university friendships. Lives at home with parents and has continuing social network.
• Finances – using savings from when working. Applied to do part-time work. Lives with parents and they help out and without their help would not do the course.
• Achievements – passing the first year, good feedback from placement staff and developed clinical skills (quite confident now).
• Academic – disappointed with some grades but pleased with others. Not as confident as anticipated. Quality of feedback varies.
• Support – personal tutor (seen three times) and aware of other support systems. Placement mentors, others staff and students provide support, including practice placement managers and clinical link staff. Small number of students provide most support. Family also supportive – mother is a registered nurse.

Discussion

The cohort study enabled the initial research questions to be addressed, highlighting that a number of factors were influential for this group of students and their progress across the first year of their course. However, when all of the findings were pooled, it appeared that progression is often not related to isolated, individual factors, but it is the inter-relationship between factors that is important. Students can experience

difficulties during a course in one area but be sustained by another facet of the course. For example, students can struggle academically but feel positive about their clinical experiences, or a group of friends can encourage them when they are feeling low. However, some factors can be dominant, such as a lack of identification with a future career in nursing, although yet again, this can be moderated to some extent and influenced by others and their encouragement for the student to stay or leave.

Several, new themes emerged during the course: preparedness, expectations, transition and support. Lack of preparedness for university study was mentioned by many students in this study. This not an uncommon theme in the literature. Andrew et al (2008), for example, found that students were not prepared for the science, theoretical level and financial burden of their course. Furthermore, O'Donnell (2011) found that students had difficulty with independent study and a lack of preparedness by their former course, and that unrealistic expectations was a key reason why students voluntarily withdraw from a course.

Transition was another newly emerging theme, as students either coped or struggled with the new life at university. Wilcox, Winn and Fyvie-Gauld (2005) describe this as transition from the old, pre-university life, to the new life. Some students in this study missed their old life and felt homesick, with others feeling more comfortable with their new roles and ways of living, although this seemed often related to levels of social integration and support.

Support is a theme mentioned by nearly all the students in this study. Tinto (1993) highlighted the importance of social integration, with Rudel (2006) expressing that peer support was crucial for course persistence – this is not surprising as many students have a high expectation of their social life at university (Whittaker 2008). However, several students in this study cited support from family and local, pre-university friends, which may reflect that student nurses experience university social life differently to other students due to the nature of their course.

Recommendations

Students frequently mentioned a lack of preparedness for university study or university life, and this often related to levels of student expectation. Changes to the admissions process could help address lack of preparedness and help manage unrealistic expectations. Pre-course tests (Donaldson, McCallum and Lafferty 2010), requiring pre-course nursing experience (Wilson et al 2011), realistic open-day presentations (Rodgers et al 2013) and greater qualification selectivity (O'Donnell 2011) have been suggested to help manage preparation and expectation, although there are potential resource and equality issues with some of these suggestions.

Risk identification and management during the admissions and transitional phase of a course have been recommended to help with student progression. Cameron et al (2011) suggest targeting 'at risk' students, McSherry and Marland (1999) more bespoke support systems, and Wray et al (2012) a more personalised approach. Again, however, such approaches as a more active personal tutor system would require greater resources (Watts 2011).

Conclusion

This study aimed to research the progression of a cohort of first-year student nurses using a new MoSP. A number of key factors emerged, illustrating that there are pre-course factors that are linked with academic achievement and transitional experiences that affect student progress. These learnings can inform future admissions, recruitment and first-year student support processes. However, it is perhaps time to go beyond factor and broad theme identification and adopt a more individualised research approach to truly understand how students are affected and influenced by their experiences of the first year of their programmes of study.

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Biography

Richard Breakwell, a lecturer in nursing at the University of Birmingham, has over 15 years' experience, in various roles, of supporting nursing students during their studies. His increasing interest in student progression led to his commencing his doctoral studies and aim to research the undergraduate student experience.

SMILES AND CHALLENGES: MULTI-DIMENSIONAL PERSPECTIVES OF THAI POST-GRADUATE STUDENTS IN THE UK

Angela M Cleary

Abstract

The stereotypic image of smiling, passive Thai students masks the hidden depths of cultural conflict and academic challenges encountered while studying in the West. Researchers in Australia and North America investigated problems experienced by International students at Western universities but there is a sparsity of research into the experiences of Thai students.

Academically gifted Thai students reported various problems while studying in the UK which raised serious concerns and initiated this research project. The research of others, interviews with students and their teachers, questionnaires, classroom observations, reflective journals and group discussions provided a wealth of data which challenged Hofstede's arguably superficial portrayal of Thai nationals. A picture emerged of complex individuals from a diverse nation never colonised by a Western power. Pedagogical and cultural background influenced the academic and social adaptation of the participants to the challenges and pressures of studying for a one year Masters degree at three UK universities.

International students provide a major financial income for UK universities and with this benefit comes responsibility to provide the highest quality education. This study challenges pre-conceptions of stereotypic generalities. It highlights the importance of recognising the individuality of international students and assumptions of national identities. It aims to augment existing research thereby providing a source of valuable pedagogic and cultural information for teachers and their Thai students to their mutual benefit.

Introduction

Each year thousands of Thai students come to the UK to study. The Higher Education Statistics Agency [HESA] show that in the academic year 2013-2014 6,763 Thai students studied in UK at undergraduate and post-graduate level. Of these, over one thousand were recipients of post-graduate scholarships funded by the Thai Government at a cost of millions of pounds each year.

However, Thai students have reported issues and problems over the years and this anecdotal evidence has caused concern. Some of these academically gifted students were not completing their studies within the allocated time frame and were requesting extensions. Some students were reporting high levels of stress and some were unable to continue their studies and had to return home. Some students were just finding the courses problematic and were unable to complete their studies for a variety of reasons which were difficult to categorise.

This was the trigger for my research study. I felt it was important to investigate these issues and provide a voice for the students. My aim was to shed more light on the key challenges and problems being experienced by Thai students in their studies at

UK universities which would provide insight for both Thai and UK educators and also assist and support Thai students.

Research design

I decided to focus on students studying for Masters degrees because this high level UK university course concentrated the major problems being experienced by the students into a condensed time frame of only one year. The Pilot Study was an essential stage of the design process. It included face to face interviews with Thai students who were just completing their Masters courses in the UK and also trialling questionnaires.   Key outcomes of the pilot included:

- identifying some key issues and challenges experienced by Thai students in the UK
- defining the focus of the research questions
- fine-tuning the methodology
- refining the design and phraseology of the questionnaire & inclusion of a bilingual version
- modifying interview techniques
- obtaining focused and accurate information which would provide valuable qualitative and quantitative data upon which to base the research study.

The pilot assisted in identifying 3 key areas which were major concerns and challenges for Thai students:

- Proficiency in Academic English
- Differences in Teaching & Learning styles
- Differences in Culture.

The resulting design incorporated a one year ethnographic case study from multiple perspectives focussing on 4 Thai Master's students studying in different faculties at UK universities. The following 3 research questions emerged from the Pilot Study:

- **How do Thai post-graduate students feel about their proficiency in academic English while studying in UK?**
- **How do Thai post-graduate students feel about their pedagogical experiences while studying in UK?**
- **How do Thai post-graduate students experience cultural challenges while studying in UK?**

In order to ensure a robust set of triangulated data I incorporated a combination of qualitative and quantitative data sets which complemented and supported each other. Evidence was gathered from:

- Bilingual questionnaires (n=63)
- Interviews throughout the year with the 4 case study students [*individual interviews and group discussions*]
- Observation of lessons and my own reflections
- Interviews with their teachers immediately after the observed lessons

- Field notes and diagrams of classroom layout including student seating plans
- Student self-reflective personal journals

Several Thai students volunteered as Case Study participants. The final 4 were selected based on their location [convenient to my office] and because they were studying in different academic faculties. They were all in their mid-20s from different regions of Thailand. They had scored highly in their International English Language Test [IELTS] which was a condition of entry to the university course and to obtaining their UK visa. Their English Language skills made it easier for us to share ideas and communicate effectively during the year.

Nickname*	Abe	Plum	Sid	Wendy
Gender	Male	Female	Male	Female
Age	Mid-20s			
UK University Faculty	Physics	Law	Finance	History
IELTS Level	Levels between 6.5 - 8.0			

*Not their real names

Figure 1: Thai student case study participants

Of the 9 lecturers who kindly allowed me to observe their lessons and who gave of their time to be interviewed, all but 2 were foreign nationals. It was therefore interesting to hear their views on teaching and learning in the UK and in particular their experiences of teaching Thai students.

As I started analysing the data it was evident that an additional, unexpected theme was emerging. The influence of stereotypic perspectives was prevalent across each of the 3 major research themes of Language, Pedagogy and Culture and it is the focus of this paper. My research revealed a very lively and passionate debate among respected academics who took very different viewpoints.

Challenges to the essentialist viewpoint

The essentialist perspective on national culture was pioneered by Geert Hofstede (a Dutch psychologist) who defined national culture '…as the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from others' (Hofstede, 2010 p6). In the late 1960s and early 1970s he analysed a large database of IBM employees and formulated a Model of National Culture based on 5

then 6 criteria or dimensions. Each dimension was given a score defining the key traits of that particular nation. Holliday and Piller define the essentialist viewpoint of culture:

'…an essentialist views culture…as a **physical entity**…it is homogenous in that perceived traits are spread evenly giving the sense of a simple society. It is associated with a country and language.' Holliday, Hyde & Kullman (2010, p. 3)

'The *entity* understanding of culture is essentialist: it treats culture as **something people have or to which they belong**. Piller (2011, p. 15)

I was particularly interested to investigate whether the Thai students in my study reflected the essentialist stereotypic imagery of Thai national culture but also how the multinational teachers viewed Thai students in their classes. However, I was very surprised by my findings.

Stereotypic views of accented English

One of the key themes to emerge was a stereotypic view of the English Language and accented English in particular. What was interesting was that lecturers and Thai students mentioned accent as an important factor but from different perspectives.

For example: some lecturers mentioned the difficulty in understanding the accents of some students [especially if they were unaccustomed to the accent]. An Italian lecturer comments on the multi-national composition of his faculty and speaks in a derogatory manner about the mixture of accented English which students experience.

'I'm sure that when you are confronted with a faculty that comes from so many different backgrounds, we have Italians, French we have erm people from really all over, teaching all subjects … So you are combining … **many dirty accents**.' [Interview: Lecturer 5 Italian]

This view is supported by Wendy who comments:

'One of my my my friends say that she does she didn't understand the lecture because she the the her lecturer is **not native speaker**.' [Wendy: Reflections Term 3]

Abe comments on regional British accents and provides an example which he finds amusing:

'…**their** (*UK students*) accent it's something else it's not **your** accent; it's not BBC accent. Some some people are from West London …I been to Manchester and I'm going into to the the department store and and it's not open yet and the security walk walk to me and said "It's **shoot**" "what? Oh ok ok. It's **shut** ok" (laugh). [Abe: Reflections Term 3]

Both students rate a non-regional pronunciation as more acceptable. What is very interesting and unexpected is that at no time did any of the Thai students in this study comment on their own accented English.

Accent has a key influence on the listener and Lippi-Green comments on how people judge or stereotype others because of the way they speak.

'… accent becomes both manner and means for exclusion….when people reject an accent they also reject the identity of the person speaking: his or her race, ethnic heritage, national origin, regional affiliation or economic class Lippi-Green (1994 p 165)

Accent can marginalise or even exclude. It can act as identifier of social / economic class and cultural heritage. It can also prejudice listeners. Rubin & Smith in their study focussed on how native English speaking undergraduate students at a university in Georgia (USA) responded to being taught by non-native English speaking teaching assistants. They found that some students rated teachers lower [poorer teachers] if they had non-native accents.

'[students]… need to be disabused of the stereotype that teachers who speak with non-native accents are necessarily going to be poor instructors. Rubin and Smith (1990, p. 350)

Nomnian (2008) in his research on Thai students attending a Masters class in a UK university also raised the issue of how Thai students responded negatively to regional and non-native English and favoured the stereotypic portrayal of standard English.

'…it is imperative for Thai students to develop optimistic attitudes towards multilingualism and varieties of spoken English inside and outside the classroom'. Nomnian (2008 p34)

Stereotypic representation of national culture

The representation of National Culture or National Identity as a stereotypic descriptor was very interesting. The Thai students tended to identify the Asian students in their social group by nationality e.g. Malaysian, Hong Kong Chinese and group the others as stereotypic Westerners or Europeans (which included N Americans).

However, when I interviewed Western lecturers, they tended to identify the Western students by nationality e.g. German, Italian, American etc and referred to the Asian students as a stereotypic group.

Plum comments in a humorous manner on the stereotypic phenotype of 'black hair' which she employs to describe fellow-Asians

'At first er oh so many Asians *(laughter),* entire class … oh my god I saw **black hair everywhere** but you know after two weeks it feels like it's only me.' [Plum. Interview. Term 1]

However other examples illustrated how some sensitive issues can cause offence in relation to inter-cultural relationships. In an interview during the first term, Wendy was keen to debate the role of America in SE Asia. She was particularly upset by the perspective taken by the North American teacher in relation to the Vietnam war. She felt passionately about this topic but in the interview she also demonstrated a

generalised cultural stereotypic viewpoint when describing the Western philosophy of intervention.

'… because they are Western, they think in a Western way. They never think about another side …' [Wendy Interview Term 1]

Abe was upset by the stereotypic representation of Thai national culture in a Western film about Thai kick-boxing

'You know, when the *[Thai]* culture came to international level it's kind of fake; it's not true and every every people in that country *[Thailand]* will know that that's **not** our culture.' [Abe Reflections Term 3]

Angela Reyes comments that cultural stereotypes can be perpetuated through media.

'…stereotypes can circulate through various popular media, such as film, television…which can perpetuate the distribution of value'   Reyes (2009 p57)

She states that that it is the responsibility of writers and film producers to represent national cultures in an authentic manner.

Another interesting aspect to this focus was how Thai students viewed intercultural relationships and in particular, co-nationals grouping together.   Brown, in her research at a UK university, commented that fellow-international students found that 'Thai students were seen to be the most entrenched and unapproachable' Brown (2009 p187).

Sid however provided an example from his own experience which challenges Brown's findings and opens the area for further research in particular the motivation for co-cultural grouping:

'…this term we had to … select our own *[work]* groups and then somebody …approached me … and ask me if I wanted to join him. So I think erm well it's not that big a deal but then I I still felt erm quite good about it … so I'm not that bad to work with (laugh) after all!' Sid, [Reflections Term 3]

Abe also challenged Brown's findings and shared his observations of co-cultural grouping. He notes a prevalence for Chinese students to group together which he identifies as a 'problem' but interestingly, he also includes Europeans who he observed also naturally gravitate towards their own culture:

'Chinese have this problem as well; they group, they clustering with their own Chinese people nationality and er people er that that usually come together is European because they they have same cultural.' [Abe. Reflections Term 3]

Reyes comments on how stereotypes can be an advantage to minority groups.

'…positioning the self and other…is part and parcel of how stereotypes are used to resist oppression and celebrate identities …invoking the Asian stereotype foregrounds the potential for inhabiting this stereotype'. Reyes (2009, p.53)
She continues by explaining:

'…using the idea of stereotype as resource' it is interesting '…how people re-appropriate stereotypes of their ethnic grouping as a means through which to position themselves and others in socially meaningful ways'. Reyes (2009 p 44)

By 'inhabiting the stereotype' individuals from ethnic minority groups can position themselves as members of a larger group which can provide strength and identity. However, Spreckels and Kotthoff provide a timely warning against the dangers of stereotyping:

"…we must categorize in order to make the world understandable, for categorization means simplification…it is precisely in this simplification that we find a danger of stereotyping and thereby as a consequence the danger of developing prejudices' Spreckels and Kotthoff (2009 p. 422)

It is clear that the issue of stereotype is far more nuanced and subtle than one would initially suspect. Reyes (2009) and Spreckles and Kotthoff (2009) illustrate the diverse and complex nature of this sensitive subject. Whether one embraces the positive stereotype of a similar-minded, larger co-cultural group of individuals who provide support or a sense of belonging to its members or use stereotypic language as a descriptor of a culture or nation with which one is unfamiliar, they underline how distress and misunderstanding can be an unintended outcome.

Stereotypic behaviour in the classroom

The classroom is another location where stereotyping can occur and which was prevalent in the interviews with Thai students and also their teachers. Examples show how some lecturers generalised classroom behaviour by national identities:

'Thai students are very quiet and it is difficult to know if they understand anything. Students from the US talk anyway and tend not to be embarrassed speaking in public. Students who respond the best in lectures tend to come from the UK, India and Germany.' [Lecturer 9 Punjabi / Sid]

Interestingly the Thai students in this study also exhibited a similar tendency towards stereotypic national descriptions of their class mates and even their own behaviour as Thai nationals.

'We [*Thai*] we are modest, quite modest compared to European…. American people is very, very show off! They would ask question; a lot. Sometimes it makes sense, sometime it doesn't. … I do ask if I think it's worthwhile'. [Abe: Reflections Term 3]

The stereotypic view that Thai students are reluctant to participate in class was challenged by comments made by some of the Thai students in this study. Abe

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(above) comments that he will not ask a question in class unless he '…thinks it's worthwhile'. Sid as we saw earlier was very pleased to be invited to join a work group of his class peers. Wendy explained that it was not an unwillingness to participate which was the problem:

'Sometime [I] have the answer when he ask but … I need time to think about it but he's already gone (laugh) when I want to say something…. I need time to understand the question and then to think. I cannot answer quickly like other student but some time I can answer.' Wendy [Interview Term 2]

Brown in her research comments that co-national students [at UK universities] are driven by '…shame and the desire to avoid anxiety, retreat from English-speaking scenarios into the comfort of the **mono-ethnic ghetto**'. Brown (2009 p 188).

However, my research did not support this observation. Positive comments were received from Thai students where the teacher took the initiative by mixing the students and rearranging seating plans before embarking on a group discussion.

I also discovered that some of the Thai students modified their behaviour as the year progressed. Sid for example started the year by participating in a multi-national student football team and a rock band. However, as the terminal exams approached he made the pragmatic decision to join a study group of SE Asian students to share the work load and benefit from the diverse academic strengths of the group members.

Chalmers and Volet also note that South-East Asian students in Australia, formed 'informal study groups' which provided opportunities to 'clarify their understanding of tutorials and course work'. The study groups also provided '**social and emotional support**…previously supplied by their communities and families' Chalmers and Volet (1997 p 92)

This is a very different interpretation to the observations made by Brown illustrating that superficial stereotypic behaviour needs to be investigated in order to obtain a true and enlightened understanding of the underlying motivation.

Conclusion

This theme of stereotype emerged unexpectedly from the various data sets and traversed the three major areas of my research: Language, Pedagogy and Culture. I found this unforeseen dimension to the study both interesting and also challenging. This research notes positive and negative aspects to the nature and existence of Stereotype. It has highlighted unanticipated viewpoints both from Western and Thai perspectives.

My research shows that both Thai students and their teachers have stereotypic images of 'others' who are unfamiliar to them. I was not expecting to find such frequent examples of stereotypic imagery or phraseology in multinational UK universities which distanced and negatively depicted the identity of other cultures.

I hope my research illuminates a small corner of this complex and nuanced aspect of human behaviour and makes a constructive and informative contribution to this continuing lively debate.

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Biography

Angela Cleary has been a senior teacher for many years both in the state and independent secondary school sectors. As an assistant Head Teacher she achieved the NPQH qualification with the National College for School Leadership. Working full-time she then completed an MEd in Bilingualism in Education with the University of Birmingham and is currently a PhD student with the School of Education at the University of Birmingham.

DEVELOPING AS A TEACHER: A STUDY OF NIGERIAN TEACHERS

Olufunke Fasoyiro

Abstract

This paper presents insights gained from preparatory work in relation to a research about the early career experiences of teachers in Lagos State. The historic failings of Nigeria's public school system have left Nigerian Education sector with challenges such as low teaching standards and lack of basic opportunities for learning. Lagos State is used as a representation of the Nigerian scenario. Eraut's (2004) model of learning and context factors that affect professional growth is used to analyze the extent to which new teachers develop the attributes that support learning in the way they engage with work, socialize at work and see themselves in that process.

A background of the research is first presented and then followed by a brief characterization of research participants' recruited so far. The issues arising from the recruitment of graduates into teaching in Lagos State schools is discussed and the paper ends with final reflections on pertinent concerns worth pondering about in order that efforts targeted at providing quality education in Lagos State stands a greater chance of success now and in the future.

Introduction

There is a growing international consensus about the importance of the early experiences of teachers in shaping their development, influencing their effectiveness, not only in their initial years but throughout their careers (c.f. Jensen et al, 2012). Bubb (2007) drew particular attention to the first year of teaching as the most formative period that can determine teachers' happiness and success. This research is about the early career experiences of teachers in Lagos State. It uses Eraut's (2004) model of learning and context factors that affect professional growth to analyze the extent to which new teachers develop the attributes that support learning in the way they engage with work, socialize at work and see themselves in that process. Unveiling stakeholders' perceptions about teachers professional growth may reveal new understanding and usable information about initial teacher education and new teacher development in the Nigerian context.

Although now classified as a lower middle income country (GNI per capita of more than $1,045 but less than $4,125), Nigeria's education system continues to suffer from low teaching standards and lack of basic opportunities for learning. Low entry standard of trainee teachers, ineffective pre-service training and inadequate in-service training of teachers are some of the causes of this weakness in Nigeria's education system. In Nigeria, the annual total number of teachers produced is unknown but about 75 colleges of education are said to produce up to 40,000 National Certificate of Education (NCE) Graduates annually. World Bank (2013) figures suggest that only 66.1% of primary school teachers are trained in Nigeria. Considering the contextual background, which reveal stakeholder concerns and motivations, the author seeks to explore the professional leaning and development of teachers using Lagos State as a representation of the Nigerian scenario. Many of Lagos State's educational challenges are replicated in other Nigerian States.   For

example, private schools account for 57% of total enrolment in schools and less than 65% of private schools teacher are said to be qualified (75, 334 out of 118,758).

On the one hand, the content of graduate teacher training programme is examined alongside teachers actual experience of the programme to make sense of the process of teacher preparation in Nigeria; on the other hand, teachers and stakeholders reflections both on the reality of working in schools and its impact on teachers continued professional development and practice is also examined. This in-depth analysis is essential for understanding stakeholders perception about teachers preparation for their professional role in the classroom, the impact that the context has on teacher learning and to encourage dialogue about teacher support in this context. This effort will allow for (i) identification of successful experiences and challenges in how the graduate teacher training programme prepares teachers for making the transition from being taught to actually teaching in Nigeria with the aim of improving practice and the overall context, and (ii) to demonstrate how teachers can go beyond their personal boundaries, and show how learning happens from a personal perspective.

Theoretical Framework

This study deals with new teachers' professional identity which - in this study - can be defined as teacher's self-image, the meanings they attach to themselves and their work and the meanings that are attributed to them by others (Day and Gu, 2010). Beijaard et al (2004) listed teachers' perceptions of their self-efficacy, professional development, ability and willingness to cope with educational change and to implement innovations in their teaching practice as elements of teacher identity. The concept of identity is therefore inherently bound to how teachers develop and grow within the context of their work. From this point of view, this study assumes that the context and factors that shape teachers learning experiences are relevant in exploring how this professional identity is developed.

The development of new teachers professional identity will be explored using the theoretical framework developed from findings reported by Eraut et al (2004) concerning the context and learning factors that affect professional growth of nurses, accountants and engineers. This framework is relevant and compelling for a study about teachers as it articulates the key factors that affect learning, whose relative significance Eraut et al. (2004) suggest will vary across contexts. In advocating the relevance of Eraut et al.'s 'two triangle' model for teachers development, Day and Gu (2010) contend that it illustrates the need to develop strategies and cultures which support teachers confidence, commitment and personal agency needs.

Methodology

This is a qualitative study that sets out to use in depth interviews to explore stakeholders conceptions of new teachers learning and professional development, and at the same time analyse the coherence and proximities of opinions held. A qualitative methodology is adopted to discover the cause and effect relationships about new teachers learning and development and how the context interacts with these. This presents the right paradigm for teachers to discuss freely the shifts and transition in teachers' professional identity during teacher training and in schools.

The main objective of the study is to understand how new teachers in Nigeria perceive their learning and development through their involvement in a graduate teacher training programme (PGDE) and on arrival in schools. Documents such as Nigeria's national policy on Teacher Education as well as the Professional Standards for Nigerian Teachers and the PGDE programme guide are examined along with the views expressed in the interview of fifteen new teachers, two school principals, two leaders at the Ministry of Education (MoE) and the PGDE course coordinator at the University of Lagos (UNILAG). It is hoped that the triangulation of document analysis with account from interviews can provide authentic information about any causal relationships or patterns that exists.

The data collection method for this study is in-depth interviews because they offer the advantage of face-to-face interaction in order to learn from the interviewee's experience. This method will allow the researcher and the respondents to jointly explore the meaning of the questions and answers involved.

Brief characterisation of participants recruited so far

Using a respondent driven sampling (RDS) method, contact was established with two teachers from an initial sample obtained from the PGDE course coordinator at UNILAG. These teachers were recruited in 2011 when Lagos State began the recruitment of graduates without teaching qualifications to teach in public schools starting from the 2011/2012 academic year. The male respondent had obtained a PGDE prior to being employed as a secondary school geography teacher while the female respondent had just completed PGDE studies in fulfilment of her employment condition as a primary school teacher.

Reflection from Research Preparatory Work

Insights gained from the study preparatory work revealed that in making improvements in Lagos State, the Ministry of Education began the recruitment of graduates without teaching qualifications who undergo teaching skills acquisition (TSA) Course prior to being posted into schools to teach. These teachers are expected to obtain PGDE within two years in order for their employment to be confirmed and to be placed on the correct salary scale. The challenge however is that these teachers are self-funded to undertake much needed pedagogic development in their own time while functioning in full time roles. It is also not clear what in-school support is available when new teachers arrive in schools and during their PGDE studies.

In recent years, the trend is on in many countries to explicitly focus on attracting the most talented graduates into the classroom as the idea that teacher quality is the key to improving schools has become increasingly widespread. Schemes such as Teach First (TF) in the UK and Teach for America in the US have won plaudits for recruiting more high-flying graduates into teaching. Research has shown that a fundamental contributor to the success of graduate recruitment in most education contexts is the support that teachers get during teacher training and in bridging the transition between teacher education and classroom practice Indeed the opinion is widely held that adequate support helps beginning teachers to improve their effectiveness from day one. The need for teacher support cannot be

overemphasized especially when the amount of time lost to non-teaching activities is quantified. Jensen et al .(2012) concluded that in more than one third of the participating countries in the OECD teaching and learning international study (TALIS), up to 20% of teaching time is lost to keeping order in the classroom. Teacher support during training ensures that learning time is not lost as a result of the problems that new teachers experience with classroom management and other problems

Some of the ways graduates are supported during their first year is by having a reduced timetable, being mentored by experienced professionals (from the ITE institution and/or the school) who help them with subject knowledge development and wider professional practice within the school. For example, in recognition of the support that graduates need on the TF teacher training programme, three key roles (University tutor, School mentor and TF Leadership Development Officers) who support graduate trainees in their first year. In addition, newly qualified teachers are assigned a mentor in the school during their second (induction) year.

As a result of increasing recognition of the importance of the early years of teaching in developing teacher effectiveness and in recognition of the challenges faced, induction programmes have been introduced in many educational settings such as the UK, Canada and Australia (OECD, 2005). Although not without its critics (Tickle, 2001); the introduction of induction programs in many educational contexts have been shown to improve the effectiveness and retention of new teachers (c.f. Fuller, 2003; Holloway, 2001). Many researchers agree that a benefit of compulsory induction is that new teachers are helped to become more effective (c.f. Findlay, 2006; Bubb, 2007). Conversely, in some educational settings, the absence of a formalized (Kenya) or compulsory induction period (USA) has been reported to be detrimental to teacher development (c.f. Indoshi, 2003).

Anecdotal evidence from the two teachers above suggests that graduates in Lagos State do not benefit from a recognized period of support and induction during their first year and second years respectively. It can only be inferred that a seeming gap in the support arrangement for new teachers in Lagos State may be counterproductive for the impact that graduate teachers can make in transforming the education of children in Lagos State.

Implications of graduate recruitment into teaching in Nigeria

The rationale for the preferential recruitment of graduates into teaching position in Lagos State is not clear, it can be assumed however that the discourse will center around the age long debate about the location of ITE at either the undergraduate or postgraduate level. Such debates have focused on the relative merits of Bachelor of Education (BEd) versus Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) or Postgraduate Diploma in Education (PGDE) programmes. Fundamental to such a debate in Nigeria is the publicly held opinion that years of failings of Nigeria's public school system have resulted in challenges such as low teaching standards and lack of basic opportunities for learning. It is no surprise therefore that concerns have been raised about the low quality of teachers being produced in Nigeria. To buttress this point, Furlong et al (2009) questioned the effectiveness of ITE in increasing teacher subject and professional knowledge. Also noteworthy is the low status

accorded the profession which in turn affects the quality of intakes onto initial teacher training courses. In fact Ejieh (2009) reported that many students in the nations' faculties of education could not gain admission into courses of their first choice. The above concerns and more could have informed Lagos State Government decision to target its teacher supply efforts to the graduate unemployment market to address the challenges of education in the state while alleviating the burdens of graduate unemployment in the state.

Subject mastery could well be an important consideration for the targeted recruitment of graduates on the expectation that possession of a PGCE can support the development of relevant skills for instruction. This seeming distinction between subject matter knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge shows Lagos State Government attention is being drawn to the fundamental problem of in-effective pre-service training and inadequate in-service training symptomatic of Nigeria's education system. Johnson (2009) suggested that teacher policy development have been inhibited by these on-going problems in Nigeria drawing attention to the challenge of deciding who can become a teacher and what their training should consists of. Past and current international response to the problem of education in Nigeria has been through different collaborations such as Lagos State Government Eko Secondary Education Project and the Department for International Development (DFID) and Cambridge Education (CE) projects such as ESSPIN, TDP, and DEEPEN. These collaborations have specified targets for improving teacher learning and development with success criteria defined in terms of teacher capacity development. Rather than depleting the teaching stock, these capacity development interventions have helped to cushion the skills and knowledge gap of a large of the teaching population with low academic and professional competencies.

International collaborations have made undeniable improvements in access to quality and equity within Nigerian education system, it would seem however that the question of who a qualified teacher is in Nigeria remains unaddressed. The recruitment of graduate teachers may be the start of government attempt to raise the academic requirements of those entering the teaching profession. It may be that a desirable end point for resolving Nigeria's education challenges is by making teaching a graduate profession. What this may entail in the Nigerian context is not clear in the absence of empirical research. The need for stakeholder discourse and debate cannot be over-emphasized in order for this to happen. What seems obvious and interesting however is the prospects that recruiting graduates bring for addressing the problem of low entry standards of entrants into the teaching profession. It is possible that teachers are of the right calibre upon entry into the profession and the problems of the past are not reinvented. Also important, is the possibility that in-service CPD stands a chance of increasing the academic and professional competencies of teachers as they progress in their career. In addition, another prospect that graduate recruitment into teaching brings is in alleviating the problems of years of graduate unemployment which commentators suggest is of multidimensional proportions on a national scale and has defied lasting solutions in Nigeria (Okechukwu, 2014). It is also anticipated that given the right remuneration and working conditions, there is a chance that graduate teachers will succeed and can be used as role models for the profile of the teaching profession envisioned for Lagos State and Nigeria.

Improving the caliber of teachers joining the profession in Lagos State is important and holds transformational possibilities for raising educational standards and student attainment in Lagos State and Nigeria as a whole. This in itself is not a silver bullet. Anecdotal evidence gathered from the above teachers suggest that graduates employed in Lagos State benefit from regular CPD but lack the kind of structured support that can help them to come up to scratch in the class room as soon as possible. Also, the requirement to become accredited by obtaining a PGDE while working full time places additional burdens on them. More awareness needs to be raised about the fact that the first few years of teaching is the most formative years during which graduates need support. It is also crucial to gain context specific insights about what new teachers need in order to be effective. Despite a two week TSA course, graduate teachers have limited experience of training to teach on arrival in Lagos State schools. With the right support, teachers can be equipped to transform the schools and the communities they work in. It would need the coordinated effort of schools, universities and education stakeholders collaboratively working together to see improvements in Lagos State children's educational attainment.

For a country that places a high cultural and social value on education, the multiplicity of eductional policies and standards resulting from 50 years of UPE (c.f. Nwagwu, 1997; Ololube, Egbezor & Kpolovie, 2008), contemplating ways of working collaboratively may seem arduous. Graduate recruitment into teaching posts in Lagos State shows that the hope for transformations in Nigeria's education system is alive and change is possible. Indeed change is not just possible but it is inevitable if Nigeria is to deliver the target of substantially increasing the supply of qualified teachers by 2030 (global goal 4).

Final Reflections

Pondering and looking forward with expectation, I am curious to know how the recruitment of graduates into the teaching workforce can change the education landscape in Nigeria for the better. What tensions does this present within the graduate unemployment market and how can different stakeholders collaborate to address this for improvements in education and reduction in graduate unemployment.

A useful place to start is in considering what support is available for self-funded graduate teachers who undergo PGDE training in fulfillment of their employment conditions? Beyond adjustments to the right salary scale, what incentives if any are offered to these graduates on completion of their PGDE. Beyond the government, what roles if any are other sectors and stakeholders playing to make teaching a rewarding career so that the burden of education reform is collectively borne by all stakeholders in Nigeria? For example what transport and accommodation schemes are currently in place to support government efforts locally and nationally in attracting teachers into the profession? What other schemes can be put in place to support the recruitment of graduates into teaching? What support are businesses and corporates currently providing to cushion the burden of financial incentives for teachers? How can teaching be made attractive to graduates as a sustainable career beyond just having a job in order to enter the job market? What can businesses and banks do as

part of their CSR to ensure sustainable retention of graduate teachers in the classrooms.

The recruitment of graduates into teaching is helping to address the problem of quality and equity in children's education on the one hand and addressing the multidimensional problem of unemployment in Nigeria. It is worthwhile however to consider what tensions this can present within the sector considering the holders of (BEd) degrees who form part of the unemployed graduates. Education degree holders who education may have been their first choice at the university may feel marginalized in that the jobs that should rightfully have been theirs is now being offered to others who are less qualified to do the job on day one. These graduates could argue that the seeming weakness in the quality of their education degree is not a fault of theirs and they should not be denied the chance to develop their knowledge and skills on the job by giving education jobs to non-education degree holders. It would seem an appropriate time to start to consider what efforts if any are being channeled towards the dwindling regard for and viability of education degrees being offered by higher institutions?

It would seem that graduate teachers start work with limited training in schools on day one. What is not clear however is the expectations schools have for new gradate teachers in meeting their professional responsibilities as employees of the school. A useful consideration to explore is the provisions that are made for balancing the demands of full time work with the requirements for graduates undertaking a training course that does not appear to be integrated into the design of their work as trainee teachers in schools? How does this affect teacher's work life balance and what effect can this have on staff turnover and retention of teachers in the profession.

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Biography

Funke provides technical support to the Capacity Building exercise for Teacher Training and delivery of National Universities Commission (NUC) approved courses to undergraduate students at Federal University Lafia. Funke has worked within the education sector for over eight years initially as a classroom teacher and later in the field of Teacher Education mentoring and coaching trainee and early career teachers, supporting their further professional development towards the Teachers' Standards and in the areas of subject knowledge pedagogy. Funke received a B.Sc Zoology from University of Lagos Nigeria and a PGCE in Science Education from East London University. Funke is currently undertaking doctoral research at the UCL Institute of Education.

RETHINKING SCHOLARSHIP IN NURSE EDUCATION

Catherine Kelsey

Abstract

The nursing profession is undergoing significant change. The most apparent being: the recent progress to an all-graduate profession; the continued reforms following the findings of the Francis Report (2013) and the sustained restructuring of the health service that seeks to effectively manage the increasing demands placed upon it (NHS 2014).

Educational programmes in nursing have developed curriculum that places self-determined learning at the heart of professional practice. This heutagogical approach extols the value of reflective practitioners that empower the development of evidence based practice. Throughout this process students are supported by scholarly mentors.

In light of the significant changes and the continued challenges to nurse education this paper will seek to critically analyse the seminal work of Boyer, (1990) in which he sought to challenge the out-moded ideology of scholarship and propose a more enlightened contemporary framework, which all academics can utilise in order to encourage a more dynamic, systematic approach to learning.

Introduction

An all graduate profession

Nursing and nurse education has continued to develop throughout the decades. Systematic emphasis being on the importance of nurses being 'fit to practice'; the fundamental purpose, to safeguard the protection of society through confirmed standards (NMC 2015, NMC 2015a). A recent review commissioned by Health Education England in partnership with the professional nursing body the Nursing and Midwifery Council (NMC) (Willis 2015) has indicated the government's drive and commitment to improving patient care through ensuring the provision of experienced healthcare professionals able to drive forward effective change management and future expectations, within an ever-changing and increasingly demanding social context. As healthcare provision has become increasingly complex, it requires nurses who have the skills and abilities to critically reflect upon and analyse professional experiences and to co-ordinate the provision of safe and effective care, whilst encouraging collaboration and therapeutic practice (Jokinen and Mikkonen, 2013). Since the role has developed to encompass all the changes, life-long learning is now seen as an essential element of professional nursing practice (Benner et al., 2010). It is important therefore to ensure the future education and training needs of all nursing and healthcare staff, are met (Willis, 2015). One way in which this can be achieved in practice is by ensuring the nursing profession has highly skilled quality mentors able to integrate a number of different aspects of nursing, into professional practice, including reflection and effective leadership (Willis, 2012).

There exists within nursing and nurse education a plethora of literature that extols the value and importance of quality research in order to facilitate evidence based practice (Doolan-Grimes, 2013). Indeed many of our universities now focus on the research excellence framework, (which assesses the quality of research in UK higher education institutions) in order to secure financial survival and gain credibility as a research focused centre of excellence. Despite this emphasis on research, there is however very little attention paid to the developing of a culture of scholarship (Fitzpatrick and McCarthy, 2010). Taking into consideration the fundamental principles of nursing as a professional discipline, Fitzpatrick and McCarthy (2010), argue that academic nurse leaders must ensure a broad vision of scholarship is encapsulated within nurse education and encourage a significantly wider gamut of inquiry.

Historical Context

Placing scholarship in a historical context, Rolfe (2009) asserts that scholarship is defined as the various approaches to learning undertaken by the academic, including critical discussion, philosophical debate and empirical research; the work produced being made available for critique by academic peers. This framework argued Boyer (1990) was central to the concept of scholarship; however research had become the dominant factor with all other types of scholarship emerging from it.

Boyer

Boyer (1990) developed his framework to include four inter-related and overlapping domains (Conard and Pape, 2014) and which in recent years has become increasingly influential in helping to frame scholarship within higher education institutes (Boyd 2013). In his work Boyer (1990) moved away from the 'out of date stuffy idea' of scholarship as exemplifying academic rank in an educational setting and instead proposed a new contemporary model, one that fully recognised the importance of the whole myriad of academic function. This new model encourages freedom to assimilate new knowledge; to step back from one's thoughts; to find new connections; to build bridges (that enable the application of new and innovative ways of working) and to share this information in a way that is meaningful. In order to achieve this successfully, healthcare professionals must recognise their own unique role as nurses, nurse educationalists and mentors and work collaboratively through mutual respect to develop nurse practitioners who are sufficiently skilled and knowledgeable to ensure the provision of 21st century care.

Boyer's (1990) framework emphasises four tenets of scholarship that have become increasingly prominent in nurse education. Discovery of knowledge through research, integration of theories into clinical practice, application of intellect to professional dilemmas and the sharing of knowledge through teaching, a process by which fresh ideas are gained and new learning espoused. Anecdotally it could be argued this process encourages the concept of lifelong learning and supports the values of a profession committed to both the art and science of nursing advancement.

Scholarship of Discovery

In its true sense, scholarship of Discovery comes closest to the term 'research'; acquiring knowledge for its own sake through the testing and generating of theory (Braxton and Del Fevaro, 2002). It asks the questions what is known and what is yet to be found and makes a commitment to the expansion of human knowledge (Glassick 2000). An alternative perspective is that scholarship of Discovery can also be about personal discovery allowing the freedom of inquiry, to critically explore and to encourage a sense of empowerment that encourages a heutagogical approach to learning through a process of conscientisation and praxis (Freire, 1972). Boyer (1990) contends that the gaining of new knowledge, the advancement in professional and personal learning and the application of that learning creates an almost 'palpable' excitement. It could be argued therefore that the scholarship of Discovery not only has the potential to inspire the active engagement of nurses with nursing research, (Brown et al., 2009) and thus be at the forefront of evidence based practice, but also encourage a process of self-discovery, reflexivity and experiential learning, through which it is envisaged nurses will begin to identify the barriers that has the potential to obstruct the provision of quality care (Hurley et al., 2012). By taking ownership of research opportunities, nurses will be suitably positioned to effectively manage and take responsibility for integrating the new knowledge gained into professional practice.

Scholarship of Integration

Integration gives meaning to isolated facts and research findings, creates perspective and makes 'connections across disciplines' bringing new insight to bear on original research, (Glassick, 2000). Through ensuring the integration of learning into professional practice there is a greater opportunity to influence and educate a plethora of healthcare professionals; by asking the question what do the research findings mean (Glassick, 2000). Such questions call for a critical analysis, synthesis and interpretation of facts. They open up new ways of thinking and new ways of working that one cannot yet imagine, because one is not there yet. By sharing new knowledge and new ideas, or old ideas and old knowledge in a new and innovative way we can help to influence and create new insight into the way in which we practice as professionals and how we integrate evidence based research findings into professional practice. Clinical (integrated) scholarship is the transfer of research to practice and it could be argued has the potential to bridge the theory practice gap, acknowledged by Ousey and Gallagher (2007). This it is proposed could have developed as a result of empirical research being insufficiently tested prior to implementation (Gopee, 2010). The importance of the mentor in supporting the link between theory and practice therefore should not be underestimated.

Scholarship of Application

The Scholarship of Application is considered to be the application of disciplinary knowledge and skill to societal problems (Braxton and Del Fevaro, 2002). It presupposes that knowledge discovered can be integrated and applied in practice, and asks the questions how can such knowledge be used to problem solve complex issues and how can such knowledge gained be useful to institutions and the individuals they serve (Glassick, 2000). In order to effectively apply knowledge to

professional practice it is argued that nurses must acquire the ability to critically reflect and act, for praxis (Freire, 2012) it is argued encompasses a change in the status quo (Taylor, 2000) and as identified in the seminal work of Schön (1983) is an opportunity to bridge the theory-practice gap through reflection in and on action. The importance of critical reflection in healthcare provision is considered an essential component of healthcare provision and ensuring nurses remain fit to practice (NMC 2015a). Application of the new knowledge gained through reflection into professional practice is central to the development of safe and effective care but is difficult to develop in isolation. Mentors who have the skills and ability to support nurses to acquire evidence-based knowledge and apply that knowledge into professional practice is more than the application of research alone. It also includes expert clinical judgment, which can be effectively applied in the clinical area and integrated within professional care.

Scholarship of Teaching

Teaching and the sharing of wisdom involves the examination of pedagogical practices (Boyer, 1990). It builds bridges that connects learning and understanding through the transmission, transformation and extension of knowledge and should be made available for peer review, accessible to the wider public domain and be able to be replicated and developed by others (Glassick, 2000). Health care practice and conversely nurse education has been transformed in recent years with the introduction and significant expansion of technology, the changing nature of health care settings and the emphasis on patient centred care (Jokinen and Mikkonen, 2013). Such changes in professional practice has warranted the need for a new evolving approach to the teaching of nurses, placing the facilitation of learning and its application at the heart of professional practice. A variety of complex methods of learning have gained credence in nurse education in recent years, with an eclectic arena of opportunities being made available, including e-learning, simulation and problem based learning (Skinner, 2009). Such learning particularly that which is delivered through digital media has taken the emphasis away from teaching to that of self-directed learning, which presents a problem for how can such learning be assessed in professional practice and how can its reliability be maintained. Such changes within nurse education it can be argued has created a greater need for mentors to ensure the use of effective methods of learning that best fits the clinical situation. In so doing, they must be aware of contemporary and innovative ways of gaining new knowledge, whilst being cognisant of their own professional learning needs (Skinner, 2009).

The Nurse Mentor as Scholar

The role of the nurse mentor is well documented (NMC, 2008; Gopee, 2010); defined characteristics being eclectic (Kelly, 2007; Chandan and Watts, 2012). The support of an excellent mentor, who can challenge deeply held personal and professional beliefs and encourage a deep level of self-awareness, whilst tirelessly encouraging each tiny step has the potential to open up new and exciting pathways for learning essentially a road less travelled by (Frost, 1916). The importance of collaborative learning is central to Boyers work (Boyer, 1990) and as proposed by the NMC (2008) is also central to the developing relationship of the mentor and the learner.

Having the power to influence personal and professional experiences for nurses it could be argued is the role of the skilled mentor. Such mentors are committed to the values and direction of professional practice. They support the integration of theory into practice through a process of praxis (Freire, 2013), challenge deeply held personal beliefs, encourage self-awareness and seek to underpin this by becoming life-long, self-determined learners.

Conclusion

Boyer's (1990) framework has the potential to help bridge the theory-practice gap between research and teaching, as well as integration of learning and application of that learning into professional practice. Utilising this framework has the potential to improve quality of care so that the discovery and generation of new knowledge continues to ebb and flow throughout clinical nursing, creating a cyclical approach that keeps on flowing (Smith and Crookes, 2011). It could be argued therefore that the scholarship framework can if used appropriately and with conviction help develop novice nurse practitioners to become experts and nurse experts to become mentors, future nurse leaders and educationalists.

The importance of undertaking and implementing research cannot be underestimated in the nursing profession. In her seminal work on Fundamental Patterns of Knowing Carper (1978) extoled the importance of empirical research in developing the skills and knowledge base of nursing scientific inquiry. This remains as important today as it was then. Nursing must make research an integral part of post-registration practice (Willis, 2015) and when recognising good practice disseminate this, in order to stimulate debate. This approach he purports will help to construct a culture of research that builds the foundations upon which, change can be effectively managed, with the NHS Constitution (NHS 2013) being the fundamental steer (Willis, 2015).

This it could be argued is supported by Manley et al. (2009) who conceptualise scholarship as work that must be made publicly available for peer review and critique and be able to be reproduced and built upon by other scholars. It is essential that the nursing profession seeks to encourage publication of new and innovative ways of working as well as new research findings that ultimately impact positively on professional care and keeps the 'flame of scholarship' (Boyer, 1990) well and truly alive.

Boyers (1990) framework is not solely relevant to the nursing profession. It has the potential to be embraced by all healthcare professionals across all disciplines as a means of developing new and innovative ways of working and in so doing encourage the development of a skilled workforce able to transform 21st century service provision. The nursing profession however, is simply one area in which this could work.

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Biography

As a specialist community public health nurse, practice teacher and nurse educationalist I am committed to positively influencing the provision of high quality healthcare through effective mentorship and leadership. This commitment being recognised by the awarding of the title Queen's Nurse by the Queen's Nursing Institute in 2012.

"I USE HALF NEPALI, HALF ENGLISH, THE HYBRID LANGUAGE!" – TRANSLANGUAGING FOR PEDAGOGY IN A NEPALI LITERACY CLASS

Sarah Knee

Abstract

This paper will discuss the pragmatic use of translanguaging as a pedagogical practice within a Nepali literacy class setting. Translanguaging, a term first used in Wales in the 1980's by Williams and Baker to describe a pedagogical practice for teaching two languages together (Lewis et al., 2012), has developed to describe a process in which both languages are used in a dynamic and functionally integrated manner to organise and mediate mental processes in understanding, speaking, literacy, and, not least, learning. Translanguaging concerns... function rather than form, cognitive activity, as well as language production
(Lewis et al., 2012: 641).

Translanguaging therefore, as a 'flexible bilingual pedagogy' (Blackledge and Creese, 2010), has been seen to offer 'learners the possibility of accessing academic content with the semiotic resources they bring, while acquiring new ones' (Garcia and Wei, 2014: 66).

Translanguaging is identified by the Nepalese teacher in this study as a valuable tool in her pedagogical toolkit.

The example of translanguaging discussed in this paper is taken from ethnographic data gathered over one academic year as part of a PhD study of multilingual literacy learning of Nepalese children growing up in the UK. Participants are Nepalese Nepali speaking children and their teacher.

Introduction

The main focus of this paper is the pragmatic use of translanguaging as a pedagogical tool within a community Nepali literacy class. The paper begins with an introduction to the community and its Nepali literacy class. The paper then discusses the development of the term 'translanguaging' before considering its use within this class setting. The final section returns to the term 'hybrid' before offering some conclusions.

The Nepalese Community in the UK

The Nepalese community in the UK have been closely connected with the British Army for over 200 years (Trust, 2014). The Nepalese population in England and Wales at the last census was 60,202 (Statistics, 2011). The Nepalese community in which this research has taken place has a population of several hundred and their Nepalese society meet together to celebrate annual festivals and other special occasions.

A Nepali literacy class runs every Saturday morning during term time for children within the community. Teachers are volunteers and often, but not always, parents of

children in the class. Teaching is differentiated at three levels, beginner, intermediate and advanced. The majority of teaching takes place in one room. Over the year of research, the class has been regularly attended by a core group of nine children aged 7-13, with other children coming less regularly.

Within the community, education is of primary importance. Children attend mainstream schools during the week and some take private tuition alongside their studies as well as extra-curricular activities, such as brownies, swimming, music and dance tuition (both Western and Nepalese). In most cases, Nepali language and culture are strongly maintained within the community, but literacy is maintained to different levels depending on family decisions.

As a trained teacher, the researcher has taken a participant observer role within the class. Ethnographic data has been gathered through observations, field notes, audio recordings, copies of the children's work, photos and interviews.

Translanguaging: an overview of its origins and development

Translanguaging is a term that was used in the 1980s by Cen Williams and Colin Baker to describe a pedagogical practice used in Wales for using two languages together in the same lesson: input (reading/ and or listening) tending to be in one language, and output (speaking and/ or writing) in the other language (Baker, 2011, Lewis et al., 2012). Translanguaging continues to be an important feature of Welsh education (Baker, 2011) but is also a concept explored by a number of scholars working in a variety of different educational contexts (e.g. Blackledge and Creese, 2010, Creese and Blackledge, 2010, Creese et al., 2011 in complementary schools, Garcia, 2009 in US highschools, Garcia and Wei, 2014, Garcia, 2011, Hornberger and Link, 2012, Garcia, 2013, Canagarajah, 2011 in US University classrooms).

Translanguaging refers to the complex language practices of many bilingual people as well as 'pedagogical approaches that use those complex practices' (Garcia and Wei, 2014: 20). Within education, translanguaging can be seen as a reaction against the monolingual bias that has so long been the primary focus of language lessons in the West, particularly in Britain and North America (Garcia, 2013). Research in complementary schools in the United Kingdom identified these schools as safe, multilingual spaces which employed translanguaging as a flexible bilingual pedagogy in which 'two or more languages' *were* 'used alongside each other' (Creese and Blackledge, 2010: 103). Canagarajah (2011) defined translanguaging as the 'ability of multilingual speakers to shuttle between languages, treating the diverse languages that form their repertoire as an integrated system' (Canagarajah, 2011: 401) and Gutiérrez et al. (1999) referred to these practices as 'hybrid'. The hybrid theme will be discussed later.

This paper takes the view that the concept of translanguaging is more than code-switching or shuttling between two separate languages (Garcia and Wei, 2014: 22). Garcia explains

Translanguaging posits that bilinguals have *one linguistic repertoire* from which they select features *strategically* to communicate effectively. That is, translanguaging takes as its starting point the *language practices of bilingual people as the norm,* and

not the language of monolinguals, as described by traditional usage books and grammars (Garcia, 2011: 1).

The term 'repertoire' is associated with the work of Gumperz (1964) who used the term 'verbal repertoire'. Gumperz, with reference to a particular speech community, explained that verbal repertoire contains all the accepted ways of formulating messages. It provides weapons of everyday communication. Speakers choose among this arsenal in accordance with the meanings they wish to convey (Gumperz, 1964: 138).

The concept of repertoire is extended by different scholars (e.g. Garcia, 2011, Blommaert, 2008, Wei, 2011, Busch, 2012, Otsuji and Pennycook, 2010). Blommaert (2008) explains that a 'polyglot repertoire' is 'tied to an individual's life' and that it follows the 'peculiar biographical trajectory of the speaker' (Blommaert, 2008: 16). The importance of biography is echoed by Wei who discusses the way certain social spaces in communities create opportunities for translanguaging and the fact that translanguaging itself can create these spaces. Translanguaging for the multilingual language user brings 'together different dimensions of their personal history, experience and environment, their attitude, belief and ideology, their cognitive and physical capacity' (Wei, 2011: 1223).

The paper will now present and discuss a transcript from the research data.

An example of translanguaging within the Nepali literacy class

The following extract documents interaction between the Nepalese teacher (Sundari) and six girls aged 7-12 in the intermediate group at the Nepali literacy class. The children are sitting around a table. Sundari has given each child some Nepali grapheme flash cards and the extract begins with her asking them to pick up their card and say the sound.

Nepali uses Devanagari script which is an alphasyllabary (a writing system in which consonant vowel sequences are written as a unit (Singh and Rao, 2014)). Learning the correct grapheme phoneme correspondence for these units is a prerequisite to reading and writing Nepali words. The single sound "a" (as in **a**go, **a**round) is the inherent vowel which is used with a basic consonant symbol (Wagley and Rauniyar, 2012, Matthews, 1998). This inherent vowel is written as a single "a" in the transcript below. All names have been changed to preserve anonymity.

Key:	( )	information to aid understanding
	< >	translation
	<" ">	transliteration of Nepali sounds
	#	transcribed words are uncertain
	###	unclear
	...	pause
	~~Name~~	audio muted

1.   Sundari: Er, let's start from this side. ल <okay> Pick up your first card and tell me what it is.

2.   Sanjana: र <"ra">

3.   Maya: ह <"ha">

4.   Sundari: show that to everybody ह □? <yes?> क□ □□ य□?<what is this?>

5.   Children: र <"ra">

6.   Sundari: okay... (mumbling) □□□ □□ क□ ह□? <it is. What is this?>

7.   Children: प <"pa">

8.   Sundari: ~~Maya~~

9.   Maya and others: प, प <"pa, pa"> (said with some vocal aspiration)

10.   Sundari: प <"pa"> (emphasising the sound clearly), okay ~~Pratibha~~

11.   Pratibha: ट <"Ta">

12.   Sundari: हो? <yes?> सबैजनालाई ट भन्छ एलाई? <Everyone is this called "Ta"?>

13.   Children: ट ट <"Ta" "Ta">

14.   Sundari: हो, ट हो? ट बाट एउता word भन मलाई < yes, is it "Ta"? tell me a word starting with "Ta"> English word भने पनन हुन॒छ <even if you say an English word it is okay>

15.   Madhu: #tar
16.   Maya: tall
17.   Sundari: okay, next one

18.   Maya: ह <"ha"> (the card has क्ष <"ksha">)
19.   Sanju: no (whispered)
20.   Sundari: सबैजनालाई हछछ, ~~Maya~~ को cardमा <"everyone look at ~~Maya's~~ card">

21.   Sanju and others: क्ष <"ksha"> क्ष <"ksha">

22.   Sundari: So ~~Maya~~ ल॒ त लाई ह भन्द॒ छ, त्यो ह हो? <so ~~Maya~~ is saying "ha" for that, is that "ha"?>

23.   Children: क्ष क्ष क्ष क्ष <"ksha" "ksha" "ksha" "ksha">
24.   Sundari: okay ~~Sanjana~~

25.   Sanjana: क <"ka"> (the card has फ <"pha">)

26.   Kalpana: no फ फ <"pha" "pha">

27.   Sanjana: this is क <"ka"> (spoken confidently)

28.   Kalpana: yeah but I did okay! (laughing)
29.   Sundari: नतममल □ front □□□ ह□द□□□□□? □□□□□□□□ ह□द□□□□□? <were you looking from the front? Were you looking from the front?>

30.   Sanjana: □□ <yes>

31.   Sundari: □□? <yes?> नतममल□ □□□□□ □□□ ह□र □□□ त, □□□□□ □□ <you looked from the back, you said this>

32.   Sanjana: yes (whispered)

33.   Sundari: □□ <yes> so क पछ□□□ ह□र द□ख□□□ ल look, क□ difference छ?

<looking from the back of "ka" what is the difference?> (holds up फ <"pha"> and क <"ka"> cards)

34.   Kalpana: that, that one's like, like a zero

35.   Children: ###

36.   Sundari: न य त□□□, क□ difference छ? <in these two, what is द ई□   the

difference?>

37.   Madhu: that is zero

38.   Kalpana: that is zero छ <has>

39.   Madhu: like a circle

40.   Sundari: क र फ मा different छ नन, होइन? < as for "ka" and "pha" they are different, are they not?> पछाडि ह‌ेरदाखेरा < looking from the back> you were quite er confident (laughter)

41.   Sundari: क भने but यो फ हो <you said "ka" but this is "pha"> okay! □□ क□ □□ त? <what is it then?>

42.   Children: क फ <"ka"> <"pha"> (mixture of both sounds)

43.   Sundari: □□□□□□□□? < everyone?>

44.   All: फ <"pha">

45.   Sundari: फ भन्छ एलाई, फ बाट एउटा word < this is called "pha" what is a word starting with "pha">

46.   Madhu: फ<"pha"> #far

47.   Children: ###

48.   Kalpana: fall

49.   Sundari: Humpty Dumpty had a_____? (waiting for a response)

50.   Maya: fall

51.   Madhu: great fall!

52.   Sundari: (signals to the next child to say their sound)

53.   Children: (laughter)

54.   Kalpana: त्र <"tra">

55.   Madhu: ख <"kha">

56.   Sundari: You're not quick enough!

57.   Children: (laughter)

Transcript discussion

There are four points to highlight in response to this extract. The first is the use of translanguaging throughout the transcript. Both the teacher and the children draw on different resources from their linguistic repertoire in order to explain and

communicate. Because the teacher permits the children to answer in English (line 14), the children default to English unless saying the Nepali sounds. The children's responses demonstrate their understanding of both English and Nepali and where there is opportunity some children choose to speak Nepali. In line 38 for instance, Kalpana adds the Nepali word छ (meaning 'it has') to the end of her sentence, adding emphasis to her English statement 'that is zero'. It is possible she has been reminded of the word छ by the teacher in line 33 above and this is still in her mind as she answers Sundari's question. Sanjana's multilingual repertoire is evidenced in lines 30-32, as she speaks the word 'yes' in both Nepali and English and understands a third word for yes, line 31-32. The teacher and the children are drawing from their wider multilingual repertoire in order to communicate at a mutually comfortable and appropriate level.

The second point to highlight is the very deliberate choice of words in line 29 as a pedagogic intervention: translation. Translation belongs within the broader concept of translanguaging. Sanjana has confused the sounds क <"ka"> and फ <"pha"> so the teacher repeats the question 'were you looking from the front?' using the Nepali word for front. It seems that translation is used in this case to promote understanding. Baker proposes that translanguaging can be used for a number of reasons, one being to 'promote a deeper and fuller understanding of the subject matter' (Baker, 2011: 289). Baker later explains that in a class setting where the children may be learning their language, children may translanguage naturally but 'it may be engineered by the teacher' (Baker, 2011: 291). This implies a deliberate, pragmatic choice of words by the teacher to promote the children's understanding and learning. In the interview conducted with the teacher, she makes a distinction between translating and 'mixing English with the Nepali...the hybrid language';

Sundari: I think in my head which one, which one they will find easier and then use that, like if I think in my head that perhaps translating is much easier for them, they will understand and grasp it by translating I use that. Otherwise I use half Nepali, half English, the hybrid language.
 (interview , July 2015)

From the emic perspective of the teacher, translation is something deliberate and pragmatic because she thinks about it 'in her head'. However, the 'hybrid' language is something she uses more generally.

The third point to highlight is the use of English words and phrases to teach the Nepali sounds, thus scaffolding the children's learning. Baker suggests this use of the stronger language may help the development of the weaker (Nepali) language (Baker, 2011). Children respond in lines 14 -16 with 'tall' for ट <"Ta">, and in lines 46-50, 'far' or 'fall' for फ <"pha">. Picking up the word 'fall' from Kalpana in line 48, Sundari draws on her own repertoire and selects 'Humpty Dumpty', an English nursery rhyme to reinforce the word 'fall' and its relation to the Nepali grapheme फ <"pha">. This reference to a nursery rhyme could be seen as two fold; firstly it is an English resource the children are likely to know and therefore one that could help them make a memorable connection between the word 'fall' and फ <"pha">.

Secondly, reference to a nursery rhyme, implies that in the same way young children know and remember nursery rhymes, these children should know and remember the Nepali sounds. A significant part of the lesson has been spent trying to learn the फ <"pha"> sound and in line 52, Sundari gestures for the next child to say their sound.

The children respond quickly, but she jokes they 'are not quick enough'. The teacher's comment suggests again that the children should already know these sounds.

The fourth point to highlight relates to the different abilities of the children within this group. Baker posits translanguaging may help the integration of fluent speakers with early learners (Baker, 2011). There are times in the extract when children comment on each other's performance. This happens first in line 19, where Sanju whispers 'no' in response to Maya's comment that the grapheme क्ष is <"ha">. Maya was incorrect and Sanju's engagement in the lesson and the relaxed atmosphere makes it possible for Sanju to comment, albeit quietly. The second time this peer response is observed is between Kalpana and Sanjana in lines 25 – 28. Kalpana correctly believes that Sanjana has made a mistake and that the फ grapheme is pronounced <"pha"> not <"ka">. Sanjana however is so sure the grapheme is <"ka"> that Kalpana retracts her confident correction, laughing 'yeah but I did okay!'. The teacher then intervenes to help all the children learn the correct grapheme phoneme correspondence. Although the children are being taught at the same level, it is apparent some are more confident than others and the relaxed atmosphere means that it is possible for the children to learn from each other and from their teacher who is a more fluent speaker. Garcia confirms the positive influence peers can have in the learning process;

By using ...multilingual partners, translanguaging extends and deepens the thinking of students...[it] simply has the potential to expand thinking and understanding (Garcia, 2011: 2).

'The hybrid language'

The paper now returns to Sundari's comments, 'I use half Nepali, half English, the hybrid language'. Sundari is talking in an interview about her choice to mix the English with the Nepali or to translate. Sundari explains that her decision is based on which one the children will find easier. Sometimes Sundari deliberately chooses to translate a word or phrase, but the default in this class context is the hybrid language: translanguaging. From an emic perspective, Sundari's background in biology might explain her use of the words 'mixing' and 'hybrid'. Using 'the hybrid language', scaffolds learning for the children at the same time as acknowledging their personal histories, experiences and the environment they are part of (Wei, 2011).

Sundari's use of the word 'hybrid' as the default literacy practice in this setting, appears to build upon the 'principled, purposeful and organised mixing' (Hornberger, 2003: 258) described by Gutiérrez and colleagues who refer to 'hybrid language practices... [as] not simply code-switching as the alternation between two language codes. They are more a systematic, strategic, affiliative, and sense-making process

among those who share the code, as they strive to achieve mutual understanding' (Gutiérrez et al., 1999: 88).

Conclusion

Translanguaging as discussed in this paper is seen as an overarching concept that embraces multilingual repertoires. Translanguaging recognises the many choices and ranges of expression, linguistic knowledge as well as cultural understanding available to multilingual individuals (Garcia, 2009). In the extract discussed, translanguaging has been identified as an essential tool in a Nepalese Nepali teacher's pedagogical toolkit. Garcia writes:

Translanguaging is a pedagogical strategy that should be used to build on bilingual students' strengths, to help them use language and literacy in more academic ways, to pose challenging material, to notice differences in language, and to develop bilingual voices (Garcia, 2011: 3).

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Biography

Sarah Knee is a full time doctoral research scholarship student in the School of Education, University of Birmingham. Her research interests relate to pedagogical practices in schools and multilingual communities. She has taught in UK schools and was principal of an international school for expatriate children in Nepal.

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EXPLORING THE ROLE OF OFSTED IN DEVELOPMENT OF CREATIVITY SKILLS ON VOCATIONAL BUSINESS STUDIES COURSES IN FURTHER EDUCATION COLLEGES

Jesvir Mahil MBA

Abstract

What is the role of Ofsted, as a major stakeholder and gatekeeper for maintaining standards of quality in education, in promoting the development of creativity skills in vocational business studies courses for young learners aged 16 to 19 in Further Education Colleges?

Using an exploratory, illustrative case study design (Thomas, 2011) with a systems thinking conceptual framework (Capra and Luisi, 2014), I am using qualitative data from interviews, published Ofsted reports, the Ofsted Common Inspection Framework (2012), and *Times Educational Supplement* articles, to build my case study. I am also using feedback from my public engagement activities on social media and at conferences to inform my ideas within a broad, systems view of education where we consider the whole rather than drawing conclusions from an analysis of its parts.

This paper explains the importance of a clear and shared definition of creativity, focusing on the 'creative person' within a multi-faceted concept of creativity which includes various other essential elements such as process, product, place, pressures, permanence and persuasion.

Introduction

In this paper I will explain the importance for teachers and their students to have a clear and shared definition of creativity in order to recognise, reward and promote development of creativity skills in the business curriculum.

The importance of a clear definition of creativity

One of the first things I realised when I started my research into how well we develop creativity skills (Mahil, 2013) is that teachers and students need to have a clear and shared definition of the concept of creativity to avoid disappointment or frustration in their efforts in demonstrating creativity. When I used to ask my students to express creativity in their work, they were very happy to present me with text decorated with pictures that they had copied and pasted from the internet and colourful titles (Mahil, 2014). Unfortunately, that was often the extent to which they were willing to be creative. When I asked them how their work was creative, they would proudly point to the pictures and colours. It was obvious to me that creativity was not limited to inclusion of pictures and colourful titles in assignments, but clearly this insight was not shared by my students. Even though I was a fully qualified and highly experienced teacher, I felt disappointed when, perhaps due to inadequate training, I was unable to successfully inspire and motivate my students to express originality independently, without having to tell them specifically how to do this.

In fact, although I flattered myself on being a very creative business studies teacher, through my research, I discovered that I did not have a clear definition of the concept of creativity in the context of the business curriculum.

As I began my research, I took my starting point to be that:

"Academics, policy-makers and arts educators deploy a range of claims about creativity which emerge from different theories of learning, different contexts, different artistic traditions, different academic or quasi-academic traditions, and different policy contexts." (Banaji and Burn, 2010: 10)

One of these academics was someone I had never previously heard of; Sir Ken Robinson, an ex-Professor from the University of Warwick who chaired a government commissioned report called *All our Futures* (National Advisory Committee on Creative and Cultural, 1999).I learnt that he is one of the leading advocates for development of creativity skills in formal education. His YouTube video entitled "Do Schools Kill Creativity?" has already attracted over 9 million views in nine years (from January 2007 to January 2016) (Robinson, 2007). Defining creativity as "the process of having original ideas that add value" (Robinson, 2011, Robinson, 2009, Education, 1999) he claims that creativity is as important as literacy (Robinson, 2011).

Most academic definitions of creativity are similar in that they highlight the importance of originality and value although the actual words they use may be different, for example, originality may be expressed as new, surprising or unexpected and value may be expressed as appropriate, effective or useful. For example, In his introduction to *The International Handbook of Creativity* which compiled research into the subject of creativity conducted across the world since 1950, Sternberg (2006: 2) concludes that "Some generalisations about creativity seem to be internationally agreed" and gives the example of a generalisation about creativity being that it "involves thinking that is aimed at producing ideas or products that are relatively novel and that are, in some respect, compelling."

As my research enabled me to clearly grasp the key concepts of creativity, I began to better understand why I was disappointed with the level of creativity in my students' work. The colours and pictures they used in their work were just not surprising or original and moreover, they did not add value.

Sir Ken Robinson argues that development of creativity skills is as important as literacy and numeracy. At this point in my research, I would go one step further and argue that creativity is even more important than literacy because literacy would be useless without our capacity to use it in creative ways. In other words, based on the most common definitions of creativity emphasising the importance of adding value, we need to be creative in using literacy to improve our lives in some unique way. Unless there is a persuasive rationale for developing literacy and numeracy skills that can be seen to creatively improve their lives, the large percentage of young learners on vocational business studies courses who leave school without an adequate level of literacy and numeracy skills, will continue to struggle to see the benefit of additional functional skills lessons which they are obliged to attend. to enable them to rapidly catch up on the skills they failed to master during their decade in school. I

believe that creativity skills need to be developed before literacy and numeracy so that the latter are learnt in a creative way, empowering all learners to improve their own lives and creatively add value to their society and culture. Teachers who have heard their students protest "Why do we have to learn this?!" may well sympathise.

A definition of creativity based on a systems thinking perspective

Robinson's definition of creativity draws upon a process culminating in a product that is both original and adds value in some way. Lubart (1999) makes the cultural distinction between Eastern and Western definitions of creativity, explaining that, "According to the Western view, creativity must be defined and recognised in its relationship to an observable outcome. The Eastern view of creativity, however, is far less focused on products or other tangible evidence of "work" produced. Instead, creativity is seen to involve personal fulfilment or the expression of an inner essence or ultimate reality." In contrast, Dowd (1989: 233) emphasises the Western view that "Unless one produces something, one cannot be creative. Thus, pure mental activity without a resulting product is not creativity. This distinction is important, because people often assume that thought is in itself creative and are willing to pay large sums of money for think tanks from which the product is often minimal." Tardif and Sternberg (1988: 437) echo the Western importance given to the creative product which they state must be novel; not imitations nor mass-produced. They add that creative products need to be powerful, generalizable, exhibit parsimony, cause irreversible changes in the human environment and that they are valuable and useful to society.

However, the product is only one aspect of creativity and based on a systems thinking perspective, I have synthesised my research into the various aspects of creativity to create seven broad strands, which I call the 7 Ps of creativity (Mahil, 2016). These seven Ps are: Person, Product, Process, Place, Persuasion, Pressures and Permanence, illustrated in the poster below:

The Seven Ps of Creativity — Jesvir Mahil MBA, www.universityforlife.com, jesvir@universityforlife.com

The creative person within a broad definition of creativity

One of the seven strands of creativity (7Ps) is the "person" and our definition of creativity based on this aspect may derive from questions such as "How am I creative?" or "Who is creative?"

This is the strand that looks at the characteristics of creative people; their personalities; their character traits; the way they think and their motives (Tardif and Sternberg, 1988, Martindale, 1989, Dowd, 1989, Kneller, 1965, Storr, 1972). For example, creative people tend to be internally motivated rather than externally motivated (Amabile, 1996).

Moreover, Hennessey (2004: 210) reports that:

"Investigations focused on the impact of evaluation reveal that the expectation that one's work will be judged may well be the most deleterious extrinsic constraint of all. Perhaps because situations of evaluation often combine aspects of each of the other 'killers' of motivation and creativity, the promise of an evaluation has been shown to severely undermine the task interest and performance of persons across the entire age span. Persons from all walks of life, pre-schoolers to seasoned professionals whose very livelihood depends upon the creativity of their work, have been shown to be adversely affected."

Research reported by Martindale (1989: 227) shows that extrinsic reward decreases creativity, and that surveillance and externally imposed deadlines are detrimental to

creativity. Choe (2006: 405) agrees that "Intrinsic motivation can be considered as the single most powerful force in creative achievement." Creative people need to be self-motivated and external rewards only serve to decrease their level of motivation. The offer of incentives may be perceived as pressure rather than support, causing the creative person to feel blocked or inhibited.

Although the distinctions between intelligence and creativity are not clearly demarcated, Barron (1969: 125) illustrated that "especially creative but relatively less intelligent, though still quite bright, pupils were less popular with teachers, and less in line with both teacher and peer value systems, than pupils whose IQs were relatively high as compared with their creativity." Although the research demonstrating this finding took place almost fifty years ago and pedagogical values, attitudes and approaches may have changed since then, it seems that teachers prefer students who score highly on intelligence tests compared to students who score highly on creativity tests, partly because the former tend to be more adaptive whereas the latter tend to be adversarial and non-conformist. The implications and impact of this teacher bias against creative students has been discussed by Genovard et al. (2006: 71) who, reviewing research on creativity in Spain, highlighted one of Martorell's (1968) conclusions, that "students who show convergent thinking receive higher marks from teachers, obtaining better academic grades than divergent thinkers."

Can everyone be creative?

In a business context, the notion that creativity is ubiquitous is supported by Craft (2001) cited in Banaji and Burn (2010: 29) who states that in education, the definitions of creativity that have had most purchase in the last 50 years have been those that marry creativity and imagination, and take an inclusive approach by suggesting that everyone has the potential for creativity as it is a fundamental aspect of human nature." Craft has a very broad concept of creativity which she calls "the ability to cope effectively with changing life in the 21st century. She distinguishes this clearly from creativity in the arts and from the paradigm shifting creativity of 'great' figures."

Arguments against this ubiquitous concept of creativity, such as those put forward by Thomson and Hall (2006) cited in Banaji and Burn (2010: 30) rejecting the notion of 'vulgar creativity which everyone is supposed to possess in equal measures' seem pertinent to creativity in arts and culture rather than a business curriculum. For example, it is clear that not everyone can aspire to become a 'creative genius', which is one of the rhetorics of creativity described by Banaji and Burn (2010: 15) .

Due to the nature of a global business environment, the business curriculum tends to be inclusive rather than exclusive and does not normally suffer from the "vulgar elitism', rejected by Thomson and Hall (2006) and also Willis (1990) who complains that:

"The institutions and practices, genres and terms of high art are currently categories of exclusion more than of inclusion. They have no connection with most young people and their lives. They may encourage some artistic specialisations but they

certainly discourage much wider and more symbolic creativity … (Willis 1990: 1 cited in Banaji and Burn (2010: 21)

Even though it is tempting to accept Craft's broad brush concept of ubiquitous creativity, where 'it is possible for every person, child or adult, to learn to make choices about their lives which are creative or not creative', Negus and Pickering, cited in Banaji and Burn (2010: 30) argue that:

"….we cannot collapse creativity into everyday life, as if they are indistinguishable ….

To say that all our everyday actions are in some way creative might have a certain polemical appeal, but that is all. What we're arguing for instead are the intrinsic connections between creative practice and everyday life, for it's important that we don't forget how the heightened moments of creativity are always linked to routine and the daily round, and how a particular artwork or cultural product may catch us within the midst of ordinary habitual life. (2004: 44-45)

In a business class, both these viewpoints are relevant. On the one hand, we can assume, as Craft agrees, that everyone is **capable** of being creative and generating new ideas that have value, but on the other hand, as Negus and Pickering highlight, not all the ideas they generate will be new and not all of them will have value.

The question remains however, who decides what is creative and what is not; and how do we measure the value of a new idea and therefore, how creative it is?

Is creativity individual or collective?

We began with a simple pragmatic definition of creativity, taken from Robinson (2011) stating that creativity is the process of generating original ideas that have value and took into consideration Csikszentmihalyi's (2013: 27) concern that the value of these original ideas has to be judged by experts in the field and within the "domain which consists of a set of symbolic rules and procedures". In Csikszentmihalyi's view, the individual person is merely the third component of the creative system (the first being the domain and the second being the field). Robinson (2011) agrees that "Creativity is about making connections and is usually driven more by collaboration than by solo efforts." (Robinson, 2011: 211)

Therefore, in a business curriculum, it seems fair to assume that creativity is collective rather than individual. An idea may seem highly original and valuable to the individual who generated it but in a business environment, the value of an idea is judged by those willing to buy it in some shape or form.

How important is the context in defining creativity?

An idea may be creative because it has value in one context, but in a different context, the same idea may have no value at all and therefore it would lack creativity (defined as a new idea that has value). For example, the price people are willing to pay for an idea, at any point in time, is an indication of its value, although the value may increase or decrease over time. So, the simple definition of creativity being the process of generating original ideas that have value needs to be understood within

the various dynamics of collaboration that create the context in which the idea emerges. An idea cannot be said to be of value unless someone, within a particular context in time, evaluates it as having value.

Summary

A clear definition of the concept of creativity in a business context is necessary to enable teachers and students on vocational business studies courses to communicate more effectively, with a shared understanding of what is expected as an expression of creativity skills.

Although the most popular definitions of creativity include the concepts of originality and value, a systems thinking perspective takes a much broader view and defines creativity within a range of contextual factors including the characteristics and motivation of the creative person; the creative process, the creative product and the capacity of these elements to persuade the gatekeepers in our society to recognise the creativity. Csikszentmihalyi (2013) argues that if it is not recognised as being creative, can we really say that creativity occurred?

A definition of creativity based on the concepts of originality and value is a useful starting point. However, 'what is original?' and 'what is valuable?' are relative to the culture and context in which creativity is expressed. This paper has focused solely on one aspect within the definition of creativity; the creative person. There are various other aspects for example the creative process, the creative product and the capacity to persuade gatekeepers that must also be taken into consideration, in order to formulate a definition of creativity that is useful within a holistic, systems thinking way of seeing the world as proposed by Capra and Luisi (2014)

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Biography

Jesvir Mahil taught for over thirty years, in London, Spain, Italy and the USA, with a large proportion of this career being in Further Education Colleges in the UK, teaching on vocational business studies courses for 16 to 19 year olds. She has inspected over 30 Further Education Colleges and Training Providers as part of the official Ofsted inspection process. www.jesvir.com

CONSTRUCTIONS OF HERITAGE IN JAPANESE AS A HERITAGE LANGUAGE SCHOOLS IN ENGLAND

Nahoko Mulvey

Abstract

This paper presents data from interviews conducted with head administrators of 10 Japanese as a Heritage Language (JHL) schools in England and examines their emic perspectives on 'heritage'. 'Heritage' is defined as "elements of past experience that a group deliberately sets out to preserve and pass on to the next generation" (Blackledge & Creese, 2010, p. 164). The interview transcripts are interrogated for their constructions of heritage in relation to the curriculum. A range of perspectives on heritage can be seen and these differences may affect the programme and approach each school chooses. In the era of globalisation, 'heritage' can involve connections to the future as well as connections to the past. *Kokugo* textbooks are selected because of the way they construct a Japanese 'authenticity'. This paper presents phase one of a larger project aiming to shed light on the curriculum of JHL schools in England.

Introduction

In the era of globalisation, new educational responses are required as a result of the increase in mobility and social diversity and change in community structures. Heritage language schools have existed in England since the mid-19th century, but the number increased significantly from the 1950s onwards owing to the arrival of communities from the 'New Commonwealth' (Minty, Maylor, Issa, Kuyok, & Ross, 2008). Since the end of the 1990s, as heritage language schools have gained the interest of researchers in the UK, the US, Australia and Canada, many aspects of these schools have been revealed. However, research into the curricula adopted in these schools has barely been carried out. This paper presents phase one of a larger project on the curriculum of Japanese as a heritage language (JHL) schools in England.

Literature

1.   Heritage language

According to Kramsch (2008), heritage language is described as a language learnt by members of an ethnic group hoping to reconnect with their ancestors' culture.

'Heritage' concerns "elements of past experience that a group deliberately sets out to preserve and pass on to the next generation" (Blackledge & Creese, 2010, p. 164). Heritage language schools are also called supplementary schools, complementary schools or community language schools in England, but I chose the term 'heritage language schools' since I consider these schools are sites where people would like to pass on what they regard as 'heritage' to the next generation. In the era of globalisation, however, I argue that 'heritage' can be more than connections with the past.

The teaching of language as 'cultural heritage' is one of the key rationales of heritage language schools, since the teaching of language is intertwined with the teaching of 'heritage' there (Blackledge & Creese, 2010). Since language practices are always shaped by language ideologies and language ideologies are constantly influenced by language practices (Blackledge & Creese, 2010), 'heritage' contains language ideologies.

2.   Heritage language schools in Japanese

Although Japanese people started to immigrate to England in the end of the 19th century, there is no trace of heritage language schools in Japanese in England before WWII (Ito, 2001). In 1965, a Japanese class opened in London, which, in 1976, developed into a *hoshuko,* a Japanese supplementary school supported by the Japanese government. *Hoshuko* is a national project which provides at weekends part of the education children would have received at schools in Japan, so that children living temporarily aboard can go back to the Japanese school system smoothly. All the *hoshuko* in the world follow the Japanese national curriculum and use government authorised textbooks. In 2013 there were 203 *hoshuko* in 54 countries with 18,000 students enrolled, and in the UK, there are nine *hoshuko*, seven in England, one in Wales and another one in Scotland (MEXT, 2014).

There are also other types of heritage language schools in Japanese which were opened by Japanese parents or communities for their children having settled in England. These schools use locally-produced curricula without the government's guidelines. In my project I investigate these non-*hoshuko* schools, calling them Japanese as a heritage language (JHL) schools and their students JHL learners. The summary of the two types of UK's heritage language school in Japanese is in Table 1.

Table 1: UK's Heritage Language Schools in Japanese

	Number	Curriculum	Target students	Aim	Japanese government support	Information
Hoshuko	England: 7 Wales: 1 Scotland: 1 Total: 9	Japanese national curriculum with the guidance of the Japanese government	Temporary sojourners overseas	Help students make a smooth transition to the Japanese school system on return to Japan	Financial support, dispatched teachers (depending on the number of students)	Available via MEXT homepage
JHL schools	?	Locally created, no guidelines	Those having no clear intention to return to Japan	Varied	None	Not readily available

3.   *Kokugo* and *Nihongo*

In Japanese there exist two separate words meaning Japanese language. One is *koku-go* (nation + language), which literarily means a national language. A national language can be described as "an institution that is used to create and unify a nation

in modern nation-states" (Yasuda, 2003, translated and quoted in Doerr & Lee, 2012, p. 562) based on the model of one nation, one language. In creating modern Japan in the end of the 19th century, the Japanese government chose a linguistic variety in Tokyo as the standard language for compulsory *kokugo* education and designated it the only legitimate variety for its citizens in an effort to create a homogeneous Japanese nation (Doerr & Lee, 2009; Yasuda, 2003). The government then constructed the term. Another word is *nihon-go* (Japan + language), which directly means Japanese language. This is now considered a general term for Japanese language. Actually, this term was also constructed by the Japanese government during the colonial period in the beginning of the 20th century, when *nihongo* education started as Japanese language education in the colonies (Yasuda, 2003). Therefore, *nihongo* education was for people outside the main islands of Japan, while *kokugo* education was for people inside the main islands (Yasuda, 2003).

Even now, *nihongo* education refers to Japanese as a foreign language education and *nihongo* textbooks are for learners studying Japanese as a foreign language. *Kokugo*, however, is a school subject in Japan. K*okugo* textbooks, which are composed separately for each school year following the national curriculum and authorised by the government, contain ideological messages such as respect for the nation. These textbooks are used at schools in Japan and *hoshuko* the world over.

4.   Emblematic features

For my research project I use discourse analysis. Wortham & Reyes (2015) indicate that discourse analysis starts with choosing indexical signs which might be important signals about the social action occurring or might play a central role in contextualization. Among types of indexical signs, an emblem is a particular kind of evaluative indexical, a sign or group of signs that presupposes and characterises a recognizable social type (Agha, 2007; Wortham & Reyes, 2015). Emblems of a social type can be not only linguistic signs like individual words, the use of particular language, register or dialect, but also non-linguistic signs such as gestures or clothing (Wortham & Reyes, 2015). 'Authenticity' can be demonstrated in specific arrangements or configurations of 'emblematic features,' and people need enough of these features in order to be acknowledged as an authentic member (Blommaert, 2012; Blommaert & Varis, 2011). In the case of Eliza Doolittle in 'My Fair Lady', for example, not only accents and speech content, but also clothing, body language and mannerisms, such as how to hold a cup or proffer a hand, are 'emblematic features' to be acknowledged as upper class. I look at how people at JHL schools describe what can be considered as 'emblematic features' and how they perceive 'authenticity' at JHL schools in England.

Research Question

My main project aims to contribute to research areas on curricula adopted in JHL schools in the UK context. As a part of its phase 1, this paper seeks to address the following research question:

What would people in JHL schools in England like to pass on to their students?

Methods

Using Japanese networks in the UK for secondary school teachers, university teachers and the Japanese community, I first discovered 10 JHL schools in England. Then, I contacted head administrators of all the schools and got permission to visit them all. Between January and May 2015 I visited the 10 schools, spending one day at each, observing as many classes as possible and conducting an interview with the head administrator. The interviews were semi-structured so that I could obtain their emic perspective. Most interviews took around one hour, and a few took more than one-and-a-half hours as some participants talked more than I expected.

Data Analysis

From a large volume of interview data I have chosen some extracts from interviews conducted with three administrators to discuss here. Interviews were all conducted in Japanese, but only the English translation is shown in this paper due to limitations of space.

1.   Flexible approach

Administrator A said:

I think it is not bad [for my students] to be able to use up to Year 4 kokugo textbooks. […] Children often find Year 4 textbooks too difficult because of their vocabulary and, of course, their content. […] In fact, as children's motivation is getting lower [in their teens], I ask them, 'Would you like to take GCSE exams? It is a good opportunity.' Eventually, around that time, I transfer from materials for Japanese as a mother tongue to those for Japanese as a foreign language.

Her school normally starts with *kokugo* textbooks and very flexibly changes to *nihongo* textbooks when students in each class find the former difficult, and, in order to raise secondary school students' low motivation, introduces GCSE exam preparation. She has learnt this flexible approach through her 18 years' experience at her school.

2. 'Thinly but long'

She continued:

[…] The most important purpose for parents to send their children to my school is that they want them to learn and remember reading and writing in nihongo [Japanese language]. Some want them to get familiar with primary school textbooks or something like that and others just want them to have time to keep contact with nihongo [Japanese language]. I don't think parents have a really clear aim, such as that children should learn up to a certain level by a certain age. Therefore my motto is to study Japanese 'thinly but long.' […] In short, if they continue to study long enough they can reach somewhere.

Her motto, 'thinly but long,' is a Japanese expression describing an approach to an activity where one continues for a long time by not putting in too much energy. She

may consider that one aim at JHL school can be to keep contact with literacy practice in Japanese as long as possible so that students may reach a certain point in the future where they find their Japanese useful for them. Another administrator also used this expression as an approach adopted in her school.

3. Easygoing or rigorous

Administrator B's school has provided easygoing programmes for 18 years by using *kokugo* textbooks very casually, and has flexibly accepted students with various Japanese backgrounds and abilities. However, recently, a younger generation of mothers, wanting to make the easygoing curriculum more rigorous, decided not to accept one student whose Japanese ability was too low to study *kokugo* textbooks. The next extract is about this student.

I thought he could just sit in the classroom even if he cannot understand nihongo [Japanese language] now, as long as he wants to. He may start studying after making friends and want to study. It doesn't matter too much now. I told the younger-generation mothers that his mother can come to the classroom and interpret for him if he wants, but they said it is no good as he will just listen to his mother's English.

For her, coming to JHL school and keeping a connection with Japan is more important than mastering Japanese language skills. In fact, Administrator C also told me about a troublesome case in her school in the past when one mother had sat next to her child in the classroom and had translated the teacher's instructions in English. This situation would be out of the question in a normal language school, but can happen, or be considered, in JHL schools, where people want to pass on something else as well as language skills. In this school, ideas about what kinds of approach to take are contested among generations.

4. Strong faith

Although Administrator A's school uses *kokugo* and *nihonngo* textbooks very flexibly, I noticed during my observation that she gave students a photocopied article from a *kokugo* textbook in one class in which a *nihongo* textbook was being used. She said to me later that she tries to introduce something from *kokugo* textbooks as much as possible even after changing to *nihongo* textbooks, because she does not want to make her teaching completely Japanese as a foreign language. She seems to have a certain negative feeling about *nihongo* textbooks, but has faith in *kokugo* textbooks, thinking them 'authentic.' Her school, however, also provides special streams where *nihongo* textbooks are mainly used from the beginning for students who do not have much opportunity to use Japanese at home. Even if she has strong faith in *kokugo* textbooks, she provides environments for various students to study Japanese 'thinly but long.'

Strong faith in *kokugo* textbooks can also be recognised in other administrators' interviews. Among all the administrators, Administrator C has the strongest faith. Her school uses *kokugo* textbooks exclusively and does not think of using *nihongo* textbooks at all. She said:

[Kokugo textbooks] show how to use polite expressions or casual expressions at important points. In higher levels, Year 4 or Year 5 textbooks contain how to write letters and things like that. It's wonderful, isn't it? […] Honorific expressions, request expressions, and suchlike, appear one after the other. They introduce various expressions much more than A-level [Japanese]. If we can teach up to Year 6, we can cover what is necessary for a social life more or less. I just want to give the students opportunities to be exposed to them.

She told me very enthusiastically how various language skills *kokugo* textbooks aim to develop are 'authentic' for her students. She continued:
[…] Although the government's strong intentions are evident at times, we can teach those critically, as we don't teach under the government's control.

She also acknowledged that *kokugo* textbooks contain strong ideological beliefs and values imposed by the Japanese government, which she resists and treats critically.

Notwithstanding the adoption of *kokugo* textbooks, the three administrators used the term *nihongo* for the Japanese language taught at their schools. In fact no administrators used the term *kokugo*, but always *nihongo*. Regarding textbooks, eight schools out of ten teach literacy and use *kokugo* textbooks.

5. 'Heritage'

Administrators told me what they would like to pass on to their students, that is, what they regard as 'heritage.'

Administrator C's thought is:

I have no intention to organise [school name] as a Japanese language school. Though we are Japanese mothers, we do not intend to teach them nihongo [Japanese language], but, how shall I put it … our consciousness? We teach them Japan, including nihongo [Japanese language], don't we?

She thinks her school is different from a language school and wants to pass on, not only 'authentic' language skills, but also values or beliefs Japanese people possess, some vague feeling of Japaneseness.

Administrator B said,

Regarding my child… he has two choices, doesn't he? Though others don't. He doesn't need to choose Japan or Japanese culture, which includes working in Japan and all other possibilities. Though he doesn't need to choose Japan, I want him to keep that option open. For example, in deciding which university to go to, he can think of a Japanese university, which is difficult for ordinary British people, and, in finding employment, he can think of a Japanese company. I mean that sort of thing. I want him to keep what he was born with ready for use.

She wants her son and her students to keep what they were born with, something Japanese, ready for possible use in the future. In the era of globalisation, people can get updated information anywhere by Internet, and travel/move to Japan and other

countries very easily. Therefore, she may think Japanese language abilities and Japaneseness, on top of English language abilities and Englishness, can expand students' future possibilities. 'Heritage' involves not only connections to the past, but also connections to the future.

Discussion

People at JHL schools do not call the Japanese language they teach *kokugo*. They may not think it appropriate to pass on *kokugo* as it is to their students who have settled in England, since *kokugo* has a high level of sophistication and contains strong ideological values and beliefs to respect the nation imposed by the Japanese government. However, they chose *kokugo* textbooks. Since they themselves were brought up and educated with *kokugo* ideology using *kokugo* textbooks in Japan, they have attachment to and faith in these textbooks, thinking that what these textbooks contain is 'authentic'. By using these books they can pick and choose elements of *kokugo* ideology appropriate for their students who have settled in England and construct 'authenticity' at their JHL schools.

Although the three administrators' schools use *kokugo* textbooks, their understanding of the ideologies contained in these textbooks and faith in these textbooks differ. These differences may affect the programme and approach each school chooses.

Although administrator A does have faith in *kokugo* textbooks, she changes to *nihongo* textbooks according to the circumstances of each class very flexibly so that various students with their heterogeneous Japanese backgrounds and abilities can study Japanese literacy 'thinly but long'. She even makes separate streams where *kokugo* textbooks are not necessarily used. Administrator C, having the strongest faith in *kokugo* textbooks, adopts a programme and approach to encourage students to make progress steadily. Administrator B, on the other hand, considers it important to welcome any JHL learners to her school and to let them all connect to Japan, but the younger generation of mothers at the school, having stronger faith in *kokugo* textbooks, have tried to change the easygoing programme so that students' language skills can be reinforced more rigorously. As a consequence, this school cannot accept various JHL students flexibly as it did before.

Regarding what they would like to pass on to the next generation, that is, what they regard as 'heritage', the interviewees mentioned not only Japanese language skills, but also values or beliefs Japanese people possess, some vague feeling of Japaneseness, and connections to Japan. These can be seen as 'emblematic features' demonstrating authenticity at JHL schools in England. Specific arrangements and configurations of these emblematic features, however, vary among schools, among generations or among parents, and the teaching of Japanese language is intertwined with the teaching of 'heritage' in various ways. 'Heritage' connects to "elements of past experience that a group deliberately sets out to preserve and pass on to the next generation" (Blackledge & Creese, 2010), but also can connect to the future, since the administrators believe that it can expand the future possibilities of the next generation.

Conclusion

People at JHL schools in England have attachment to and faith in *kokugo* textbooks and choose these textbooks for their students' education as much and as long as possible. However, their understanding of and faith in them differ. These differences may decide the specific arrangements and configurations of 'emblematic features' demonstrating 'authenticity' at respective JHL schools.

Specific arrangements and configurations of 'emblematic features' and ideas about what they regard as 'heritage', differ among schools, among generations and among parents. In the era of globalisation, 'heritage' can involve connections to the future as well as connections to the past.

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Biography

Nahoko has been involved in language education for many years at schools and universities in Japan, Australia and the UK. Her research interest in heritage language schools arose while working for a JHL school in Australia. She is currently doing a PhD in education at the University of Birmingham.

TOOLS IN PRACTICE. GENEALOGY TO TACKLE ACADEMIC INEQUALITIES

Francesca Peruzzo

Abstract

This paper introduces the method of genealogy to analyse the government of disability in Italian higher education contexts. Looking at how power and discourses construct disability within the academic setting, I problematize the truths that, throughout the last century, brought disabled subjects to be part of the mainstreamed education. Ethnographic work within a specific university milieu situated my research in the present of disabled students. That provides me with the access to tactics and power relations in specific and local settings, problematising the use of standardised criteria and classificatory systems. In depth-interviews with disabled students allow me to look for those technologies of power that work on the bodies and in the souls of disabled subjects, enabling me to delve into disabled students' subjectivities.

Seeing disability as a complex social function (Foucault, 1978; Peter and Fendler, 2003), the study shows how relations of power within precise historical, political and economic factors fashion the ways we are governed and we govern ourselves.

1.   Genealogy and Disability in Italian education

… There are environmental and psychological barriers to the integration of people with disabilities, but there are also significant financial, social and economic barriers which are fundamental and inescapable.

(Walker and Townsend, 1981, 16)

From the 1970s these truths about the condition of disabled people throughout Western societies scattered a series of on-going debates not only within disabled activist movements, but also among disabled and non-disabled scholars. The increasing awareness about human, social and civic rights, and the stirring of disability activism, feminism and civil rights (Shakespeare, 2006), was putting more emphasis on the role played by national governments and international bodies in guaranteeing access to basic and legitimate rights. Alongside these liberal-inspired cultural and historical contingencies, the increased access to education of disabled people was paired with the progressive dismantling of mental asylums and special schools.

The integrative/inclusive attitude towards disabled people came to be the imperative driving legislative and policy-making processes both in terms of improving the accessibility of spaces, and of making society more open to appreciate diversity and diverse conditions of life.

Many Italian scholars have focussed on retracing the laws (1948-1992) issued by a pioneering Italian government (D'Alessio, 2011; Mancini, 2005; Schianchi, 2008), the first government to mainstream education regardless of any physical or mental condition (Law 517/77). However, the traditional historiography of these scholars conceives facts as part of an ongoing flow, a linear and predictable historical development, whereby social improvements and ameliorations are led by progressing

and enlightened scientific knowledge. Foucault provides a different approach to historical enquiry, called genealogy, which draws our attention to historical discontinuities, reversals and contingencies, and suggests that 'linear causality and narrative of progress, continuity and evolution are not the most profitable methodological tools of analysis' (Hook, 2001, p.21). Genealogy gears educational research with 'a new framework', Marshall (1990, p.22) remarks, 'a new framework – not for studying the past, but for assessing the present.'

My study is placed within this interstice, looking at the present for those contingencies and historical discontinuities that enabled 'integration and not something else [to] come to be the dominant discourse within special education' (Corbett, 1996, p.225); with a specific focus on higher education policies and practices. The purpose of my research is not to construct a linear relationship of progress between disability and education. Rather the aim is to provide an analysis of the deployment of power and knowledge within Italian university, fashioning disability as a problem to be managed and governed.

2.   Genealogy: overview of the tool.

Foucault, rather than adopting a traditional investigative approach to history, proposes a Nietzschean method of enquiry. The insight Foucault takes from Nietzsche concerns the nature of truth, which cannot be detached by the process of its production. The role that the philosopher is expected to fulfil is to criticise and debunk those phenomena which, through practices, have become objective truths. As Tamboukou (1999, 202) points further out, 'genealogy is concerned with the processes, procedures and apparatuses by which truth and knowledge are produced, in what Foucault calls the discursive regime of the modern era'. Foucault expands the concept of genealogy into a sort of counter-history of madness, punishment, sexuality, and subjecthood. By discrediting the idea of an inner essence of things, demurring a progression and linearity of their history, his purpose is to shed a light on those mundane practices, demeanours, feelings, ethics, taken for granted practices, which we tend to feel are without history. By the means of Foucaultian genealogy, we are not looking for the origins of objects, as 'what is found at the historical beginning of things is not the inviolable identity of their origin; it is the dissension of other things. It is disparity' (Foucault, 1977, 142). This is the reason why Foucault calls genealogy the 'history of the present'. The process is reversed, and it springs from the problematization of what is in our very present, 'a history of problems and practices … an analytics of power' as Ball (2013, p.27) puts it. Koopman (2007) elegantly joins objects and practices in a working definition of problematization, remarking how the study of the object problematized opens up for thinking about what constitutes our condition and how we constitute our condition. Drawing from this working definition, the history of the object of disability in Italian education requires problematizing disability within a wider social context of policies and practices. It entails looking at the present condition of disabled students at university in order to rethink present educational inequalities through rewriting their history.

3.   Power and knowledge: a situated approach

Bacchi (2012, p.2) underpins how Foucault 'selects his sites – his "problematizing moments" – by identifying times and places where he detects important shifts in

practices'. This is because of the very instable and circumstantial nature of his interpretation of power, which he defines as being 'the multiplicity of force relations immanent in the sphere in which they operate' (Foucault, 1978, p.92-3). Power is not plain oppression, it 'is not an institution, not a structure; neither is it a certain strength we are endowed with' (1978, p. 93). Subjects are not oppressed by power, they are vehicles of a productive power. This productive nature manifests in the struggle over power, not reducible to an oppressor-oppressed relationship. 'In order to be a relation where power is exercised' Mills (2003, p.40) highlights, 'there has to be someone who resists.' Power generates behaviours and resistances; individuals are the places where power is both enacted and resisted.

As Foucault (1978, p.93) continues with his definition of power 'it is the name that one attributes to a complex strategical situation in a particular society'. Disability is the strategical situation I am making reference to here, and the Italian society constitutes the context explored. Contributing to Foucault's aim of creating 'a history of the different modes by which, in our culture, human beings are made subjects' (Foucault, 1982, p.208), I investigate the ways through which power objectifies disability in university practices, and makes disabled students subjects through its techniques. As he continues, the objective is to 'discover the point at which these practices became coherent reflective techniques with definite goals, the point at which a particular discourse emerged from these techniques and came to be seen as true' (Foucault, 1980 in Rabinow, 1984 p.7). Foucault (1982) organises these practices according to three different modes of objectification of the subject, which I will explain in details in the following paragraphs. With each of the modes he associates some technologies, whereby the subject is governed and govern him/herself.

The contingent and unstable nature of power and its production of truths are observed at work within a selected case study university. The unfolding of discourses that fashion present bodies and the institution lead me to ask myself how and why disability became a problem within Italian higher education. In order to understand this, I go back and seek for the historical conditions that allowed disability to become an object of regulation, an object of power and knowledge, and I look for these conditions to emerge within a wider educational and social context and within university in the specific context of Italy.

An ethnographic study allows me to engage with a context-bound perspective, it opens up possibilities for both emphasising the modalities 'in which setting members construct social realities by making sense of practical issues' (Miller and Fox, 2004 p.38) and for critically deconstructing the 'micro-operations of power' (Tamboukou and Ball, 2003, p.4) in context. Moreover, it provides a setting within which 'local and immediate struggles', as Foucault (1982b, p.780) calls them, are observed, and provides the research with 'instances in which people are criticising the immediate conditions of their lives and the way that certain people, groups or institutions are acting on their lives' (Mills, 2003, p.38).

Moreover, through observation techniques I show the effect of power/knowledge on the generation of truths on disability and the enactment of disability in university; they enable me to see how different discourses are present in social setting and how setting members articulate discursive practices (Miller and Fox, 2004).

Semi-structured interviews with institutional personnel and document analysis of policies and regulations explore how disability is managed, how constructed it is. How and why it is rendered object of policies and practices.

In-depth interviews with disabled students provide me with accounts of how discourses fashion subjects' souls, conducts and practices, enabling me to see how discourses subjectify disabled students and what techniques of power are deployed in the process of subjectification.

4.   Objectifying disability: university practices and the disabled subject.

Foucault's philosophical endeavour is to investigate the modalities in which discourses and practices have turned human beings into subjects of a particular kind (Marshall, 1990). However, the term *subject* has for Foucault a two-fold meaning, implying being tied both 'to someone else by control or dependence', and to 'one's own identity by a conscience or self-knowledge' (1982, p.212). The subject, as Marshall (1990, p.14) perfectly highlights, 'carries the twin meaning of an active knowing subject and of an object being acted upon – a product of discourse'. Through some preliminary data from my fieldwork, still being carried out, I seek to show the dual dimension of disabled students as subjects of power/knowledge within Italian university. For doing so, I follow Foucault's modalities of objectification (1982), that is through scientific knowledge, dividing practices, and subjectification. After briefly introducing each of them, I supply evidence from both interviews' excerpts, and document analysis.

4.1   Scientific knowledge

This mode entails the production of scientific knowledge around a specific object and the development of scientific classifications. This mode of turning human being into objectified subjects stems from 'the modes of inquiry that try to give themselves the status of sciences; for example, the objectivizing of the speaking subject in *grammaire gènèrale*, philology, and linguistics … [or] … the objectivizing of the productive subject, the subject who labors, in the analysis of wealth and of economics' (Foucault, 1982, p.208). This mode materialises the necessity of creating, classifying and organising knowledge around the object under consideration. Scientific knowledge constantly opens space for new sciences to allow precise and scientific study of objects (for example criminology for the study and observation of the criminal, medicine for the investigation on the body); however, its range of action is limited by what Foucault in *The Order of Things* identifies with the modern *episteme*. The *episteme* designs the limits within which our knowledge is comprised. It sits primarily on three regimes of knowledge, regimes that set the rules around the concepts of life, labour and language. The objects or knowledge are defined within, and by, these three regimes and are observed, studied and discussed within what Foucault (1967) calls the 'human sciences'.

Making the university example, in Italy a disabled student can benefit from the disability allowance if he or she ticks the criteria imposed by the Framework Law 104/92, which refers to the ICIDH (1980), the International Classification of Impairments, Disabilities and Handicaps. These two documents are part of what is

considered as truth and knowledge about disability, interlocking knowledge from economics, medicine, and law.

4.2   Dividing practices

The second form of objectification implies dividing practices, which grid and classify disabled students. They refer to a mode of manipulation that combines a scientific discourse with practices of segregation and social exclusion (Tremain, 2001). Combining human sciences and segregating practices, the subject comes to see him/herself scientifically, setting in motion the process of subjectification and tying of the identity to outcomes of classifications and grids.

However, nowadays, dividing practices are not as evident and visible as they were sixty years ago. National and international organisations are making themselves advocates on inclusion and human rights, promoting formally and practically equality for all those groups that have been excluded and physically segregated from the civic and social arena for long time. Public spaces and institutions are progressively reshaping their architectures in order to be accessible for all; educational institutions are making themselves the first promoters of the diffusion and creation of a new culture on inclusion and tolerance. The university is one of most crucial settings entitled to create new knowledge around inclusion and to deliver new good practices for its promotion within society. Besides that, regulations and legislation are pushing for a more accessible university not just in terms of architecture but also in terms of opportunities and rates of attendance. Disabled students enjoy specific benefits and allowances in order to get access to the same opportunities of academic success of their non-disabled fellows.

The classifications used for differentiating students according to their abilities and physical conditions constitute prompt information for the management of subjects. By the means of what Foucault in *Discipline and Punish* (1979) calls 'normalising judgements', these categorisations identify classificatory practises that homogenise and classify the students, and they 'normalise' in the sense that they categorise students according to a fixed benchmark that is called the 'norm'. On an institutional level, they actively impact on the government and functionality of the disabled subject at university, especially because disability is to be considered as a category that deviates significantly from the norm.

A very effective example can be a platform that the Disability Office in concert with the Neurocognitive Rehabilitation Centre is implementing. The intent is to supply the lecturers with a grid to read before any written exam, within which dyslexic students are marked out. Thought to be a useful tool for the lecturer, disabled students come to be identified as *diverse* since the beginning and are given the chance to accord their exam criteria to their special needs.

Accounting for physically dividing and segregating practices, a student in a wheelchair provided a meaningful example during an interview. While he was reading in a study room located in the faculty basement, a fire drill occurred. Being all the lifts deactivated, he was put in a fire-proofed room on the same level, whose existence he was previously unaware.

The two instances extracted by my preliminary data show modern examples of dividing practices. A marked roll call before the exam highlights the subjects who, before the inclusive/integrative discourse came into play, were segregated in special institutions or were not even considered as able to attend university. The impossibility of finding a fire escape becomes emblematic when considering architectures thought exclusively for able bodies.

4.3   Subjectification

Scientific knowledge and dividing practices tie the subject to a *true* self. This *true* self, Marshall (1990) explains, corresponds to a human being with beliefs about him/herself. The technologies of power, which Foucault refers to in the shaping of human beings' subjectivities, are defined here as technologies of the self. These technologies operate at the levels of body, soul, thought, and conduct (Foucault, 1988), acting as tools of power that shape their thinking and behaviours. The disabled student is both fashioned and fashions him/herself as a disabled subject, inscribing its daily routine within these specific subjectivities. They accommodate themselves within social and physical spaces; they build their comfort zone in order to fit into the social system.

An undergraduate disabled student neatly displays the interlocking of dividing practices and subjectification of disability.

M: I have been disabled for two years. I wasn't before. And it happened while I was doing the English exam. As it is a computer exam, I realised I couldn't stare at the screen, all the words were overlapping one another and I had to leave it incomplete. Thus I went to the Disability and Special Needs Office, I told them what happened during the exam and they told me that that setback occurred as I was partially-sighted. In that moment I realised I was disabled.'

'In the normalising procedures of examination and "confession" people are classified as objects' Marshall (1990, p.26) reminds us, 'and the truth about them is "revealed" to themselves'. The subject as recipient and object of regulations is constituted, and the disabled identity of the student is forged.

Another example is supplied by the test for a dyslexic student, a 23 questions test with questions ranging from 0 to 4. Students with a final score equal or above 50 are classified as dyslexic. The questions develop throughout all life-study experience of the subject, varying from any difficulty encountered in learning to read at the primary school, to their habit of reading or not newspapers on Sundays. They pervade perceptions and experiences and actively working on the student's self-definition as 'disabling subject'.

5.   Conclusion. Is there another way?

Genealogical tools, when applied to the history of the subject, allow for inscribing the subject in a different history. My research can contribute to highlight the existence of other ways of being, and it can do so by showing the ways in which university turns students into disabled subjects (dividing practices such as the dyslexic text or the certification of disability to ask for benefits and specific provisions); and by pointing

out the ways in which disabled students think about themselves and govern themselves as disabled. 'Maybe nowadays is not to discover what we are, but to refuse what we are', Foucault (1982b, p.785) remarks. Disabled students can think differently about the function of the category disability, and seek alternative ways of governing themselves and of redesigning their own identities. The undergraduate student classified as partially-sighted (M.) after the impossibility of concluding her computer exam, gears me with the perfect example

… It is a work we have to do on ourselves, and I think it is rather independent from the disability… yes to me it happened the disability, but it can happen to be a bad relationship with your parents, I think anybody has some things, some feelings which he (sic) carries within himself, which is difficult to deal with. Learning how to acknowledge them and being a bit more indulgent with ourselves sometimes is not easy, but it is a work we have to do, it is something we learn how to do, it is not innate.

This student's perspective on disability shows how subjectivities can alternatively be seen as '*process of becoming*, that focus on *what we do* rather than on *what we are'* (Ball and Olmedo, 2013 p.87).

The way in which we understand ourselves is always connected to the ways in which we are governed, Dean (2010) prompt us. Hence, via questioning our understanding both an institutional and an *individual* level, my research strives on the one hand to 'criticise the working of institutions which appear to be both neutral and independent; to criticise them in such a manner that the political violence which has always exercised itself obscurely through them will be unmasked, so that one can fight them' (Foucault, 1974, p.171). On the other hand, to rethink subjectivities otherwise. Through an ontology of the present and of ourselves disabled students can 'explore the contemporary limits of the necessary' (Foucault, 1984, p.43), critically giving them the opportunity of going beyond them and to self-reinvent them.

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Biography

Francesca Peruzzo is a PhD candidate in the department of Education, Practice and Society at the University College London – Institute of Education. She completed her undergraduate and postgraduate studies in Sociology at University of Trento, Italy. Having been a disabled students' assistant for many years, her interests concern disability and social inequalities in higher education.

WHO HAS THE POTENTIAL TO BENEFIT FROM HIGHER EDUCATION?

Jon Rainford

Abstract

Higher Education is framed as something that should benefit the many opposed to the few. This is emphasised in policy that supports the belief that everyone who has the potential to benefit from Higher Education should be able to (HEFCE and OFFA, 2014a). This notion of 'potential' however is adopted in varying ways across institutions.

This paper draws on a Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) of two access agreements from two institutions (one pre-1992 and one post-1992) situated within the same city. Whilst there were many differences within these agreements, this paper focuses on the notion of potential and who is targeted for these interventions. Examining this in the context of recent evidence on student attainment trajectories within compulsory education, this paper will explore how errant assumptions relating to how to identify potential may contribute to reproductions of inequality opposed to widening participation within Higher Education.

Introduction

Since the introduction of tuition fees for undergraduate students, all Higher Education institutions charging fees above a set level (currently £6,000) have had to develop strategies and initiatives to ensure these fees do not act as a barrier to students from disadvantaged backgrounds. This has made widening participation activity a main stay of the work of all universities. Who is deemed at the suitable targets for this work and the extent to which wider society benefits from it is, however, variable. This paper explores one of the ways in which widening participation practices are shaped by understandings of who is eligible to benefit from this type of work, the notion of 'potential' and the demarcation of who potential students might be. This paper will explore how two universities use their varied interpretations of widening participation to shape who the beneficiaries of their work are through the analysis of two policy documents from two contrasting institutions in the same city. This analysis is situated as part of a wider doctoral study examining difference in widening participation practices across universities.

Essentially, this paper focuses on a pilot study for part of my doctoral research examining differences in widening participation practices. Since the introduction of fees for undergraduate students, universities have been required to put measures in place to ensure that – and I quote:

all those with the potential to benefit from higher education have equal opportunity to participate and succeed, on a course and in an institution that best fit their potential, needs and ambitions for employment or further study (HEFCE and OFFA, 2014a)

The reporting of these plans is done in a formal way through access agreements which are monitored and approved by the Office for Fair Access. Whilst this body defines the national strategy, offers guidance and can request amendments to

submitted agreements; institutions are given a certain level of autonomy in deciding how to allocate resources to support these aims. Broadly, these agreements are accepted without modification. In the year this study focuses upon – namely 2015/6 agreements, only 33 out of 162 institutions were requested to make amendments to their agreements (HEFCE and OFFA, 2014b). It should be noted that in the more recent submission, those covering the 2016/7 academic year that 103 out of 183 institutions were asked to revise their initial submissions so some progress is being made in terms of the level of challenge to what institutions are producing (OFFA, 2015).

Recent work by Claire Graham (2012) looking at prospectus and marketing material seemed to find a increasing homogeneity in approaches across institutions . This, however did not resonate with my own experience working within the field so I chose look at two institutions more closely; One a pre-1992 institution and one a post-1992 institution. I made the decision to focus on access agreements as unlike marketing and promotional materials, these documents offer a rationale for and more detailed outlines of what is being put in place to support under-represented groups to show they are addressing the targets of a national policy. This is unlike the public facing materials examined by Clare Graham whose purpose is to in effect sell the university to potential students. In doing so, this analysis will seek to move beyond the rhetoric of marketing into statements of value and details of work being done. This will enable us to see the ways in which policy does, or does not demonstrate a similar level of convergence.

Sample

These two institutions are geographically similar, being located within the same city in the north of England which has been anonymised and will be referred to throughout the paper as Norton. Old Norton being the pre-1992 institution and New Norton the post-1992 institution. These two institutions are very different in their history and nature. To go into too much detail would remove their anonymity however. One has a long history as a university and is a member of the Russell group, the self-titled 'elites of the field of higher education' and the other was designated a university more recently following the 1992 Further and Higher Education Act having previously been a polytechnic.

Whilst I would not claim that the findings within this paper are echoed in all pre-1992 and post-1992 universities, this paper will begin to examine the similarities and differences in discourses and practices within these institutions. This exploration of similarities and differences will be extended through my doctoral research which will be examining a larger sample of institutions spanning the whole of England.

Methodological approach

I chose to use Critical Discourse Analysis to examine these access agreements as this methodology allows an exploration of not just what is said, but the way it is said. Furthermore, it enables an examination of issues of social justice and power and these are issues central to my research (Fairclough, 2003). Critical Discourse Analysis exists within a realist ontology as it sees the discourses within text as part of the mechanisms that shape the available actions of individuals within the social

world, something which aligns with my current observations and experiences. Fairclough talks about how 'language constitutes and is constitutive' (p.92) and this is particularly relevant in terms of access agreements which are rewritten annually in light of national guidance, local experiences and negotiation with future institutional strategic priorities.

Fairclough outlines the way in which 'critical discourse analysis can draw upon a wide range of approaches to analysing texts' (2003, p.6) and within extensive documents such as access agreements which run to 20 or more pages in many instances, the type of analysis that is feasible becomes constrained. Accordingly, this paper will focus on one theme that emerged from the discourses used and framed by each institution in their access agreements, that of 'potential'. The documents were coded for a wide range of textual features including intertextuality, semantics, lexics, legitimation and assumption. Through coding these elements, codes related to content also emerged from the data and it is one of these that this paper will focus upon; the lexical framing of potential.

How are they similar?

At face value, both universities seem to address issues highlighted within the national policy which states:

Widening participation to higher education is about ensuring that students from disadvantaged backgrounds can access higher education, get the support they need to succeed in their studies, and progress to further study and/or employment suited to their qualifications and potential. (HEFCE and OFFA, 2014a, p. 3)

The way in which they do this and the facts and language they use to present them is, however, very different.

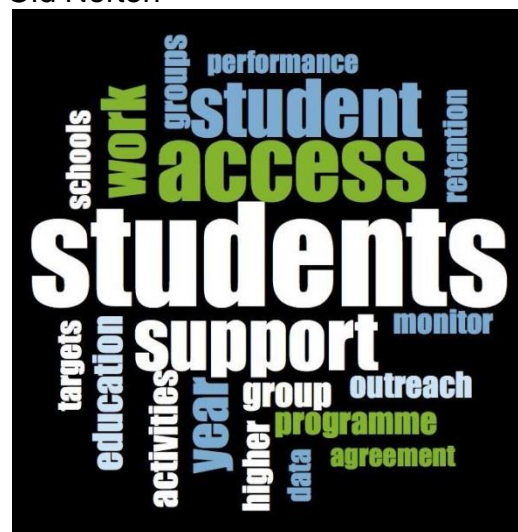New Norton   Old Norton

fig.1. relative word frequency within both access agreements

When the documents are analysed simply in terms of word frequency, it can be seen that there is much in common between both institutions. As was seen in the previous extract from the National Strategy for Access and Student Success, words such as access and support are central to what is being said and there are many other common issues being addressed such as retention and outreach. The difference, however, is in how they are being framed and utilized within the discourses presented in the documents.

How do they differ?

Both institutions seem to frame these agreements in different ways through their usage of words, vocabulary choices, justifications for their choices and sources of legitimation they draw upon. Within the text of New Norton's access agreement, there is certainly reference to targeting in terms of disadvantage but there is no distinction between who can be targeted within those schools or areas. This is in stark contrast to Old Norton who build an image of 'potential', framing and shaping who they see as the deserving targets of these sort of interventions. Words such as 'talented', 'most able', and a framing of potential through attainment all shape who they see as 'deserving'. It is important to reflect upon how this might affect young people in the same schools and communities who are not deemed to have this potential.

Financial	Ability	School type
Low socio-economic groups	Outstanding students based on their educational potential and merit	State Schools
Most disadvantaged	Pupil attainment and eligibility for Free School meals (FSM)	
Low income	Most talented students	
	Talented pre-16	
	Most-able disadvantaged	

fig.2 – language used to frame targets by Old Norton

Focusing on this notion of ability, in what could be considered a form of symbolic violence (Bourdieu and Passeron, 1992), those students framed as not being the most-able or most-talented are unable to benefit from the work done by Old Norton. The institution may argue here that data shows that they are less likely to reach the entry requirements for their institution but this is infact often a fallacy.

Recent work by Sammons et al. (2014) and recently published research by the Education datalab (2015) debunks this myth, showing that often progress is anything but linear. Sammons and colleagues found that between Key stage 2 and Key stage 3, pre-school and primary school measures did not predict the amount of academic progress students made in English and Maths during their five years in secondary school. This correlates with the recent research by the Education datalab who analysed progress across all four key stages and found a heterogeneous range of progress trajectories which therefore puts into question previous attainment as a measure of future potential.

It could therefore be argued that potential is not only being constructed in terms of academic attainment. It is possible that there is something else going on here. To take up an argument framed by Bourdieu in *The State Nobility:*

In selecting students it designates as most gifted, that is, the most positively disposed toward it (the most docile, in the truest sense of the term), and the most generously endowed with the properties it recognizes, the elite school reinforces these predispositions through the consecration that it bestows simply by separating its students from the rest. (Bourdieu, 1996 p.102)

Therefore, widening participation within Old Norton is selecting students with potential based on it's own assumptions of what a potential student looks like. This early attainment is something that is often less prevalent in areas of deprivation and therefore the demarcation of potential is focusing on a select group of students who meet markers of deprivation but who have also made a good early start. As work into the strategies adopted by white middle-class parents around schooling by Reay et al. (2013) found, this may unduly benefit middle class parents who 'play the game' through tactical school selection.

Whilst I would not argue that these students should not benefit from this work; In fact I would argue that all students should have access to work to support understanding of what university is and whether it is the right choice for each individual. However, what does need to be examined is the effect that non-selection for these interventions has on students who may have a slower initial start to making progress academically. By branding these students as unworthy of these interventions. This is potentially very harmful for these young people as where they do not possess a detailed knowledge of Higher Education, they may conflate this judgment with them not being suitable for University at all.

Conclusions

The varied constructions of potential could of course simply come down to differing understandings of what university is for. Is it a positional good to be bestowed on an elite and to be seen as a marker of distinctions or is it an opportunity for personal growth? Should student's trajectories be shaped by early attainment or decided through performance within higher education? The spread of outcomes in terms of performance within institutions with high entry criteria suggests that the grades attained at GCSE and A-level are not prescriptive of performance within higher education so their validity as a marker of potential could therefore be questioned.

It is clear that much work still needs to be done to explore these mechanisms of conceptualizing potential and the role it plays within widening participation. The next stage of this study aims to explore if this is an issue isolated to one institution or traverses across institutional boundaries. It will also explore how these policies are enacted by practitioners in ways in which these conceptions of potential may be reinforced or various subverted through practice.

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Biography

Jon is undertaking a part-time PhD at Staffordshire University. This focuses on the widening participation practices across different universities. Following several years as a secondary school teacher, he now works within a widening participation team as a practitioner. As such, his research explores the theory-practice divide from a sociological perspective.

THE ANTECEDENTS AND CHARACTERISTICS OF ACADEMIC SERVANT LEADERSHIP: A CASE STUDY IN A FAITH-BASED UNIVERSITY IN INDONESIA

Ricky

Research Background

Leadership for higher education is an absolute necessity. Higher education institutions (HEIs) like university are expected to improve themselves in enacting their roles as the generator of knowledge. University exists to pursue the truth (Jaspers, 1946) and to transform society (Brennan et al., 2004). These important roles must be done by the HEI in the era of global financial crisis when budget is both limited and restricted (Bienen and Boren, 2010). Looking at it from a positive perspective, this is the era where the quality of the university is being tested. Universities with high academic qualities will still be the ideal destination for potential students for their higher education and the trusted research institutions for research grants (Lawton et al., 2013).

This means leadership in higher education is expected to drive academic quality. High quality lecturers are the ones who will improve the teaching learning and the research performance of the institution (Boyer, 1990; Farnham, 1999). The scholarship caliber of these lecturers should be nurtured in order to harness their academic potentials (Ramsden, 1998). Leaders in colleges and university are expected to improve their leadership effectiveness in order to facilitate their colleagues. These higher educational leaders are still seeking the right leadership approach to ensure their leadership effectiveness. Some leadership scholars suggest that the sector adopt the leadership approaches from other sectors. These scholars argue that the sector of higher education has benefited from approaches such as authentic leadership and transformational leadership (Avolio and Gardner, 2005; Bryman, 2009; McCaffery, 2010). On the other hand higher educational leadership experts assert that the sector should come out with its own leadership mantra (McNay, 1995; Birnbaum, 1991; Bolden et al., 2009).

Servant leadership as one of the approaches has also been studied by leadership scholars as a promising leadership approach for the sector of higher education (Parris and Peachey, 2013). Fransworth (2007) asserts that this service oriented leadership is the proper leadership way which can drive the followers in the sector of higher education in dealing with the challenges of the sector creatively. Wheeler (2012) posits that servant leadership is a leading and living philosophy that will create a sustainable culture which values integrity and professionalism. Integrity and professionalism are badly needed by university and colleges if they have to thrive in this competitive era.

Given that universities are the front-runner of empirical research, every claim about effective leadership should be tested empirically. This includes the effectiveness of servant leadership for the sector (Farling and Stone, 1999). Scholars of leadership suggest that servant leadership is associated with leaders' hardiness (McClelland, 2008) and followers' commitment (Hunter et al., 2013). Moderated by the climate of empowerment in an organization, servant leadership is proven to be associated with the performance of the leadership in the sector of higher education (Iken, 2005;

Burton and Peachey, 2013; Wheeler, 2012). In the sub-sector of faith-based higher education, servant leadership research tends to be done based on the positive assumption of the leadership approach (Jacobs, 2011; Rubino, 2012). Furthermore, the research of servant leadership in higher education tends to look at mixed followers without discerning whether the followers are academics or non-academics (i.e. supporting professionals) (Wheeler, 2012).

This research was designed to explore the practice of servant leadership among the academic leaders in a faith-based university in Indonesia. The purpose of the research is to evaluate the practice of servant leadership within the faith-based campus and eventually advance the body of knowledge of servant leadership and higher educational leadership. The evaluative purpose of this research is aimed to inform the Board of the university about the implementation of servant leadership in the academic sphere within the case campus. The research-based information will be beneficial for the Board to make the necessary changes if servant leadership is to be effective.

In order to achieve the aim of the study, this research has raised two research questions: 1) How do the academic leaders understand servant leadership? 2) What do the academic leaders do to ensure the implementation of servant leadership as they lead their lecturer? The first research question is expected to produce themes related to the antecedents of the academic servant leadership while the second is expected to construct the characteristics of the academic servant leaders within the case study campus. Knowing the antecedents will evaluate the initial driver of servant leadership among the academic servant leaders. This will be the important evaluator for the Board given that servant leadership is supposed to be based on the natural feeling to serve (Greenleaf, 1977) among the leaders and not due to the instructions written on the case campus's statutes. The exploration of the characteristics of the academic servant leaders will let the Board understand the actual servant leadership practised by these academic servant leaders and thus enable the Board to design appropriate leadership development program for the current and the future leaders.

The Antecedents and the Characteristics of Servant leadership

Greenleaf (1977) asserts that servant leadership should be based on the natural feeling that one wants to serve. This assertion was interpreted differently by different servant leadership scholars. Some scholars suggest that this natural feeling is based on the spiritual transformation one experienced which made the leader believes that he is a servant of the Higher Being and since the Higher Being is invisible, the leader manifests the service to his followers (Sendjaya and Sarros, 2002; Page and Wong, 2000). Being a servant is the basis on a servant leader's doing (Sendjaya, 2015). Other scholars suggest that one is willing to serve in their leadership due to his or her surroundings. The initial willingness in being a servant leader is due to one's alignment with his or her organizational values (van Dierendonck, 2011) and due to one's experience with the previous servant leader (Beck, 2014).

In their synthesis on transformational leadership, authentic leadership and spiritual leadership, Sendjaya et al. (2008) not only confirm that servant leaders are committed to being a servant out of their obedience to a higher being, but also detail six servant leadership dimensions: voluntary subordination, authentic self, covenantal

relationship, responsible morality, transcendental spirituality and transforming influence. In voluntary subordination, a servant leader bases on his being (a servant) serves, regardless of his internal and external situation and this dimension becomes the basis for his authentic-self (Sendjaya et al., 2008). The authenticity of servant leaders significantly shapes and affects their relationships with others and the covenantal character means that servant leaders relate with their followers based on their shared values, open-ended commitment, mutual trust and concern for the welfare of the other party (Sendjaya, 2015).

In the responsible morality dimension, Sendjaya (2015) argues that servant leaders are being ethical in exercising their power, ensuring that both the ends and the means are morally legitimised, thoughtfully reasoned and ethically justified. Transcendental spirituality describes servant leaders' relationships with their followers based on spiritual values, aimed at restoring the wholeness of the followers and meaningful, intrinsically motivating work. Last but not least, the transforming influence dimension describes how servant leadership positively transforms those served in multiple dimensions (e.g. emotionally, intellectually, socially, and spiritually) (Sendjaya et al., 2008).

Table 1. Servant Leadership Dimensions and Behaviours (Sendjaya et al., 2008)

Servant Leadership Dimensions	Servant Leadership Behaviours
Voluntary Subordination	Being a servant and Acts of Service
Authentic Self	Humility, Integrity, Accountability, Security and Vulnerability.
Covenantal Relationship	Acceptance, Availability, Equality and Collaboration
Responsible Morality	Moral reasoning and Moral action
Transcendental Spirituality	Religiousness, Interconnectedness, Sense of Mission and Wholeness
Transforming Influence	Vision, Modelling, Mentoring, Trust and Empowerment.

In clarifying the essence of the servant being, Wong and Page (2003) assert that servant being can be observed from their servant character and is rooted in the servant's heart. The servant heart is the inner quality of the person and in Christianity this inner quality exists as the result of essential inner reality of faith-based rebirth/spiritual transformation (Page and Wong, 2000). The innate character of servant leadership for Page and Wong (2000) is the leader's heart, characterised by their commitment to serve others with integrity and humility. Furthermore, Page and Wong (2000) suggest that servant leadership is an expanding circle centred on the servant leader's heart depicted in figure 1.
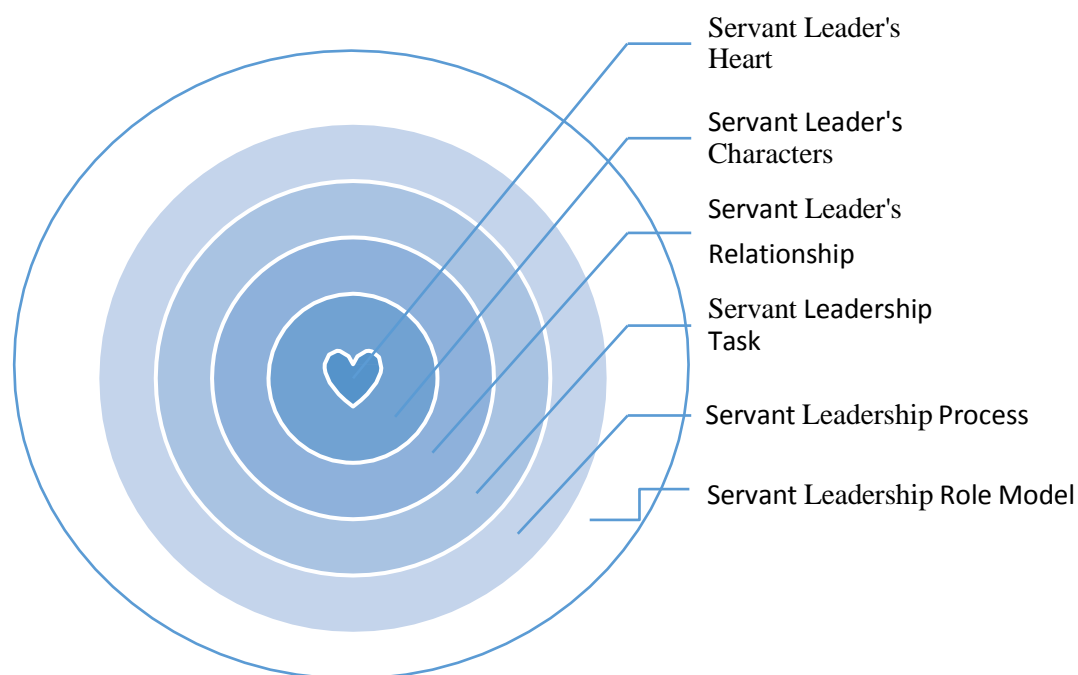
Figure 1. Page and Wong's (2000) Expanding Circles of Servant Leadership

The figure above explains why servant leaders lead by serving. They do so because of their transformed heart and this heart transformation enables them to present their genuine servant leader's characteristics. These characteristics are displayed as they relate to their lead featured by care, empowerment and people development. A servant-led relationship is the foundation to carry the leadership tasks (visioning, goal setting and leading). The leadership tasks have to be manifested in the leadership process (modelling, team building and shared decision making). The expanding process starts from the servant heart and goes further until it reached the process of developing the society.

Given the faith-based nature of the case campus, I am using the Servant Leadership Dimensions and behaviours and the expanding circle of servant leadership characteristics as the backbone theories of the interview questions in relation to the characteristics of the academic servant leaders. The continuous iteration process between the models and the data gathered from the interview is intended to produce the expected and the unexpected themes to enrich the model of the characteristics of academic servant leadership in the sector of higher education.

Case Study Methodology

This research uses case study as its research methodology. The methodology is expected to capture the complexity of leadership practice in the higher educational context (Bassey, 2007; Rhodes and Brundrett, 2014). The case study involves an interview of twenty eight academic leaders leading at departmental, decanal and presidential level. The interview for leaders at three different levels which act as the triangulation of the research will minimize the risk of 'romancing the leader' in a research on leaders (Gronn, 2007). The case campus is a faith-based (Christian) campus which has been running for more than five decades in one of the major cities

in Indonesia. The private campus clearly states in its statutes that leadership in the case campus must be enacted under the principles of servant leadership (YPTK, 2004).

The focus of this study is the academic leadership. Academic leadership is leadership that is intended to influence the academic performance of the lecturers (Ramsden, 1998; Bolden et al., 2012). In this study, the academic leadership is focused on the undergraduate academic programs of the case campus. The academic leaders were interviewed on their academic leadership experience as they lead within the hierarchy of higher education (Tucker and Bryan, 1988; Pepper and Giles, 2015).

Each interview which lasted between 60-90 minutes was audio recorded and processed into transcript ready for the analysis. The process of making the transcript is the enactment of the process of data display. Data display is part of the three concurrent qualitative data analysis procedures suggested by Miles et al (2014). The displayed data for Miles et al (2014) are then processed by an open coding and a close coding process in order to produce the themes in relation to the research questions. The iteration process of reviewing the literature review and the emerging themes has enabled the researcher to produce the relevant themes.

Antecedents of academic servant leadership

In studying for the antecedents of the academic servant leadership, every interviewee was asked to tell their journey to leadership. Interestingly, this research revealed that twenty out of twenty six academic leaders were not willing to be nominated for their current position. This interesting fact provides a deeper insight on why in the end of the day these lecturers were willing to be the academic leader. The exploration of these 'late yeses' has been consolidated into themes related to the antecedents of these academic leader's servant leadership.

One of the departmental heads said how her professional calling supported by her family has helped her to take the leadership position.

"…I believe that I am called to teach the truth to my students. Being a lecturer is enough. However my spouse motivated me by saying that my calling is going to be easily achieved when I am leading my department. I believe his "surprising support" is the confirmation of my calling to be the leader. Moreover ever since I got married, I had to move church to my husband's. In this new church, I don't see myself fit for a ministry. I determined to make my leadership service as my ministry with my husband's blessing" (G1, 24).

For the academic servant leaders their willingness of becoming the academic leader was due to a calling. Becoming an academic leader is a sacrifice that only can be taken based on the calling which stems from their spiritual conviction. A departmental head of an engineering program shared her story:

"I have said no for so many times for the nomination. Once I attended an inauguration of the elected Deans, there I listen to the spiritual talk. The talk

confirmed me that I should be willing to be the officer as I believe that my department is the place where I could do something…" (G1, 19).

Besides the family values and spiritual conviction, the academic leaders stated how their experience with the previous leaders has helped them to make the decision of becoming an academic leader. One of the Deans recalled her acceptance decision in this following evidence:

"I was actually having a plan for myself and my family and was really reluctant in taking the position. My current leader shared how he needs me as one of the few trustworthy leaders within the campus. He shared his vision and what he has in mind for the case campus. His sharing was so compelling that I felt guilty for not taking the offered position" (G1, 6).

The academic servant leaders also confirmed that their servant leadership is initiated due to the identity of the case campus as a Christian campus. One of the deans stated in this following evidence:

"…leading as an academic leader means following the example of Christ. Our campus is a Christian campus and thus we have to follow His example in implementing servant leadership. We lead by being humble and providing excellent service to our lecturers" (G1, 5).

This section has explained the antecedents of academic servant leadership. The antecedents can be categorized into internal antecedents which consist of family values and spiritual conviction and external antecedents which consist of leadership experience and organizational identity. There is a suggestion that these two groups of antecedents are related to each other and that they are influencing the characteristics of the academic servant leaders.

The Characteristics of an Academic Servant Leader

The qualitative data analysis shows that there are eight themes related to the characteristics of the academic servant leader. In this research based on the review of the literature combined with the true meanings obtained from the participants, these themes are stated as: leader's understanding, humility, credibility, authenticity, altruistic mindset, moral responsibility, people development and servant leader's conceptualization. Under the light of servant leadership theories, these themes are categorized as a concentric circle of characteristics. These characteristics are core characteristic, intrapersonal characteristics, relational characteristics and the characteristics related to servant leadership impact.

Core Characteristic (Leaders' Understanding)

When the academic servant leaders were asked on the meaning of their leadership, they said that it is not just service. This shows that there is an inconsistency of these leaders with the theory of servant leadership. Scholars of servant leadership strongly argue that the meaning of leadership is to serve the followers by meeting the followers' needs (Russell and Stone, 2002). There are three other themes besides 'to

serve' stated by the academic servant leaders. One head of the department said that for her to lead means to influence others by inspiring them.

"Having all things to do as a leader makes me think that to lead means to inspire others so that they will perform at their best and we can achieve the goal of the organisation more easily" (G1, 9).

Besides of influencing, another academic leader, one of the Deans stated that to lead means   to empower others.

"In my opinion, to lead is to empower and to nurture others…accepting the followers' weaknesses, cultivate them to be better and definitely appreciating their strengths" (G1, 4).

Another theme related to the meaning of leadership came in the form of 'direction'. This was stated by one of the heads of the social science programs.

"...in my understanding, the meaning of leading is to have a clear target and to organise my followers to achieve it. This is universal for me, wherever is always like this" (G1, 13).

This section has discussed the evidence that the academic servant leaders understand leadership as a concept that is larger than service. They stated that servant leadership is a service that should bring along empowerment, influence and direction.

Humility, Credibility and Authenticity

Besides their understanding that was not unified on 'to serve', the academic leaders also stated the importance of humility as the academic leaders. One of the presidential leaders said in this following evidence:

"I just didn't want it. I was so happy with my previous position as the head of the research centre. I already have plans for my future that are related to research. I never thought of holding my current position. I feel that the scope of the job is too large and I have not learned much about it. I don't really know how things are being done here" (G1, 2).

Besides humility, another characteristic that emerged from the interview was credibility. The academic leaders of the case campus stated clearly the importance of credibility of the academic servant leader. One of the departmental heads shared her thought in the following evidence:

"…in this second term, I am very reluctant to be an academic leader. There was a shocking moment as I was working on the academic department's accreditation. I read in their assessment guidance and I reflected about myself. A bachelor degree holder like me was far from qualified and this fact would bring down the grade of my programme. I was speechless knowing that I could be the negative factor for my department's assessment. Currently, I already have my Master degree, but I am still

yet to get my first academic rank. Having to lead two Doctoral lecturers and several Master lecturers with higher academic rank gives me constant anxiety" (G1, 26).

The evidence above shows the important of further investigation of humility. Humility is not the same with falling-short of the standard as stated by the interviewee above.

Another important related characteristic is authenticity. This means the quality of being vulnerable of a person. One of the female academic leaders shared her thought in the following paragraph.

"I didn't want it in the first place. I felt that I have not taken care of my children enough when I was "just" a vice head or the deputy of the programme. I can't imagine if I have to be the head. I was often being called by the head master of my child's school to hear about my son's negative behaviour. I was so worried about not being able to be a good wife and mother for my family" (G1, 24).

In summary, humility, credibility and authenticity are three characteristics displayed as the intrapersonal characteristics of an academic servant leader. These characteristics are expanded from their understanding of leadership (Page and Wong, 2000). This section has also explained how each intrapersonal characteristic is unique and interrelated. The humility of academic servant leaders does not mean that they are not credible and authenticity makes sure that humility and credibility are genuine to build trust (Kouzes and Possner, 2003) as these academic servant leaders must relate with their followers. The next section is going to explain the relational characteristics which consist of altruistic mindset and morally responsible characteristic.

Altruistic and morally responsible

When asked about their attitude towards others, the academic servant leaders show certain altruistic mindset. They indicated that they became an academic leader out of their concern for others. One of the Deans said it in this following evidence:

"I want to contribute something to my organisation...I want to improve the performance of my lecturers. Their research performance is still not there…there are four departments, but only one that is quite good since they have two experienced researchers as their research drivers. In the other programmes, I have to change their mind set on their scholarly activities…" (G1, 4).

Further investigation suggests that the academic servant leaders have the altruistic mindset because of their moral responsibility. They see their job beyond the professional reward that they earned. One of the departmental heads highlighted it in this following statement:

"…how to say it? Well, every morning as I go to the campus, I always drive past a primary school near the campus. I see a mother riding a motor-cycle with her daughter, and as they reach the school, the mother ensures that her daughter is well-dressed. It is an analogy for me where we are responsible for parents' trust which I believe more essential than their financial contribution. They have entrusted their

sons and daughters to study on our case campus. We have to love them by ensuring them that we have provided our best" (G1, 18).

Interestingly, this relational attitude was not directed towards their direct followers. Most departmental heads look at their students as their direct followers instead of their lecturer. This happens as well with the academic leaders at the higher levels.

This section has explained the relational characteristics of the academic servant leaders. They relate with others based on their altruistic mindset (Patterson, 2003).

This altruistic mindset is related to their moral responsibility towards their followers (Sendjaya et al., 2008).

Servant leadership impact (People Development and Servant Leader's Conceptualisation)

The previous sections have explained the servant leaders' understanding, their intrapersonal characteristics and their relational characteristics. This section will explain their aspiration of their servant leadership impact. This aspiration of impact can be understood from their conceptualization. In servant leadership, conceptualization is the talent of the servant leader to change his followers so that these followers can change their surroundings (Greenleaf, 1977).

One of Deans stated that for her the meaning of her position is to turn around her School from the inherited bad leadership from the past.

"I thought about this position, well actually I was being offered as the Vice Dean on the previous term. As the senate member of this School, I knew that being a Dean means turning around the school. My close friends have told me that the next Dean has to 'wash the dirty dishes after a party'" (G1, 4).

The evidence above shows that the leader view that there are problems within her academic unit. This means being a leader means being the one who has to clean up the mess left by the former leader.

"I don't think I was the right candidate, I am still relatively new in my department. I believe there were better candidates than me. I lead in an organisation before but it was not an educational institution. I can't just use command and control. I want my Dean to reconsider her appointment" (G1, 13).

The statement above shows that for an academic servant leader, this role is different from any other kind of leadership. The following evidence explains the academic leaders' aspiration in creating a change on their followers:

"I want every undergraduate student who enters my department to be transformed by our process. I myself felt it. My daughter was one of the students of an international programme on this case campus. I admired that programme so much. She and her friends were somehow being changed. They were so serious and committed to their studies as they underwent the programme" (G1, 18).

This section has explained the transformational characteristics of the academic servant leaders. These characteristics to some extent have confirmed the theory of servant leaders' talent of conceptualization (Greenleaf, 1991; Barbuto and Wheeler, 2006).

Spiritual Contemplation

This research has to allocate a special discussion on the topic of spiritual contemplation. In Indonesia, this spiritual contemplation is called a 'pergumulan'.
"Well, nobody wants to serve as an administrator, the nature of the work is somehow avoided by many in my school…I come from a broken family [cried], after my dad run away, my mother was being helped by people from the church in our village. I felt that God has been so good to me, transforming my life and so, being an academic leader is one of my ways to repay His kindness" (G1, 3).

Pergumulan is servant leader's intrapersonal communication in order to accept a leadership position and to carry it out. In this faith-based university, this Indonesian term of 'pergumulan' is a noun based on a verb 'bergumul' which means to wrestle (LAI, 2001). In this context the wrestle exists between the will of the servant leader and the will which s/he believes as the will of God (Winston, 2002). These servant leaders accept by their internal rationalization based of their faith or their interpretation of their faith (Fry, 2003; Reinke, 2004).

The head of one of the engineering departments stated very well in this following evidence:

"I know that not being strict to my lecturers will create a weak organizational culture. However, these senior lecturers have been doing their poor performance since forever. My superiors didn't do anything about it. I know that based on my faith, I have to be strict to them, but when I am not supported by my superiors to do so, I feel that I don't feel right in doing so" (G1,13).

The evidence above show how 'pergumulan' is part of the academic servant leaders both in starting their academic journey and in sustaining it.

The proposed model of Servant Leadership Antecedents and Characteristics

The qualitative data analysis process which includes the creation of causal themes suggests that there is a relationship between the antecedents and the characteristics of the academic servant leaders.
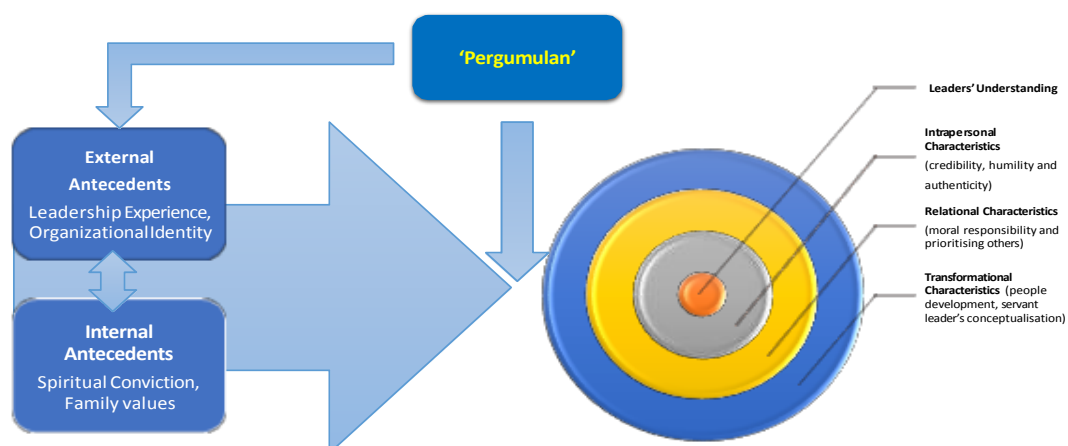
Figure 2. The relationship between the antecedents and the characteristics of the academic servant leaders.

The figure above describes how academic leaders within the case campus got initiated in enacting their servant leadership. There are external and internal antecedents that influenced each other and these antecedents influence these academic servant leaders' characteristics. This influence is moderated by the academic servant leaders' spiritual contemplation known in Indonesian as 'pergumulan'.

Conclusion

This research has shown that the antecedents of academic servant leadership can be classified into internal antecedents consist of spiritual conviction and family values and external antecedents which consist of leadership experience and organizational identity. The exploration of the enactment of academic leadership has suggested that these academic servant leaders displayed eight characteristics that can be seen as a concentric circle. Reviewing the literature on servant leaders' characteristics, these concentric characteristics are categorized into core characteristics, intrapersonal characteristics, relational characteristics and transformational characteristics.

The academic servant leaders of the case campus stated that their willingness and their pursuance of an effective leadership could not be separated from the term 'pergumulan'. Pergumulan or spiritual contemplation occurred when they accepted the nomination process of their current leadership position (Baxter, 2011). This faith-based contemplation which resulted in their willingness of being an academic leader involved their rational considerations such as support from the spouse, the informal leader and certain spiritual events. 'Pergumulan' also emerged as a dominant theme when the academic servant leaders explain their challenges in leading their department. 'Pergumulan' helps these academic servant leaders to lead the difficult people, to do endless administrative tasks, to follow the rules set by the Board and to fulfil the difficult demand from the government.

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Biography

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USING STUDENT ENGAGEMENT THEORY TO EXPLORE INCLUSION FOR PUPILS WITH SEN IN MAINSTREAM SCHOOLS IN ENGLAND

Dr Hester Riviere

Abstract

This paper reports part of a study which used student engagement theory to explore inclusive provision for pupils with SEN in a mainstream school. The findings demonstrate that these pupils had qualitatively different patterns of engagement from peers with no SEN. They reported less positive relationships with their class teacher, lower aspirations for the future, and lower self-efficacy. Student engagement theory shed new light on the on the complex interaction of pupils with their learning environment. Comparison between engagement subtypes provided a multidimensional understanding of the engagement of pupils with SEN, with implications for the inclusive teaching of pupils with SEN in mainstream primary schools.

Context of the Research

The impetus to integrate pupils with SEN into mainstream schools in England stems from the Warnock Report (DES, 1978) and the 1981 Education Act (DES, 1981). The shift from integration - children with additional needs adapting themselves to mainstream environments – to inclusion – mainstream schools making reasonable adjustments to meet the needs of all students – began in the 1980s. In practice, however, there remains a gap between the ideology of inclusion and its practical implementation for pupils with SEN in English schools. Evans and Lunt (2002) argued that what inclusion means in practice is still unclear; according to Tutt (2007) this is because the long debate about the meaning of inclusion has prevented the development of effective practice. Lloyd (2000) argued that there has been no attempt on the part of policymakers to define inclusion. Clark, Dyson, and Millward, (1995) noted a lack of clarity caused by a fragmented evidence base. Dyson, Howes, and Roberts (2002) highlighted the tendency of existing evidence "to be embedded in conceptual development, advocacy and illustration" (p. 5) rather than practice, and Florian and Black-Hawkins (2011) argued that "little is known about the detail of practice at the classroom level" (p. 814).

There is thus some consensus in the literature about how little there is to bridge the ideology of inclusion to what is happening in schools. Yet 17.9% of pupils in schools in England in 2014 had identified SEN (DfE, 2014), so it is essential that teachers have the practical skills to meet the needs of such a large minority. Veck (2009) argued that "inclusive education must amount to more than securing access to educational spaces for learners who would otherwise be excluded from them. But how might educators and learners be included within an educational institution so that they are *of* and not *merely in* it?" (2009, p. 141, original emphasis). Evans and Lunt (2002) described the placement of pupils with SEN in mainstream classes with additional funding to provide individual support as a "weak" form of inclusion, yet this is precisely what research into inclusive practice found to be the norm (Evans & Lunt, 2002; Webster & Blatchford, 2013).

A shift in the way pupils with SEN are taught in mainstream settings (Russell, Webster, & Blatchford, 2013; Webster & Blatchford, 2013), and in the way inclusion is conceptualised (Evans & Lunt, 2002; Lloyd, 2008), were implied by the existing literature as necessary for turning inclusion into achievement. Indeed Nutbrown and Clough, (2009) argued that "inclusive *policies* only really find meaning in inclusive *practices*" (p. 192, original emphasis). This paper presents some of the findings of study which sought to develop a better understanding of participation for pupils with SEN in mainstream classrooms, and the teaching practices that support participation through engagement.

Participation as inclusion

Farrell (2004) proposed that inclusion comprises: *Presence*, *Acceptance*, *Participation* and *Achievement.* He elaborated on these categories as follows: "It is not… sufficient for children simply to be *present* in a school. They need to be *accepted* by their peers and by staff, they need to *participate* in all the school's activities, and they need to attain good levels of *achievement* in their work and behaviour" (Farrell, 2004, pp. 8 – 9, original emphasis). The study reported here suggests that these are not discrete categories but interrelated components which can be modelled as shown in Figure 1 below to reflect how the first three levels impact on the fourth.

Figure 1 Nested model of inclusion derived from Farrell (2004)
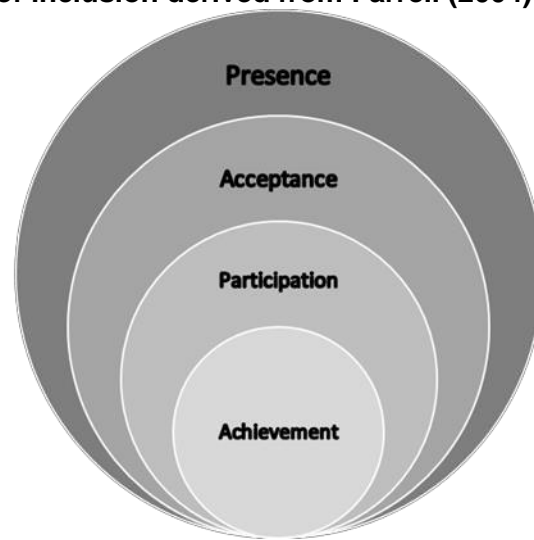
Participation is key to the inclusion of pupils with SEN because it combines active engagement with the social processes that facilitate learning, and at the same time develops independence. Its central importance to inclusion was highlighted by Farrell (2004); Booth and Ainscow, (2002); Dyson et al., (2002); Farrell, 2004; Florian and Black-Hawkins, (2011); Rix, Hall, Nind, Sheehy, and Wearmouth, (2009). The review of the literature carried out by Dyson et al. (2002), however, suggested that the link between an "inclusive culture" and participation was not clear and that future research should "trace links between action and participation in detail" (Dyson et al., 2002, p. 5).

In order to trace this detailed connection as called for by Dyson et al. (2002) the study reported here adopted a more specific definition informed by student engagement research (Finn & Zimmer, 2012), which provided a theoretical model of the interaction of pupils not only with their school environment but also with the processes that promote engagement in learning. The current study explored that interaction specifically in relation to pupils with SEN and the capacity of teachers to promote engagement for these pupils in order to shed some light on how to translate participation into achievement for pupils with SEN.

Student Engagement Theory

Pianta, Hamre, and Allen (2012) argued that "teachers are core organisers of experience" (p. 369), asserting that "engagement is a contextualized process mediated by relationships and interpersonal interactions" (p. 369). Skinner, Wellborn, and Connell, (1990) suggested a model of engagement which predicts that pupils who believe that successful learning is dependent on 'powerful others' (for example class teachers and other school staff) that they themselves lack the ability to be successful at school, and that they lack the capacity to use

strategies independently, also show low self-efficacy, low perceived competence and low engagement. Engagement is thus also related to pupils' self-efficacy beliefs.

Skinner et al. (1990) also argued that "children who are not doing well in school will perceive themselves as having no control over academic successes or failures and these beliefs will subsequently generate performances that serve to confirm their beliefs" (p. 22). Zeleke's (2004) analysis of 41 studies exploring the self-concept scores of pupils with SEN on measures of academic self-concept were significantly lower than their peers with no SEN. Pupils with SEN, who were identified as likely to be dependent on TAs and to lack confidence in their ability to work independently (Giangreco, Yuan, McKenzie, Cameron, & Fialka, 2005; Radford, Blatchford, & Webster, 2011), were also more likely to attribute success to powerful others. The Skinner, Connell and Wellborn model therefore suggests that pupils with SEN are more likely to show low self-efficacy, low perceived competence and low engagement. If engagement is associated with academic progress and achievement, and pupils with SEN show both low engagement and low achievement, the current study aimed to explore whether the engagement of these pupils might provide some insight into how to translate participation into achievement.

The current study used and developed measures that covered the four subtypes of student engagement as defined by Appleton, Christenson, Kim, and Reschly (2006): academic, cognitive, behavioural and psychological engagement. The purpose was to develop a rigorous, evidence-based theoretical framework in which to explore the participation of pupils with SEN in order to address the lack of clarity in the existing literature regarding how participation in teaching and learning can be operationalised in practice and explored through research. The four subtypes were defined as follows: academic engagement comprises time on task, and the completion of classroom and homework tasks. Behavioural engagement comprises attendance and participation in classroom tasks, which includes the differentiation of tasks and classroom groupings and classroom interactions. Cognitive engagement is concerned with the extent to which pupils value school and learning, and the relevance of school to their future aspirations. Psychological engagement reflects pupils' sense of belonging to and identification with school.

Sample and Data Collection

The pupils and teachers of two Year 5 classes in a mainstream primary school in a county town in the South of England participated in this research. Classroom 1 was composed of 16 boys and 11 girls. Levels of attainment in the class ranged from 2a to 5c in Reading; 2a to 4b in Writing; and 2a to 4a in Numeracy. There were no pupils in the class with a Statement of SEN/EHCP, and six pupils in the class identified as SEN Support with a range of needs. Classroom 2 was composed of 14 boys and 13 girls. Levels of attainment in the class ranged from 2a to 5b in Reading; 2a to 5c in Writing; and 2a to 5b in Numeracy. There were two pupils in the class with Statements of SEN/EHCPs, one with Autistic Spectrum Disorder (ASD) given as his primary need, the other Behavioural, Emotional and Social Difficulties (BESD).

Data relating to the four types of engagement described above were collected through systematic classroom observations, questionnaires and semi-structured interviews in order to capture data relating to all four subtypes, using both objective and subjective data collection methods in a mixed-methods design.

Academic and behavioural engagement can be directly observed and were captured using systematic classroom observations. A time-sampling observation schedule, which provided minute-by-minute observations of classroom practice, was developed for this study to measure academic and behavioural engagement and to facilitate comparisons between

pupils with and without SEN, with respect to the general structure of the classroom, teaching and task.

The Student Engagement Instrument – Elementary Version (SEI-E) was used to capture the cognitive and psychological subtypes of student engagement, which are not outwardly observable but better captured through a self-report measure. The measure is widely used across the U.S. and a growing body of evidence appears to confirm its utility (Carter, Reschly, Lovelace, Appleton, & Thompson, 2012).

Additional data were collected with pupils with SEN using a questionnaire and a semi-structured interview to provide further insight into aspects of the cognitive and psychological engagement of pupils with SEN, specifically their perceived personal competence, interpersonal relationships, and sense of belonging (Appleton et al., 2006). The questionnaire was developed by Egelund and Tetler (2009) from the Index for Inclusion (Booth & Ainscow, 2002) to explore pupils' perceptions of themselves at school. The semi-structured interview schedule was developed alongside the main data collection tools in the MAST project (Webster & Blatchford, 2013) to explore the experiences of pupils with SEN working with adults and peers at school. This schedule was used in the current study to explore the perceptions pupils with SEN of their classroom interactions, and the support they receive at school, more fully.

Results

Participation for pupils with SEN was different from pupils with no SEN both in terms of behavioural and academic engagement, as explored using systematic classroom observations, and in terms of cognitive and psychological engagement, as measured using the SEI-E.

Behavioural engagement was captured through classroom observations, which comprised observations of classroom and task structure, and classroom interactions. Pupils with SEN spent significantly more time working in groups and working on differentiated tasks than pupils with no SEN. They spent significantly less time working independently than pupils with no SEN. Pupils with SEN had significantly more interactions with TAs than their peers with no SEN, but a similar number of interactions with the teacher and with their peers. This was due to the amount of time pupils with SEN spent working in groups with TA support. Academic engagement was captured through observations of task-related behaviour. Pupils with and without SEN were observed to be on task for the majority of the time.

Items on the SEI-E relating to pupils' sense of belonging to school explored cognitive and psychological engagement. Analysis revealed that pupils with SEN reported a qualitatively different pattern of engagement from their peers with no SEN in terms of these types of engagement. For pupils with no SEN, Teacher-Student Relationships, Future Goals and Aspirations, and Attainment were all positively correlated. For pupils with SEN these items were negatively correlated: pupils with SEN reported less positive relationships with their teachers, lower aspirations for their future, and higher dependence on rewards for learning. Not all these associations were strong or significant, but they suggest that the engagement of pupils with SEN with school and learning follows a different pattern from pupils with no SEN on a number of factors relating to doing well in education and in future life.

Discussion

The current study stemmed from recent research suggesting that pupils with SEN need to engage more actively and independently with learning instead of being dependent on 1:1 support from TAs. It aimed to discover whether pupils with SEN have the skills to be more active and independent learners, by exploring their participation and engagement in

mainstream classrooms. Using student engagement theory to explore the experiences and perceptions of pupils with SEN, it found their participation and engagement to be qualitatively different from pupils with no SEN in terms both of behavioural and academic engagement, and cognitive and psychological engagement.

These findings demonstrate that even when pupils with SEN had the same access to teacher-led teaching and peer-to-peer learning as pupils with no SEN, their engagement was still qualitatively different: relationships with teachers were less positive; the motivation of pupils with SEN to learn depended on external reward rather than their own desire to succeed; pupils with SEN had lower aspirations for their future. Pupils with SEN demonstrated the ability to reflect on their learning and set appropriate learning challenges, but they were also dependent on a high level of adult support, had little sense of self-efficacy, and believed that they could only make progress with individual help. Differences between pupils with and without SEN were much more marked in terms of cognitive and psychological engagement.

Existing literature, for example Giangreco et al. (2005) in the U.S. and Radford, Blatchford, and Webster (2011) in the U.K., noted the risk of creating passive learners who are over-reliant on TA support and who do not take responsibility for their own learning strategies. Not only was this the case for pupils who participated in this study, this over-reliance also had implications for pupils with SEN in terms of their ability to work independently, and both the teachers and pupils with SEN who participated in this study believed that independent working was very challenging for these pupils.

These findings are consistent with Skinner, Wellborn, and Connell's (1990) model of engagement. Those authors predicted that when pupils believe successful learning is dependent on 'powerful others', for example teachers or TAs, they lose belief in their ability to be successful at school and in their capacity to work independently. Skinner et al. also demonstrated that such pupils show low self-efficacy, low perceived competence and low engagement. What the current study adds to the evidence is the role cognitive and psychological engagement play in pupils' ability to work independently and the implications for achievement of pupils with SEN at school and their aspirations for the future.

Finn (1989) argued that participation involves identifying with school and class activities as the foundation of engagement, a process that occurs through the interactions and relationships experienced by pupils. Skinner et al. (1990) identified teachers' involvement with pupils as a key factor in the beliefs pupils develop about their own abilities and the relationship between effort and ability. Pupils with SEN in the current study showed less positive relationships with teachers, low engagement and low achievement.

Implications for Practice

Strambler and McKown (2013), in research carried out in the U.S., identified three specific classroom practices that promote engagement. The first is the facilitation of social interdependence in group work in a process similar to that outlined by Baines, Blatchford and Webster (2015). The second is the use by teachers of specific strategies in the classroom to increase the status of lower attaining students through public praise and opportunities to display competence in particular areas. Cohen and Lotan (cited in Strambler & McKown 2013) reported increases in the participation of lower attaining pupils when such tactics were employed, and the teachers in the current study also reported a greater willingness amongst pupils with SEN to contribute publically in class when teachers engineered situations in which these pupils could demonstrate their competence. The third is the promotion of positive teacher-student relationships, which is contingent on how teachers respond to pupils' academic and emotional needs. In the current study, pupils with SEN reported less positive relationships with their teacher and also found it more difficult to respond to the

emotional needs of their pupils with SEN. The current study demonstrates the significant consequences of this for their engagement and participation, and the lack of skill teachers have in this area, providing new insight into how inclusive practice could be developed in the U.K.

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Biography

Hester Riviere is an Educational Psychologist working for Oxfordshire County Council Educational Psychology Service. This paper reports some of the findings of a thesis completed in partial fulfilment of the requirements of the Doctorate in Professional Educational, Child and Adolescent Psychology, Department of Psychology and Human Development, UCL Institute of Education.

SCHOOL TEACHING AS A FEMININE PROFESSION: THE LEGITIMIZATION AND NATURALIZATION DISCOURSES IN PAKISTANI CONTEXT

Dr. Hazir Ullah

Abstract

School teaching has long been associated with women. There has been an ideological link between women's domestic role and their career as school teacher. Taking care of younger children in school is traditionally seen as an "extension of motherhood" and therefore considered a "natural" job for women. Keeping in view this firmly rooted global phenomenon, I focus to examine what ideology idealizes and legitimizes school teaching as the best career for women in Pakistan? The study is informed by social constructionist understanding of gender and therefore draws on feminist post-structuralist. Drawing on insights from feminist post-structuralist, I give particular consideration to the discourses embedded into school textbooks and the people who author and approve school knowledge. Employing qualitative methodology, I focus on two key questions: what ideology informs school textbooks? How do school textbooks legitimize school teaching as the only appropriate job for women? The study findings suggest that school textbooks in Pakistan have been used to naturalize and legitimize school teaching as the best career for women.

Keywords: Ideology, domestic role, Social constructionist, feminist poststructuralist, discourse analysis

Introduction:

The teaching of young children has long been dominated by women. Women's predominance in school teaching is to be found in most countries throughout the world (Drudy 2008). In a study of 41 countries, [school] teaching ranks as one of the typically female occupations (Anker, 1998). In most countries in North America, South America, Europe, and in much of Asia and the South Pacific women constitute up to 80 percent of the primary school teaching (United Nation Education Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) 2004). In Canada, women are 67 percent of the primary teachers. Similarly, in Brazil, Russia, Austria, Germany and the UK, women make up more than 80 percent of teaching staff in public and private schools (Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) 2005). Figures from the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization reveal that the proportion of women in primary school teaching has increased in all geographical regions worldwide, except the least developed countries (UNESCO, 2003). In China, India and Pakistan, women make up 49, 36 and 49 percent of primary teachers respectively. In many African countries, women compose less than a third of the teaching staff (OCED 2005 cited in Gaskell and Mullen 2006, p. 455). It can be argued that this pattern is shared worldwide. Regions such as South and East Asia, the Arab states, and Sub-Saharan Africa not only have less number of female in teaching but have the highest levels of occupational segregation by gender (see Padavic and Reskin, 2002; Gaskell and Mullen, 2006). However, the overall claim is that primary school teaching, both in the technologically developed and developing societies, is a female dominated field. Contrary to primary school teaching,

postsecondary teaching is a male-dominated enterprise. There are fewer women at the college and university level and they are in less senior positions than men (Gaskell and Mullen 2006). At the higher levels of education, where the position of teacher has more status, the number of females decreases (Spade 2001). This communicates a very powerful message that "women are more likely than men to teach young children…and to have positions with little power or intellectual authority" (Gaskell and Mullen 2006, p. 159).

Why are so many women in school teaching?

Teaching of young children is considered as a 'soft option' when it comes to a job in the public domain (Groskop 2006). However, the beliefs which buttress this global phenomenon vary across society. School teaching has long been believed and thought of as a woman's profession and job because working with children was

associated with child-care rather than teaching (Skelton 2009). School teaching has been seen as a suitable job for women who perpetuate the traditional stereotype that women, and not men, are responsible for young children (Oyler *et al*. 2001). Teaching is a caring profession that offers women "quasi-familial roles and identities around a core of male hierarchies and privileges" (Newman 1994, p 193).

Smulyan (2006) argues that joining school teaching was one of the options for women to be economically independent. She further states that it was also the result of women choosing to become economically self-sufficient and redefining their role in society. Similarly, the hegemonic traditions and culture of a society oblige women to accept positions in teaching (Cubillio 2003). School teaching was/is one of the few socially acceptable careers for middle class women because teaching could be considered an extension of women's domestic role (Joncich 1991). All these and many more explanations reveal that women become teachers for several reasons: they may need to earn and contribute to the family economy, teaching is the only acceptable profession for them; they are not yet married and are killing time or don't want to marry. 'They wanted to be more independent, and they were more interested in fostering political and spiritual change' (Smulyan, 2006, p 471; Foster 1993; Hoffman, 2003).

These exhaustive and multiple explanations coming from the Western scholarship do not mean that the study of feminization of school teaching is a low-profile gender issue. I acknowledge that the feminization of teaching has been studied in a serious academic tone over the last hundred years or so, but much of these studies have been carried out by western scholars on the feminization of school teaching in the western context with little attention to developing countries. Thus, a study from a developing country like Pakistan would significantly contribute to the existing scholarship on what ideological cannons are used to idealize and legitimize school teaching as the best career for women.

Feminization of School Teaching in Pakistani

Pakistan is a developing country in South Asia. Along with economic class, society is stratified by gender, with women often holding a lower social position than men (Ullah, 2013). The gender division of labour is supported on biological differences between men and women as well as moral grounds. Public domain is men's

prerogative where it is the women job to oversee the regulation of the household, both morally and economically (Ullah, 2013). Nevertheless, the last two decades have seen a considerable increase of women entry into the public domain. However, the entry of women into the public domain is dominantly selective; more and more women are entering school teaching.

Single-sex education is the norm up to college level. Female and male students attend separate classes in separate buildings or within the same building. Female and male students are taught by male and female teachers. Females constitute almost 49 percent of the total teachers at the primary level in the public sector. Nevertheless, private schools dominantly employee women as teachers. The feminization of teaching has been gradual throughout the years, yet has led to a significant female population within the teaching force in the schools. School teaching is the largest domain employing females (see Government of Pakistan (GoP), 2009; UNESCO, 2004). This paper is an attempt to highlight the feminization of school teaching as an emerging social issue in Pakistani society and situate the issue in the broader gender equality debate.

Data Sources and Methodology

The data for this study comes from a lager study on gender hierarchies in Pakistan. The data is derived from 24 textbooks (*Urdu,* English and Social Studies from class 1 to 8) and qualitative interviews with 28 educationists-curriculum designers, textbooks writers and school teachers (see Ullah 2013). The research used qualitative approach and employed purposive sampling for the selection of textbooks and educationists.

The paper employed Foucauldian Discourse Analysis (FDA) as the main methodological and theoretical approach. Discourse analysis is a flexible term and can be used in different ways depending on the field and purposes of the analyst. I have used discourse as it was used by Foucauldian feminist (see Davies 1989; Paechter, 2001) and taken into account the textbooks knowledge and educationists' views as powerful discourses and analyze how these construct 'frameworks of meaning that define categories and specify domains of what can be said and done' (Paechter 2001, p 41). I have tried to delineate how school knowledge and educationists' beliefs contribute to the legitimization and naturalization of school teaching as feminine profession which, in turn, perpetuate the gendered power structure. Doing discourse analysis I have attempted to highlight the way textbooks perpetuate gender stereotypes and reinforce the existing social and cultural power structures. It also highlights how gender identities are constructed through textbooks knowledge. The deconstruction and interpretation of texts and illustrations as well as educationists' views show that school textbooks are ideologically invested and serve men's interest by reproducing the status quo.

<div align="center">Findings and Discussion</div>

The hierarchical division of teaching profession

The analysis of school textbooks revealed two types of teaching: (a) 'school teaching' in which females were observed more than males; and (b) 'university teaching' in

which only men were observed (see Figure-I & Figure II). Textbooks vividly reinforce the ideology that women's career in public domain must be compatible with their homemaking responsibilities.

Women's Career as school teachers and its compatibility with homemaking

School textbooks portray women in traditional gender roles in the private sphere of home (see Ullah, 2013). If women are depicted in the public domain they did appear in limited number of occupations, predominately school teaching" (Ullah and Skelton 2013, p. 188). Textbooks and educationists idealized and naturalized school teaching as the best job for women. Textbooks depict school teaching as a profession for women that is compatible with their homemaking responsibilities and maternal role.

Figure-I is one of the several pictures and texts from public school textbooks that essentialize the nurturing role of women and their assumed greater suitability for school teaching. It also reinforces the domestic ideology and legitimize that women's careers should

This is my mother.

My mother is a teacher.

She teaches in the village school.

She also carries out all domestic chores

Source: *New Textbooks for Class II*, p 4

be compatible with homemaking responsibilities. The text in Figure-I communicates three important messages regarding defining parameters of females' career choices. First, it creates a metaphoric similarity between the role of a mother / female and a teacher. It tells the children that a female / mother can be a good school teacher. This is because mothering and school teaching both require the "essential" female qualities, i.e. loving, caring and nurturing.

The second message being communicated in Figure-1 is that, it is best for women to teach in schools in their own communities and localities so that they are close to their homes which are their 'primary spaces of existence'. Third, building on point two, the text in Figure-1 communicates that it is important for women that they should be close to their homes so that their domestic responsibility is not affected. The message communicated in the last line of Figure-1 reinforces the ideological link between women's domestic roles and their commitment to teaching. The last line in Figure-1 is the most common explanation that educationists gave to justify school teaching as the best career for women.

Majority of the respondents believed that, "School teaching suits women as it is a job between breakfast and lunch time which does not affect their mothering role. It allows women to manage their domestic chores after school time".

Another common explanation for associating school teaching with women was, "Teaching is the best profession for women as it has lots of vacations which give women the edge to look after their household".

These discourses very explicitly embody an ideological link between women career as school teachers and domestic ideology. These discourses place the responsibilities of homemaking, socialization of children and other family obligation on women's shoulders as their natural role.

Cultural basis of associating school teaching with women: women as school teachers are also justified trough cultural discourses. By culture discourses here refer to sets of socially and historically constructed rules [norms] telling members of society "what is" and "what is not" (Carrabine, 200). Men and women meeting together, mixing, and intermingling freely are not appreciated by social cultural norms. Several respondents declared 'school teaching' as the best profession for women as it enables them to do their job in gender segregated environment.
A senior subject specialist of textbook board stated, "School teaching is the best career for women as it involves less interaction with male members. It keeps the *purda* [*Hijab*] intact.

A great majority of respondents *reinforced the notion of Purda by stating,* Women cannot avoid interaction with men when do job other than teaching. Society does not encourage women in all jobs due to their *purda*, therefore, parents and other social forces compel them to join school teaching and work in sex segregated environment.

These discourses convey three messages: first, it puts forth *purda* or veil as a symbol that defines the ideal female and her appropriate social space of operation. Various dimensions of *purda* as perceived in the research locale are: physical segregation between men and women, symbolic invisibility of women in the public domain, inappropriateness of *namehram*[1] men hearing women's voices and inappropriateness of women gazing at *namehram* men. Second, since school teaching is perceived as an extension of mothering role, thus school teaching is a social field and space and thus upholds of the principles of *purda*. Third, since school teaching protects women from interaction with *namehram* men, women's modesty and chastity is protected. Thus, school teaching for females is believed and approved as being the best profession as it ensures "physical and symbolic invisibility and concealment of women's bodies and being" (Ullah 2006, p132). The message that emanates from the aforementioned discussion is that if the societal equilibrium is to be maintained and moral evils are to be controlled women should not be allowed in professions that allow free intermingling of men and women. A senior female educationist viewed women's participation in all fields of public sphere, indiscriminately, as a potential threat and polluting factor for the moral fabric of society. She stated,

"Women's participation in all fields of public domain has given birth to too many moral evils in our society. I think it is better that they should be encouraged to enter selected fields such as [school] teaching and medicine".

---

[1]Male with whom a woman can enter into marriage/*Nikh*

The above quotation suggests that women must be restricted to the private sphere or may be allowed to teach in school to protect societal morality.

Feminization of teaching: the mothering instinct

The study respondents emphatically stated that women were best suited for the school teaching because of their natural love for children.

Figure II
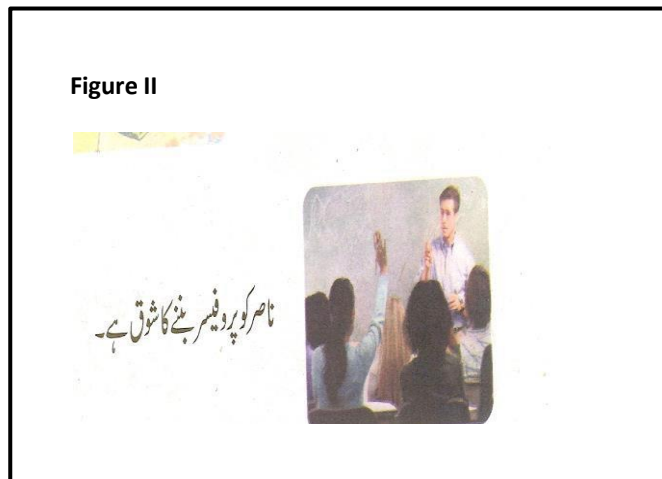
School teaching needs *payar* (love) not *mar* (beating). Women are very kind hearted and, therefore, very suitable for teaching children. *(Extract from interviews)*

The respondents also naturalized school teaching as women profession by stressing the nurturing role of women and their assumed greater suitability for school teaching. A considerable number of the respondents, irrespective of their sex, unanimously argued:

Teaching, both in public and private schools, is the best career for women as this gives them an opportunity to educate and socialize their children in the best way.

Another common response derived from the interviews is, "females have to look after children and manage the household. [School] teaching helps them in children rearing and homemaking."

These discourses justify teaching as the best and most "suitable job for women as it resonates with the stereotyped view of women being the ones who are responsible for young children and [homemaking]" (Ullah and Skelton 2013, p. 188). Women greater suitability for school teaching was also justified on the basis of biological differences between men and women. Many respondents opined that women's biological weakness and psychological makeup also render them incapable to pursue any career they wish.

"… women, due to their physiological and biological weakness, cannot carry out many tough jobs such as digging roads, constructing buildings etc. Women are best suited for teaching and nursing."

The above quote, an extract from many interviews, reinforces the belief that women are biologically weak and should not enter jobs that are physically strenuous as they cannot do jobs that require rigorous work, energy and input of long hours. These essentialist beliefs when embedded into textbooks, as incorporated into the current textbooks, function as powerful discourses that shape gender identities and perpetuate male's domination in the larger public domain by restricting females into the narrow public domain: school teaching which is believed to be an extension of women's nurturing and caring role to the public domain.

University teaching as Men's Prerogative

Contrary to the association of school teaching with women, textbooks associate professorial teaching with men and masculinity. Figure-II not only depicts men as university teacher but also communicate a strong motivational message to the learners that public domain, including university teaching, are the privileges and advantages available to male in society.

The depiction of men in professorial teaching is the manifestation of the ideology that university teaching has more power, prestige and intellectual authority and, therefore, needs to be done by men. It is also argued that teaching at the university level involves 'better pay, more autonomy and more association with intellectual than social development' (Gaskell and Mullen, 2006). The complete invisibility of women as university teachers may not only be linked to the social construction of masculinity and femininity but also a threatening problem. Thus, teaching in school and university can be seen as a manifestation of gender hierarchies within the public domain.

These are simple messages but ones that provide a female teacher and her students with a sealed cultural framework within which women teachers have to fix their womanhood and respectability and lead their students to do likewise (see Ullah 2015). This means that these ideologically invested discourses and school structures create complex sites in which women are constructed as subjects by the hegemonic masculine processes. These women teachers, unaware of the ways in which they are constructed, not only develop a gendered self but practice as an active agent in the construction of female pupils according to explicit and implicit dictates of patriarchal ideology. Thus, neither these women nor their female students develop an agency to negotiate, understand, and redefine their identities against or within the existing historical, institutional, and dominant cultural framework. The findings lead me to argue that women's entry to the public domain is under constant surveillance / gaze of the men and closely policed with the dominant hegemonic discourses in the textbooks. Discourses here are similarly positioned as power/knowledge relation as argued by Foucault (1980).

Conclusion

Feminization of school teaching is an institutionalized process which the patriarchal social structure of society has been encouraging for some time now. Idealizing and naturalizing women greater suitability for school teaching through textbooks discourses may be seen as men's strategy to maintain their hegemony. The belief-women's careers should be compatible with homemaking responsibilities-explicitly and tacitly offers preferred forms of subjectivity so that children take up their subject position according to their socially constructed 'gender category' (see Walkerdine, 1990). Presenting women as school teachers and men as university teachers may contribute to the image young children develop of their own appropriate role and that of their gender in society.

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Biography

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DEVELOPING PROVISION FOR CHILDREN WITH SPEECH, LANGUAGE AND COMMUNICATION NEEDS; THE ROLE OF KEY STAGE 1 CLASSROOMS

Dr Joanna Vivash

Abstract

Speech, language and communication needs (SLCN) are thought to have a negative influence on a child's subsequent development and educational attainment and SLCN is the most prevalent primary educational need for children with Special Educational Needs (SEN) in primary schools. As part of a wider investigation into provision for children with SLCN, 12 observations of Key Stage 1 (KS1) classrooms were completed to explore the language environment. The results highlighted that many classrooms had the structural features conducive to an oral language rich environment, however, the opportunities to practice language skills through interactions with adults and peers did not appear to be as well embedded. A number of elements are highlighted which consider those things that may need to be in place such that teachers are supported in developing provision for children with SLCN, as well as to enhance the language development opportunities for all children.

Who Are the Children With SLCN?

The term SLCN can be thought of as an umbrella term and children with SLCN are not a homogenous group. There is much variability in the specific need, concurrent difficulties and the causality of the impairment. Some children may have difficulties with the use of language to convey meaning (expressive language), difficulties with understanding what is being communicated (receptive language) or they may experience difficulties with understanding the social use of language (pragmatics). Further, some children may have a primary need of SLCN, others may have difficulties where SLCN may be thought of as a secondary need; for example, children may have conditions such as cerebral palsy, autism, hearing impairments or acquired brain injury which can affect their speech, language or communication.

Why Consider Children with SLCN?

Research, such as that by Dockrell and Lindsay (2000), has highlighted how speech and language difficulties can impact on a child's education through problems accessing the curriculum, interaction and social skills, and through their attention and approach to learning. Further, a wide range of literature exists considering the socio-behavioural functioning of children with SLCN and there is widespread acknowledgement of the risk of negative social and emotional outcomes, including increased risk of victimization and bullying (Conti-Ramsden & Botting, 2004; Savage, 2005), difficulties in resolving arguments and conflicts (Stevens & Bliss, 1995), and lower levels of self-esteem and self-confidence (Lindsay, Dockrell, Letchford, & Mackie, 2002).

Figures from the DfE highlighted the prevalence of SLCN with 30.6% of children having a primary need of SLCN within state-funded primary schools (Department for Education, 2013). Given the negative outcomes associated with SLCN mentioned above and the significant proportion of children affected, it is vital that further understanding is gained as to how schools can support the needs of these children.

The implications of the new SEND reforms on children with SLCN

The introduction of the Children and Families Act (2014) which has driven current Special Educational Needs and Disability (SEND) reforms and the introduction of Education, Health and Care Plans (EHCP) raises particular issues for children with SLCN. Firstly, for the

majority of children with SLCN, they are unlikely to be eligible for an EHCP as many of their needs were met at the previous classification system of School Action (SA) or School Action Plus (SA+), whereby additional in-school support at SA, or external agencies for children at SA+ are provided which aim to meet the child's need in their school. As these categories no longer exist and have been replaced by one classification of SEN Support which aims to focus on a graduated response as part of a local offer as set out by the Local Authority (LA), there are concerns as to how children's SLCN will be met due to the variability this may bring. Additionally, a key tenet of the Act was the joint commissioning between Health and Education services which is particularly pertinent for children with SLCN given support is often received from professionals from both Health and Education; the Act does not, however, give a clear indication of how joint commissioning will work in practice.

Thus, given the prevalence of children with SLCN and changing educational climate which aims to support them, it is imperative to explore those factors which can support children with SLCN in mainstream settings.

The importance of KS1 classrooms on developing oral language

The negative implications of SLCN on educational attainment are widely acknowledged and literature into specific skills which are arguably necessary for classroom learning have shown some of the difficulties children with SLCN may have. For example, children with language difficulties have been shown to have difficulties with acquiring literacy skills (Stothard, Snowling, Bishop, Chipchase, & Kaplan, 1998), writing difficulties (Dockrell, Ricketts, Charman, & Lindsay, 2014), difficulties with numeracy (Harrison, McLeod, Berthelsen, & Walker, 2009), working memory (Baddeley, 2003) and executive functioning skills which are concerned with the planning and organising of tasks and higher order reasoning skills (Henry, Messer, & Nash, 2012). Further, the importance of educational contexts in fostering such skills are well established. Indeed, Dockrell et al., (2015) highlighted how providing environments which are supportive of oral language development in KS1 can support both literacy development and enhance talk which is thought to contribute to academic learning such as discussing, collaborating and problem solving (Resnick, Michaels & O'Connor, 2010).

In order to explore the classroom environment, the Communication Supporting Classroom (CsC) Observation Tool was used. The CsC Observational Tool aims to explore classroom features which would support oral language growth and support school staff to develop opportunities and interactions for language learning (Dockrell et al., 2015). The CsC Observation Tool is widely accessible to practitioners and includes a guidance document on how to complete the tool and examples of what may be observed. Moreover, the tool is available free of charge from the Communication Trust website (http://www.thecommunicationtrust.org.uk/resources/resources/resources-for-practitioners/communication-supporting-classroom-observation-tool.aspx). The CsC Observation Tool considers three dimensions, the Language Learning Environment (LLE) consisting of 19 items which are either observed or not; Language Learning Opportunities (LLO), consisting of 5 items, and Language Learning Interactions (LLI), consisting of 20 items, both of which can be observed a maximum of 5 times. In total, 12 classroom observations were carried out in 6 different primary schools in the Eastern England region. This included five Foundation Stage Classrooms, three Year 1 classrooms, one Year 2 classrooms and three mixed KS1 classrooms.

How the role of KS1 classrooms in supporting oral language development is realised in practice

Firstly, when considering patterns across the schools it was generally true that the mean ratio score for the LLE was higher than the mean ratio scores for both the LLO and the LLI, suggesting that many of the environmental features conducive to an oral rich language environment were present however the opportunities to develop oral language through purposeful interactions did not appear to be as well embedded.

When thinking about the classroom environment in particular, on the whole many of the environmental features thought to be conducive to supporting oral language were in place across most of the classrooms. This included many structural features such as quiet areas, good light and open space and typically signs and pictures were used to identify and label learning areas and resources; however only half of the classrooms displayed the children's work and only one classroom had displays which invited comments from the children. All classrooms had an appropriate range of books available and most had specific book areas available.

When considering if there were any differences between the different year groups it was noted that all Foundation Stage classrooms observed had role play areas and easy access to free play resources however these were missing from two of the Year 1 and Year 2 classes, and the mixed Yr 1/Yr 2 class which raised an interesting point regarding the role of play in language development. Weisberg, Zosh, Hirsh-Pasek, and Golinkoff (2013) suggested that play can support language development through encouraging symbolic thinking, social interaction, exposure to vocabulary and engagement, and Roskos and Christie (2001) argued that the language a child uses in play supports literacy development. However, whilst play opportunities are likely to have greater impact in the early years (Weisberg et al., 2013), and it is important to note that whilst there may be a correlation between play and language, the relationship is possibly not a causal one; however, one could argue that there is still a role for play in Years 1 and 2. For example it could be suggested that for many children with SLCN, their language development may be not be at the same point as their peers and thus would benefit from the opportunity to have access to play based resources which correlate to their developmental level of language.

Interactions between the children and adults was another area that was considered, with the teachers and TAs appearing to be more confident in the use of techniques which may be considered classroom practice; for example getting down to the child's level, using a slow pace and using the child's name. However, there appeared to be few examples of adults talking with children or using specific interaction techniques relating to directing language learning or language modelling responses, which may additionally support children's language development. Indeed, interactions which include modelling of target words, expanding the utterance, and recasting are thought to lead to faster language acquisition (Chapman, 2000) and Justice (2004) argued that competence in the use of strategies such as extending, labelling and scripting are fundamental to providing high-quality verbal input. However, it is also recognised that these techniques are often used less frequently than would be hoped (Girolametto, Weitzman, & Greenberg, 2003) and one suggestion is that a teacher's pedagogical skill may influence the interaction and quality of teacher talk (Dickinson, Hofer, Barnes, & Grifenhagen, 2014).

Thus, this raises an important point relating to how teachers' skills may impact on the support children with SLCN will receive in practice. Indeed, Dockrell, Lindsay, Roulstone, and Law (2014) suggested that all children are entitled to effective teaching to support SLCN; however, one could question the feasibility of achieving this if teachers do not feel confident to do so. Indeed, Wilson and Demetriou (2007) noted the role of teacher confidence and how a teacher's self-belief was linked closely to their learning and classroom practice.

Finally, as mentioned previously, there is increasing evidence to suggest that children with language difficulties are at risk of developing literacy difficulties. Indeed, Bishop and Snowling (2004) argued that children's ability to read was affected by SLI, as these children may have both phonological and non-phonological language impairments; it is also noted that children with language difficulties are at risk of literacy difficulties (Stothard et al., 1998). Further, Dockrell, Ricketts, et al. (2014) suggested that children with language impairments may struggle with writing due to a number of difficulties associated with components of the oral language system such as phonological processes, vocabulary and grammatical accuracy.

However, it is noted that opportunities to develop literacy skills further were missed. For example, almost all classroom environments observed failed to produce displays which invited comments from children, and failed to have literacy specific areas available, a key component of a language rich classroom environment (Justice, 2004). Moreover, it was also noted that interactive book reading was not an activity that was widely seen during the observation period despite the promising gains which children make in terms of emergent literacy skills and vocabulary development when exposed to this opportunity (Hargrave & Sénéchal, 2000; Justice, Kaderavek, Fan, Sofka, & Hunt, 2009)

What implications does this have on teachers and schools?

It is noted that whilst the observations were a reflection of what was occurring at the school during the observation period, it does not mean to say that the items not observed were not happening at other times of the day. However, arguably whilst there were many positive findings highlighted as to how KS1 classrooms were supporting oral language development, it appeared that there was a potential gap in teachers' understanding as to how this could be maximised. It could be argued that one way of supporting teachers in developing their use of talk with children would be through training however the evidence as to whether this occurs in practice is limited. For example, whilst Starling, Munro, Togher, and Arciuli (2012) highlighted how training to secondary school teachers resulted in an increase in language modification techniques used in the classroom and Leyden, Stackhouse, and Szczerbinski (2011) noted that the implementation of a whole school approach to supporting SLCN appeared well-regarded by key staff, reporting an increase in the use of visual support strategies, and adult-child directed speech, there is little clear evidence as to how this directly relates to outcomes for children with SLCN and it would appear that professional development alone is not enough to lead to a change in language practice (Neuman & Cunningham, 2009). Instead, it may be that teachers and schools look for additional support and arguably in may be that Educational Psychologists (EPs) could have a role to play. Indeed, EPs frequently offer consultation to schools and through working collaboratively to joint problem solve around their provision for children with SLCN it may be that teachers can be greater empowered to embrace the responsibility of meeting the needs of children with SLCN in KS1 classrooms.

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Biography

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HAZELWOOD SCHOOL – A CATALYST FOR REFORMATORY EDUCATION?

Daniel Wale

Abstract

Hazelwood School was established at the beginning of the nineteenth century, in Birmingham, by the Hill family. This paper argues that the ethos and unique practices adopted at the school by the Hills, together with their individual activities, which were influenced by a series of socially-minded individuals with whom they came into contact, can be seen as contributing to the choice of Birmingham as the location for the first national conference on the reform of juvenile criminals, held in 1851, and to the development of the reformatory and industrial schools that were later established to accommodate criminal children. Additionally, the efforts of successive generations of the Hill family, who continued to work to improve the treatment of neglected and criminal children, were so progressive that their influence extended beyond Victorian Britain.

In 1851 Birmingham hosted the first national conference on the reform of juvenile criminals (Barnard, 1857, p.307). Later legislative changes eventually abolished the jailing of children but why did Birmingham host this first conference? My research into juvenile crime in Victorian Birmingham has led me to examine Hazelwood School as being a potential catalyst for both this and the subsequent development of reformatory education.

Historians and educationalists have examined the school before, though only for its influence on mainstream education. The practical application of many of the subjects offered was noteworthy when compared to traditional teaching methods. Michael Sadler (1923, p.5) highlighted this and John Adamson (1930, pp.272-273) underlined the unusual diversity of its curriculum. R.L. Archer (1937, p.19) noted it was a 'remarkable' educational experiment and drew parallels with the school's use of punishment in a reformatory manner and the subsequent influence of Matthew Davenport Hill. H.C. Barnard (1961, pp.20-21) described the Hill family's contribution to education as 'outstanding', stating their school embodied some of the most modern and progressive educational principles. The institution's contribution to the development of education is clear but its place within reformatory education has not been specifically identified.

Hazelwood developed from an earlier school in Birmingham opened, in 1803, by Thomas Wright Hill (Hey, 1954, pp.19-20). Born at Kidderminster, in 1763, family acquaintances included reformers John Howard and William Wilberforce (Dobson, 1959, pp.261-262). An apprenticeship led Hill to move to Birmingham where he joined Joseph Priestley's congregation and later became a teacher in Priestley's Sunday School (Dobson, 1959, p.263; Hey, 1989, pp.22-23).

Upon opening his first school, Hill published details of the elements that drove his ethos and provided the foundation for practices that came to fruition at Hazelwood. These highlighted a spirit of kindness and co-operation, and the overriding importance of moral training. The exploitation of the particular interests and talents of each pupil, to bring the most out of them, was deemed vital (Hey, 1954, pp.19-20).

This system comprised three main elements, primarily designed to underpin discipline. Firstly, through the 'Hazelwood Assizes' – a court comprised of pupils – those accused of discipline breaches were judged by their peers (Dobson, 1960, p.5). The Laws of Hazelwood School amounted to over 110 pages, and detailed the penalties, or punishments, that could be imposed. These ranged from fines to imprisonment, as the school possessed a 'gaol'. A criminal register recorded all convictions (Hill. R. and Hill. F., (eds.), 1827, pp.40-49).

The second element saw the school day organised with military punctuality (Bartrip, 1980, p.51). From dawn, pupils started or finished tasks, such as dressing, eating or studying, to a bell rung by a monitor over sixty times a day (Dobson, 1960, p.5). Those failing to act promptly were fined, as was the monitor if he failed to ring the bell at the correct time. Music was also used as a prompt; the school had its own band and the pupils were described as moving with 'military order and exactness'. Underlining the efforts made to utilize the whole day, a newspaper was read aloud during supper (Kaleidoscope, 1825, pp.25-26; Public Education, 1827, pp.4, 52-53).

The final element involved using tokens, or marks, for rewards and punishments (Public Education, 1827, p.6). They acted as an internal currency and were earned for undertaking additional duties; such as serving at the 'Assizes', for exceptional pieces of school work and even prompt attendance at the thrice daily roll calls. They were used to pay any fines accrued but could be exchanged for treats.

The relevance of these elements is highlighted when compared with practices adopted at Saltley Reformatory. Opened in 1853 to accommodate convicted boys, it has been selected for comparison because it was also in Birmingham and Matthew Davenport Hill – the son of Thomas Wright Hill – played a significant role in its establishment (First Annual Report of the Birmingham Reformatory Institution, 1854, p.3). As illustrated below, the parallels that emerge are striking, particularly considering Hazelwood significantly pre-dated the reformatory.

A high level of discipline would be expected in such a penal establishment but Saltley's inmates actually had far fewer rules to adhere to than Hazelwood's pupils. It did, though, possess a 'jury', comprised of inmates, which was established by John Ellis, the first superintendant. It ruled on the punishments for those found breaking the rules and, as Ellis noted, frequently allocated stronger punishments than he felt necessary (First Annual Report of the Birmingham Reformatory Institution, 1854, p.7).

Bartrip (1980, p.51), when describing the amount of responsibility given Hazelwood's pupils, highlighted that, rather than allowing more freedom, they were actually restricted by such responsibility as it produced a 'bondage of regimentation'. This reflects the comments of Michel Foucault (1991, p. 293) when he described the early French reformatory at Mettray as combining the cloister, prison, school and regiment to produce a severe form of coercive discipline. The potential benefit of this when applied to Saltley's inmates may not have been lost on those who established the institution. Mirroring Hazelwood, an instrumental band was also established there. This practice was subsequently adopted by many comparable institutions and J.A. Hitchens (1903, p.37) later wrote that a majority of the British Army's regimental bands comprised former reformatory and industrial school boys.

A Hazelwood 'style' mark system was introduced at Saltley, it was also applied in factory schools and prisons (Stewart and McCann, 1967, p.236). Alexander Maconochie was a strong supporter of such schemes. A naval officer who governed the Norfolk Island penal colony between 1840 and 1844, he had proposed a similar system where inmates worked to earn marks in order to obtain anything from food to clothing or even their freedom (Maconochie, 1857; Moore, 2011, p.43). He first suggested this in 1837 and, according to a later headmaster of the school, Maconochie confirmed the idea was based on Hazelwood's scheme (Moore, 2011, p.41; Schools Enquiry Commission, 1868, p.846). In 1849, as Recorder of Birmingham, Matthew Davenport Hill appointed him as the first governor of the new borough gaol. Local justices permitted Maconochie to experiment with a modified mark system but it was unsuccessful and he was subsequently dismissed. (Stewart and McCann, 1967, p.237; Moore, 2011, p.45) Despite this, Hill credited Maconochie as being a major contributor to making the prison system more humane (Hill. M.D., (ed.),1861, pp.213-240).

As mentioned earlier, the practices adopted at Hazelwood were influenced by a series of individuals who came into contact with the school or members of the Hill family separately. Jeremy Bentham was one. In 'Chrestomathia', he advocated education to be more practical than just based on the classics and suggested schools adopted 'scholar juries' and 'delinquent registers' to enable students to learn how to discipline themselves (Bentham, 1816, pp.14, 70, 120-127). He subsequently met Matthew Davenport Hill and recognised many of his proposals were already operating at Hazelwood (Harris, 1988, p.187). Bentham's support and influence raised the profile of the school.

Through Bentham, Henry Brougham became associated with Hazelwood and the Hills. A life-long advocate of education for the poor, he recognised its place in the prevention of crime (Stewart and McCann, 1967, p.242). He later worked with Matthew Davenport Hill to reform the treatment of child criminals and established the National Reformatory Union with Matthew's son Alfred (Hill. M.D., 1857, p.346; Hill. R. and F., 1878, pp.286-290) Together with Frederic, Edwin and Rowland Hill, also brothers of Matthew, Brougham founded the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge (SDUK); an organisation which aimed to provide inexpensive educational material (New, 1961, p.351).

In May 1824, Robert Dale Owen, who became a renowned politician and social reformer in America, visited Hazelwood (Encyclopaedia Britannica; Hazelwood Magazine, 1824, pp.29-30). Owen had been educated at the school of Philippe Emanuel von Fellenberg at Hofwyl, in Switzerland, which was described as possessing a similar organisational style to Hazelwood, incorporating the teaching of philanthropic and humanitarian values (Donnachie, 2004). Later, the Hills recorded how, at Owen's suggestion, a number of changes were made to the school's management (Hill. R. and F., 1878, p.61).

Owen's father, Robert senior, was a Scottish mill owner who adopted a policy of philanthropic management. Regarded as one of the founders of infant education in Scotland, he also reduced his employees working hours and organised the village surrounding his mill into electing a jury which arbitrated on community disputes. He

was also an associate of Jeremy Bentham (Claeys, 2004). Rowland and Matthew Hill visited New Lanark in the 1820s (Gorham, 1978, p.134).

Four of Thomas Wright Hill's eight children became particularly influential. Matthew Davenport Hill was the first Recorder of Birmingham; effectively the head of the local judiciary, and the acknowledged pioneer of probation in Great Britain. Where possible, instead of jailing children, he remanded them into the care of suitable adults, most frequently their employer, and tasked the police to monitor their progress (Timasheff, 1941, pp.12-13; Tobias, 1979, pp.177-8). Together with Mary Carpenter, Hill also organised two further conferences in Birmingham on the subject of juvenile delinquency, in 1853 and 1861 (Hill. R. and F., 1878, pp.164, 174).

Another son, Rowland, though known for developing the modern postal service, was also involved with establishing the SDUK (New, 1961, p.348). He taught at Hazelwood and made a point of accepting boys with limited academic abilities or reputations for being troublesome (Hey, 1989, pp.96-97). In 1832 he published Home Colonies. Resulting from visits he had made to several continental 'pauper agricultural colonies', at the request of Henry Brougham, it described how the colonies occupants grew their own food and received an education. Said to alleviate poverty and reduce crime, Hill made an ultimately unsuccessful suggestion that they be established in this country (Hill. C., 1894, p.105). Their particular significance is that they mirrored the reformatory farm schools that were established later in Britain to accommodate criminal children.

Frederic Hill served as a prison inspector in Scotland where he suggested establishing an institution that children would attend upon completion of their prison sentences (Hey, 1989, p.41). There, they would be taught a trade, with which to support themselves, to ensure they did not return to crime. His proposal was never realised. In 1853 he described the importance of a family atmosphere and the use of exercise in the rehabilitation of children. He also recommended using old ships to train boys to be sailors; such training ships were introduced two years later (Second Report of the Inspector Appointed to Visit Reformatory Schools, 1859, pp.36-37). He is attributed as influencing reformatory practices in America and it was said his portrait hung on the walls of the Elmira Reformatory in New York; the significance of this particular institution will be highlighted shortly (Hill. C., 1894, pp. 280, 284, 321).

Edwin Hill was one of the lesser known of Thomas' sons. He taught woodworking, practical engineering and metalwork at Hazelwood but also had his own opinions on crime prevention. He was particularly concerned with schemes that targeted the adults who benefited from the crimes of children and presented several papers to the Social Science Association on the subject (Hill, 1868; 1871).

The reforming activities of the Hill family continued into the next generation, mainly through the children of Matthew. They became involved with child welfare and continued work to improve the treatment of juvenile criminals. Alfred, his Hazelwood educated son, was involved in managing reformatories in Smethwick, Saltley and Warwick, as well as Gem Street Industrial School, Birmingham (Lowes, p.41).

By 1852, Matthew's daughters Florence, Rosamund and Joanna were working in Bristol with Mary Carpenter to raise awareness of child poverty there (Gorham, 2004;

Manton, 1976, p.115). Rosamund later joined the Industrial Schools' Committee for the School Board of London and raised the plight of disabled juvenile criminals (National Association of Certified Reformatory and Industrial Schools, 1894, p.189). Florence campaigned to improve the standard of industrial training provided for girls placed in workhouses (Hopkins, 1882, p.144). Joanna formed part of the management of Smethwick Reformatory alongside her brother Alfred and was a visiting justice at Birmingham gaol, as well as a magistrate in the city (Lowes, p.103). She also managed a 'boarding-out' scheme for children in and around Birmingham; this saw children from workhouses placed with 'suitable' local families (Hopkins, 1892, p.151).

However, the influence of Hazelwood and the Hills was not confined to this country or the nineteenth century. In the 1870s, Florence and Rosamond Hill were credited as developing a pioneering scheme of boarding-out children in Australia. They worked with their cousin Emily Clark, daughter of Caroline Hill; herself the daughter of Thomas Wright Hill, who emigrated in the 1850s (Gorham, 2004; Gorham, 1978, pp.141, 146). Earlier, in Sweden, in 1830 a school based on Hazelwood's educational practices was opened with the assistance of former pupil Edward Levin. Hillska Skolan survived for sixteen years (Stewart and McCann, 1967, p.121).

The Hills views were particularly popular in America. The 1870 National Congress on Penitentiary and Reformatory Discipline, held in Ohio, included papers by Edwin, Frederic and Matthew, as well as his daughter Joanna (Wines (ed.), 1871, pp.105, 110, 394, 574). The American reformer Thomas Mott Osborne used some of the principles expressed by Matthew as a framework for reforming the American prison system at the beginning of the twentieth century (Hey, 1854, p.289).

Earlier, in 1895, Osborne had worked with William George to establish the George Junior Republic. This institution, which still survives, took troubled children from New York's poverty-stricken tenements to an area in the countryside which was effectively run as a mini-republic (Holl, 1969, p.55; Hull, 1897, pp.73-74). Reflecting the practices at Hazelwood, it had its own laws and the children themselves judged those who transgressed its rules. It possessed a prison and all were required to work to earn 'Republic money', a variation on the mark scheme, to buy anything they required there (Holl, 1969, pp.48-50; Hull, 1897, pp. 77-78).

In 1869, New York's legislature established the Elmira Reformatory, where American prison reformers Enoch Wines and Gaylord Hubble implemented a new system designed for the rehabilitation of young criminals. Both they, and the commission behind the legislation, acknowledged the influence of the ideas of Frederick and Matthew Davenport Hill (Wines, 1895, pp.192, 197, 200; Winter, 1891, pp.3-4). The particular significance of this is that the Elmira system was the model for the Borstal system in this country, which replaced the Victorian reformatory and industrial schools (Forsythe, 1991, pp.15, 46-47); this creates a unique situation where the ideas of the same group of individuals influenced both the development of the Victorian system and the system that replaced it.

Some of the practices found at Hazelwood School were clearly transferrable to the later reformatory and industrial schools developed to accommodate delinquent children. It seems that the school's ethos made it an epicentre which absorbed ideas

about social reform. Though Hazelwood was originally shaped by the Hills, some family members developed a social conscience that shaped their adult lives and prompted an almost generational campaign to improve the lot of criminal and neglected children. Not only did they influence contemporary institutions but also, nearly a century later, the work of the Hills was being used as a guide for penal reform in the United States. Clearly Hazelwood's influence was greater than its role as the catalyst for the development of reformatory education.

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Biography

Now in the final year of my PhD at the University of Birmingham, researching juvenile crime in Victorian Birmingham, I have had articles published in the journals *Warwickshire History* and *History West Midlands.* I have commenced teaching undergraduates and will also be contributing to the MA (West Midlands History) course.

SEX EDUCATION: PERCEPTIONS AND EXPERIENCES OF WINDOW OF HOPE TUTORS IN GHANAIAN COLLEGES OF EDUCATION

Gordon Mabengban Yakpir

Abstract

The social structure of the Ghanaian society has changed over the century due to the influence of western education and religion. Puberty rites, once avenues for sex education has found no locus in these new religions and western style education. Instead school based sex education programs are now avenues for educating the youth about sexuality in the face of the devastating effects of HIV/AIDS, sexually transmitted infections, teenage and unwanted pregnancies, sexual abuse and the violent abhorrence of homosexuality in Ghana.

The purpose of this study is to explore the experiences and perceptions of Ghanaian college sex education tutors regarding the subject, their experiences growing up and of teaching sex education and what inform their pedagogies, challenges and what they deem must be done to maximise the benefits of sex education.

This is a qualitative study involving interviews with five purposively sampled tutors and employing Interpretative phenomenological analysis (IPA).

Key Words: sex education, Teachers experiences, sex education pedagogies, perceptions of sex education

Introduction

In Ghana, as in many other parts of the world, there is a culture of silence on issues of sexuality though it is difficult to separate sexuality from the everyday life of any society. As Ankomah (1992) puts it, "sexual matters are among the popular topics for conversation and gossip, but there is less evidence of serious societal debate about sexual issues". Thus, during their transition from youth to adulthood, most youth do not receive any explanation as to the biological changes happening to their bodies until they attain puberty. Initiation or puberty rites, avenues for sex education exist in many traditional African cultures for young Africans reaching puberty.

The combined effects of HIV and the other sexually transmitted infections, teenage pregnancies, unsafe abortions, intolerance of homosexuality and discussing sex, and domestic violence in Ghana makes the case for a more comprehensive sex education. First detected in 1986, HIV infection rates went from 2.1% in 1987 to 2.7% by 1996, peaking at 3.6% in 2003. Although recent statistics published by Ghana AIDS Commission (2014), indicate a decline in the prevalence rate of HIV (1.3% in 2013), the demographic group (0-14) most affected means this decline cannot be celebrated. In the last few years abortion rates have consistently gone up (from 5,525 abortions among adolescents in 2009, rising to 6,679 in 2010 and 7,800 in 2011 - Daily Graphic, 2012). It must be said these are reported abortions. Crude, unreported abortions do take place in quack clinics and these cannot be accounted for (Guttmacher Institute, 2010).

Today the focus of sex education is not just to prevent promiscuity and pre-marital sex among adolescents but to stem the tide of sexually transmitted infections such as HIV, decline in age at first sex and increase rates of abortion and also to teach children about sexual identities, relationships within the social context of the society, responsible sexual attitudes and behaviour as defined by the society. The ultimate aim is a productive populace for sustained socio-economic development.

Sex education, especially that taking place in schools has been found to be effective in dealing with the challenges enumerated above by many researchers (UNAIDS, 1997; Grunseit et al., 1997; Kirby, 2000). Daria & Campbell (2004) enumerate the following as benefits of sex education; firstly, it enables the youth to get accurate information and explore their values about sexuality in an environment that is supportive and non- threatening. Secondly, learners will learn to practice relationship refusal skills that enable them to avoid being coerced into sexual activity. Thirdly, beneficiaries learn to practice safer sex in order to prevent HIV and STIs as well as the role that safe sex and abstinence can play in the prevention of these diseases. Sex education has also been found to contribute to sexual behaviour change (Kirby, Laris and Rolleri, 2005). Finally, sexuality education should encourage young people to become wise, sexually-healthy adults.

In spite of the noted aversion to discussing sex in Ghanaian culture, sex education has always been part of Ghana's education albeit in different forms. Before Ghana's independence in 1957, the major provider of western style education were missionaries and thus religious and moral education were key components and sex education was embedded in these. Sexuality education at post - independence has always been dealt with in Ghana's education as;

1.   integration in other subject areas especially the physiological aspects (Reproduction in Humans, Sexually Transmitted Infections – biology or Natural science; Sex Abuse, Teenage Pregnancy – Social Studies)
2.   Religious and moral education taking care of the moral, emotional, social and behavioural aspects of sexuality.
3.   Stand-alone sex education – tertiary level only.

The National HIV/AIDS/STI Policy and the National Strategic Framework on HIV/AIDS were two policies formulated by the government of Ghana in response to the HIV/AIDS pandemic. These two policies mandated public sector ministries to design and implement sector specific programmes aimed at combating HIV. Thus, in 2000 the Ministry of Education (MOE) began implementation of HIV/AIDS intervention programs under guidelines contained in the National strategic plan. Prior to this initiative, MOE had integrated Population / Family Life Education topics which included some form of sex education into existing curricula in four career subjects at each level of the school programme: Basic school, High school, and Post-secondary Institutions. Supported by World Education, Ghana, a national HIV and AIDS curriculum, "Window of Hope"(WoH) was developed. This curriculum was designed to provide teachers with the necessary information to effectively teach HIV & AIDS issues in the classroom.

Statement of the Problem

The Window of Hope curriculum was piloted in 2005, evaluated and the findings used to repackage it into a core and examinable course in 2007.

Crucial to the implementation and success of any educational program is the skills, beliefs and practices of those responsible for its implementation (Peterson and Bickman, 1988). As recognized by Tijuana, et al. (2004), teacher's attitudes, beliefs and values towards sexuality affect their teaching; and their ability to provide counselling on sexuality matters is dependent on the capability to differentiate what forms of sexual behaviour and belief are accepted to them personally and what could be acceptable to their clients, or other people (Long, Burnett, & Thomas, 2003). This is even more relevant when the sex educator is a teacher educator. The novice pre-service teachers learn their practice by listening to and observing the practices of their teacher.

Sex education (WoH) tutors in colleges of education in Ghana certainly have experiences about sex education arising from their own lived experiences and practice which invariably may or may not inform their approach as well as pedagogies. Identifying and recognising these experiences and how they influence the practice of sex education is paramount to policy formulators and curriculum developers as they are duty bound to ensure that there is harmony in the ideologies and interest by all stakeholders but especially by the implementers.

The purpose of this study is to explore the experiences and perceptions held by college sex education tutors regarding the subject, their experiences growing up and of teaching sex education and what inform their pedagogies, their challenges and what they deem must be done to maximise the benefits of sex education to their students and by extension the general society.

Research questions

This study will be guided by the following questions;

1. What are the lived experiences of tutors of the window of Hope module in Ghanaian Colleges of Education regarding sex education?
2. How do window of Hope module tutors in colleges of education in Ghana perceive sex education?
3. To what extent does the lived sex education experience of window of Hope module tutors in Ghanaian colleges of education influence their approach and pedagogical choices?

Significance of the study

In spite of the seeming success of HIV/AIDS education in Ghana where awareness is almost universal, there is little published research concerning sexuality education in Ghana. The few available are basically research involving students or beneficiaries of sex education. Therefore this study will critically contribute to available literature on sex education and perhaps a pioneering literature on the experiences of sex education teachers in Ghana. Policy makers, curriculum developers and other

stakeholders in Ghana's education sector will benefit from the findings of this study in the sense that they will have a first-hand understanding of the experiences and approach of the implementers of their products and therefore tailor their products to the strengths of the implementers.

What do we know about Teachers experiences, perceptions and pedagogies?

To get a clear understanding of the issues being researched an extensive literature review will be necessary. For the purposes of this paper however, I will briefly review the key issues of teachers' own experiences with sex education, perceptions and pedagogies.

There is a lot of research (Motalingoane-Khau, 2010; Bowden et al 2003; Alldred, David and Smith, 2003) establishing the fact that teachers are the primary agents for successful sex education, and that they achieve success not just by sharing knowledge but by their attitudes with regards to the knowledge they share. Attitudes are formed out of the experiences one goes through and the values placed on the experiences. Studies (Milton, 2003; Motalingoane-Khau, 2010; Alldred, David and Smith, 2003) have reported teachers finding themselves in several conflict situations when the demands of the curriculum conflict with their personal values and judgement and when questions are asked about their own sexuality in the class or when other staff members ridicule them because of what they teach. For instance, in Milton (2010) when asked about how contraception was taught a respondent had the following to say;

"No, we don't do contraception and we don't do HIV and AIDS because for them to be important to you, you have to be sexually active ... I guess it might be a value judgment that the kids aren't sexually active .... As to whether or not we should, that question comes up each year.... (M2)"

Teachers have been noted to have a positive perception to the relevance of sex education and its effectiveness in addressing sex related issues such as teen pregnancies and STIs (Bharatwaj and Jain, 2013; Onwuezobe and Ekanem, 2009; Alldred, David and Smith, 2003). Age, gender, religion and level of education have been found to affect teachers perceptions and readiness to teach sexuality (Onwuezobe and Ekanem, 2009; Mchumu, 2007).

On sex education pedagogies, Sanjakder et al (2015) writes that it has been driven by first, the safer option of disease prevention instead of looking at the more socially-oriented, health-enhancing behaviours underpinned by critical thinking and secondly, young people have been considered as a unified group in spite of the growing cultural and ethnic diversification within the school context.

Pedagogies that have focused on risk knowledge (McWilliams, 1996) and normative ideals of sex, sexuality, and gender have been described as conservative pedagogies and are said to be pervasive in the practice of sex education (Allen 2007; Rasmussen 2006) and are aimed basically at equipping beneficiaries with a system of values, attitudes, behaviours, beliefs, and morality that supports and reproduces the established social order and the class interests that dominate it. Critical pedagogy, an approach that seeks to transform oppressive structures in society

using democratic and activist approaches to teaching and learning (Darder, Baltodano, and Torres 2003) has been noted by Sanjakder et al (2015) as an approach that encourages participatory, democratic, critical, and reflective practice within the classroom. Such a transformation approach is essential to sex education because, as Cohen et al (2000 p.31) put it, pedagogy should not "merely be to give an account of society and behaviour" or to "understand situations and phenomena, but to change them". Change should be the focus if we are to overcome the sexuality challenges facing today's young people.

METHODOLOGY

This is a qualitative study designed to explore the lived experiences, perceptions and pedagogical choices of sex education tutors in Ghanaian colleges of education using the Interpretative phenomenological analysis design (IPA).

The qualitative approach is appropriate for this study because it seeks to explore the experiences of participants regarding sex education and their practice as sex educators. Experiences are unique to every individual and so is their interpretation of the events in their experiences. As shown by Geertz (1988, p. 10), qualitative approaches and engagements with small groups allow a researcher to do "thick and deep" work to gain understanding into how a few individuals perceive and experience a phenomenon. I deem the thick and deep work as necessary because there is virtually no reported study involving college sex educators in Ghana and so as a result, very scanty literature is available. The approach will also provide the opportunity for study participants to reflect on their experiences and work practices which will help them gain insight into their perspectives as they share with me (Schratz and Walker 1995). The gaining of different perspectives of an issue is an important step in arriving at what is good for all involved and will eventually lead to the desired social change.

Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis (IPA) according to Smith (as cited in Brooks, 2015, p. 644) "aims to provide an in-depth and nuanced analysis of participants' accounts of their lived experience". IPA is a variant of Phenomenology. According to Brooks (2015, p.642), "phenomenology is about isolating 'essences'- invariant features and structures of phenomena and to describe these as precisely as possible". The description of the essences of a phenomena helps to identify the qualities that makes a particular experience unique or distinctive. Phenomenology is credited to Husserl Edmund (1859 – 1938), a German philosopher who in the words of Brooks (2015, p.642) believed that "to be able to identify the distinctive qualities of an experience, it was necessary to adopt a specific attitude, to suspend – or bracket – presuppositions and judgments so that a clear and unblinkered view of the life world could emerge". However, Husserl's student, Heidegger, felt bracketing or suspending presuppositions or judgment was not entirely possible because to understand the reality of an experience both the detailed experience and the bigger picture (language, temporality, history and culture) were necessary. For Heidegger, an individual's relation to the world was both interpretative and relational – that is always situated in a context. The point made by Heidegger is the basis for IPA. As Smith and Osborn (2003, p.51) puts it succinctly, "both the researcher and the participant are intrinsically sense-making creatures, thus the researcher is free to try to make sense of the participants trying to make sense of their world". Thus this study

will explore the experiences of sex education tutors in Ghanaian colleges of education within the context of their family, social and educational environments and what it meant to them and to the society then and how it has or not influenced their practice. They will also relay their experiences with teaching sex education within the context of today's social environment and what those experiences mean to them and their practice. Whilst they do these I will be trying also to make meaning of their experiences within the context of my inquiry.

The study participants will be five purposively sampled Window of Hope tutors in colleges of education in Ghana recruited by an email. Participants must have taught the module for at least five years and must be based in the Central or Western regions of Ghana and must be available and willing to participate in the study.
The data collection instrument will be an interview guide designed to collect data on the experiences of tutors regarding sex education, their perceptions of sex education, and how their experiences inform their practice as sex educators.

I estimate three interview sessions with each participant, each lasting on the average one hour. Interview sessions will be recorded with the permission of participants and later transcribed by me and validated by participants before the next session. Data explicitation will be done using the five steps outlined by Hycner's (1999);

1.   Bracketing and phenomenological reduction.
2.   Delineating units of meaning.
3.   Clustering of units of meaning to form themes.
4.   Summarizing each interview, validating it and where necessary modifying it.
5.   Extracting general and unique themes from all the interviews and making a composite summary.

Ethics

The study has approval of the ethics committee of the University of Birmingham. Each participant will be given an information pack which spells out the details of the study and what is required of them as well as their rights. Participants will sign a consent form.

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Biography

Gordon Mabengban Yakpir is a PhD student in University of Birmingham. He holds an M.phil and a Bachelor of Science Education from the University of Cape Coast. He is a professional teacher trainer and has taught Biology and Sex Education at all three levels of Ghana's education.